THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF A SCIENTIFIC COMMUNITY
A Case Study of the Travel and Tourism Research Association

by

Honggen Xiao

A thesis
presented to the University of Waterloo
in fulfillment of the
thesis requirement for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
Recreation and Leisure Studies

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2007

Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

Abstract

The applied tourism research community is characterized by a large and growing group of research producers and users; communications and networking amongst its members can build the capacity of the community and create knowledge networks along its social, cultural, and organizational boundaries. The purpose of this thesis research is to examine the role of tourism research associations in the social structuring of a cohesive applied research community and, consequently, in the fostering of its growth. Following an embedded single case design, the study uses the Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA hereafter) as an example of an applied tourism research community. The research examines members' perceptions of the association in the capacity-building of the membership community through research communications and professional networks. Based on documentary sources, an instrument was developed for primary data collection through an online census of TTRA members. Data collection was completed in the Spring of 2007, with a response rate of 28.7%. Data analysis is guided by hypothesis, with results of the case study described and discussed in the contexts of research communications, knowledge networks, scientific community, and research association planning and management.

First, with respect to research communication, a number of social demographic factors are found to have exerted an impact on media use frequencies and decisions, and perceptions of research communication in the membership community. Notably, these include members' occupations, career stages, membership categories, and research-oriented training. The chapter structure of TTRA does not affect members' behaviour in research communication. However, the study confirms a distinction between academics and practitioners and lends support to discussions on the two-community theory concerning cultural and functional differences in producing and consuming research. The study also finds that TTRA-endorsed media are of limited use in the membership community for professional communication. In addition, association members form distinct clusters by the frequency and variety of information sources they have consulted for research communication.

Second, in terms of networks or networking amongst TTRA members, types and extent of member interactions are influenced by members' occupations, in particular whether the member is an academic or practitioner. Professional networks are formed on the basis of research interests and expertise; so are the perceptions of research networks and the perceived role of TTRA in professional networking affected by gender, career stage, membership positions, and disciplinary and research-oriented preparations. The study finds that the strengths of ties amongst members are both causes and

consequences of the size of a community or network. TTRA is generally perceived as becoming too academic and, in light of this, the association is seen as an important facilitator of scholarly networks. Nonetheless, the association community is characterized by pro-academic and pro-practitioner clusters in terms of membership perceptions of research networks and their attitudes towards networking. In addition, while chapter affiliations do not have an impact on network perceptions and behaviour, results from this study point to the facilitator role of association conferences for research communication, professional networking and association capacity-building.

Third, the facilitator role of the association for community capacity-building is widely acknowledged by its members. Respondents see professional networking and association conference venue as particularly important factors in attracting attendance from the membership community. The study confirms the essential role of conferences in building a sense of community for a research association. There is a considerable degree of consensus amongst members on their perceptions of TTRA as a community. Homogeneous clusters are formed by membership perceptions of a community and their willingness or engagement in community service provisions. Conceptually, the clusters developed around (or for) research communication, networking and association capacity-building are highly consistent in terms of pattern matching in case study analysis.

The research has also discussed theoretical and practical implications, some of which are expressed as recommendations for association planning and management. The study concludes with reflections on limitations and prospects for future inquiries.

Acknowledgements

I am indebted to many people for their support in the preparation of this research. To begin with, I would like to thank the thesis committee for their steering role. My heart-felt thanks go to Dr. Stephen Smith, my doctoral advisor, for his assistance in establishing contacts and securing executive support for this study of the Travel and Tourism Research Association, and for his unfailing involvement and guidance in proposal development, refining of instrument, data collection, and analysis and composition. I can hardly explain in pale words how much I have learned from him as a great mentor, close friend and respectable scholar. Over the years, his care and assistance have made my journey to and stay in Waterloo a lot more pleasant than it would otherwise have been for a new immigrant. To Dr. Marion Joppe and Dr. Mark Havitz, I am most grateful for their long-term support of my studies and their willingness to serve many a time in my committees; to Dr. Heather Mair for her resourcefulness and guidance in proposal development and implementation; and to Dr. Kelly Mackay and Dr. Barbara Carmichael for their availability to serve as external and internal-external examiners and for their insights and perspectives as active TTRA members. Without these inputs and support, the research would not have been completed.

My very special thanks go to the faculty and staff in the Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies. Over the years, I have benefited tremendously from their resourcefulness, sincerity and understanding. My appreciation also goes to the administration staff from the Faculty of Applied Health Science and the Graduate Studies Office for their financial, technical and logistic support. Their kindness and care have made my stay here a very rewarding and enjoyable experience.

A number of individuals and organizations have contributed to this research in various ways. I remain thankful to the TTRA members who have spent their time to complete and return my survey. A special thank-you goes to the Board of TTRA-International, and to past Presidents Scott Meis and Noel Sweeney and Executive Director Patty Morgan in particular, for their support of this project as an independent undertaking. My deepest appreciation to Dr. Jafar Jafari for his support, mentorship, and his uncompromising insistence on quality, to Dr. Geoff Wall for his wisdom and inspiration, and to Dr. Bryan Smale for his patience in preparing me for data analysis and interpretation. Dr. Steve Manske (Health Studies) and Dr. Dee Kramer (Kinesiology) have been very helpful in introducing me to knowledge transfer and exchange in their fields. I also thank Lowell Williamson for his assistance in sending out the many rounds of survey emails. This research, and indeed my doctoral studies, would not have been possible without SSHRC Canada Graduate Scholarship, UW President's

Scholarship, and the departmental teaching assistantships. I remain thankful for their financial support.

Thank-you to my fellow graduate students at Waterloo: Michael, Christine, Teresa, Liz, Xiaoye, Pia, Weinan, Mimi, Harvey, Reg, John, Pengbo, Hong Sun, Li Yang, Andy, Andrew, Kathleen, James, Jan, Luke, Felice, Dawn, Andrea, Lisa, Margo, Agnes, Darla, Marica, Rebecca, Linda, Amanda, Bonnie, Yixiao, Yaduo, Kara, Dan Su, and many more. While I beg forbearance for omissions (due to space), I would forever cherish their invaluable friendship, wit and fun from the many volleyball games, brown bags chats, grad house drinks, re-creational socials, symposium networks, and GARLS meetings.

Finally, I give very special thanks to my family for their endless love. My parents' visit (2005-2007) was a great encouragement that accompanied me through the hard times of comprehensive exam, research proposal, and data collection. To my brother and sisters in China, I owe them a big hug for their care and understanding. To Jianping, I am grateful for her keeping of the house and caring of kids, and to Sophie for her helping out. Sarah and Stella are always adorable when I get home. Without their support, I would not have been able to spend long hours in the office working on the project. In a sense, this is also their work.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my grandmother,

Qiuzhao Zhang (1903-2002),

who lives in my childhood memories of “schools” and “home”.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents ..... **viii**
List of Figures..... **xi**
List of Tables ..... **xii**
Chapter 1 Introduction **1**
1.1 Purpose, Objectives, and Research Questions 3
1.2 Conceptualization 5
1.3 Significance 7
1.4 Organization of the Thesis 7
Chapter 2 Context **9**
2.1 The Sociology of a Scientific Community 11
2.1.1 Professional and Scientific Communications 11
2.1.2 Professional Networking 16
2.1.3 Understanding Social Networks in a Research Community 19
2.1.4 Community Capacity and Capacity-Building 22
2.2 Planning and Marketing of Research Associations 27
2.2.1 Services and Activities of Research Associations 28
2.2.2 Membership Commitment and Behaviour 30
2.2.3 Association Planning and Development 32
2.3 Research Associations as Knowledge Networks 33
2.3.1 The Dynamics of Research Knowledge Use 34
2.3.2 Theories about Knowledge Production, Dissemination and Use 35
2.3.3 Utilization Research Methodology 39
2.4 Tourism as an Applied Field of Research and Practice 42
2.4.1 Tourism as an Applied Research Community 43
2.4.2 Tourism Knowledge Networks 49
2.4.3 Tourism Research Associations 56
2.5 Travel and Tourism Research Association 58
2.5.1 Early History 59
2.5.2 The Merge of Two Travel Research Associations 61
2.5.3 The Current Structure 65
2.6 Chapter Summary and Research Implications 67
Chapter 3 Methodology **69**
3.1 Case Study as a Research Strategy 70
3.1.1 Design and Methodological Procedures of Case Study Research 72
3.1.2 Analysis and Theory Building in Case Study Research 73
3.2 Case Study in Tourism Research 74
3.2.1 Themes and Objectives of Case Study Research 75
3.2.2 Authorship of Case Study Research 75
3.2.3 Research Design of Case Studies 76
3.2.4 Methodological Procedures and Reports of Case Study Research 77
3.2.5 Case Studies as Theory-Building 79
3.3 A Case Study of the Travel and Tourism Research Association 81
3.3.1 An Embedded Single-case Design 81
3.3.2 The Survey Instrument 85
3.3.3 Data Collection 88
3.3.4 Data Analysis 91

3.3.5 Gaining Access for Case Study 96
3.3.6 Implementation of the TTRA Case Study Survey 98
3.4 Chapter Summary 99
Chapter 4 Results 100
4.1 Demographic Profiles of the Respondents 100
4.2 Research Communication among TTRA Members 108
4.2.1 Academics and Practitioners 108
4.2.2 Chapter Affiliations 113
4.2.3 Research Communication by Other Demographic Attributes 117
4.2.4 Correlations between Research Communication and Conference Participation 126
4.3 Researcher Networking among TTRA Members 128
4.3.1 Academics and Practitioners 128
4.3.2 Chapter Affiliations 131
4.3.3 Researcher Networking by Other Demographic Attributes 133
4.3.4 Correlations between Researcher Networking and Conference Participation 140
4.4 Capacity of TTRA as an Applied Tourism Research Community 141
4.4.1 Academics and Practitioners 142
4.4.2 Chapter Affiliations 144
4.4.3 Correlations between Association Capacity and Conference Participation 146
4.4.4 Correlations between Association Capacity and Length of Membership Affiliation 147
4.5 Typologies in Research Communication, Networking and Association Capacity 149
4.5.1 Clusters by Media Use in Research Communication 149
4.5.2 Clusters by Perceptions of Association Networks 154
4.5.3 Clusters by Perceptions of Association Capacity 160
4.6 Chapter Summary 164
Chapter 5 Discussion 167
5.1 Research Communication among TTRA Members 167
5.1.1 Academics and Practitioners in Research Communication 168
5.1.2 The Two-Community Theory in Research Communication 171
5.1.3 Research Communication and Media Use Typologies 172
5.1.4 Association Conferences as Research Communication 174
5.1.5 Association Structure and Research Communication 176
5.2 Researcher Networks and Networking among TTRA members 177
5.2.1 Research Associations as Knowledge Networks 178
5.2.2 The Strength of Ties 180
5.2.3 Academics versus Practitioners 183
5.2.4 Network Clusters 185
5.2.5 Conferences as a Means of Networking 186
5.2.6 Chapter Structure and Member Networking 187
5.3 The Capacity of TTRA as an Applied Tourism Research Community 188
5.3.1 Capacity-Building of the Association Community 189
5.3.2 The Sense of a Community and Community Service 190
5.3.3 Association Capacity Clusters 191
5.3.4 Services, Activities and Programs of Research Associations 192
5.3.5 Membership Commitment and Association Planning 193
5.4 Chapter Summary 195
Chapter 6 Conclusion 197
6.1 Summary of Thesis Research 197

6.2 Theoretical and Practical Implications 200
6.3 Recommendations for Association Planning and Management 201
6.4 Limitations and Future Research 203
Appendix 1. An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey 205
An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey 206
Section I: Professional/Research Communication among TTRA Members 206
Section II: Professional/Research Networking among TTRA Members 208
Section III: TTRA as a Research Community 209
Section IV: Participant Characteristics 210
Section V: Final Comments 212
Appendix 2. A Time Table for the TTRA Case Study 213
Appendix 3. Advance Notice, Survey Reminders, and Cut-off Notes 214
Appendix 4. Executive Summary 218
Bibliography 223

List of Figures

Figure 2-1	The Structuring of a Scientific Community: A Research Association Perspective……	23
Figure 2-2	A Conceptualization of Research Information and Knowledge Use……	35
Figure 2-3	Hypothetical Knowledge Networks of Tourism Research Associations…….	53
Figure 3-1	A Case Study of the TTRA: An Embedded Design……	84
Figure 4-1	Membership Category…….	101
Figure 4-2	Chapter Affiliation……..	102
Figure 4-3	Country/Region of Residence…….	103
Figure 4-4	Jobs and/or Job Categories……..	104
Figure 4-5	Current Position in TTRA-International and/or its Chapters……..	105
Figure 4-6	Member of Other Major Tourism/Professional Associations…….	106
Figure 4-7	Background of Training……..	106
Figure 4-8	Number of Years of Being a TTRA Member…….	107
Figure 4-9	Relationships between Motivation in Research Communication and Participation in Association Conferences……	128
Figure 4-10	Relationships between Attitudes towards Researcher Networking and Participation in Association Conferences……	141
Figure 4-11	Skree Diagram: Clusters by Percentage Change in Agglomeration Coefficients on Media Use in Research Communication……	150
Figure 4-12	Clusters by Standardized Factor Mean Scores on Media Use in Research Communication……	151
Figure 4-13	Skree Diagram: Clusters by Percentage Change in Agglomeration Coefficients on Perceptions of TTRA as a Facilitator of Research Networks…….	156
Figure 4-14	Clusters by Standardized Factor Mean Scores on Perceptions of TTRA as a Facilitator of Research Networks ……	156
Figure 4-15	Skree Diagram: Clusters by Change in Agglomeration Coefficients on Perceptions of Association Capacity……	161
Figure 4-16	Clusters by Standardized Factor Mean Scores on Perceptions of Association Capacity……	162

List of Tables

Table 3-1	Case Study Tactics for Four Design Tests……..	72
Table 3-2	Basic Types of Designs for Case Studies……	83
Table 3-3	Data-collection Matrix for a Case Study of the TTRA……	89
Table 3-4	Data-analysis Matrix for a Case Study of the TTRA……..	91
Table 3-5	An Overview of Survey Data Analysis……	93
Table 4-1	Gender, Age Groups, and Levels of Education……	100
Table 4-2	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Using Research Communication Channels…….	109
Table 4-3	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Using TTRA-endorsed Research Communication Channels…….	110
Table 4-4	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Perceiving Factors that Influence Research Communication and Media Choice……..	111
Table 4-5	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Research Communication Behaviour and Motivations……..	112
Table 4-6	Differences among Members by Chapter in Using Communication Channels……	113
Table 4-7	Differences among Members by Chapter in Using TTRA-endorsed Research Communication Channels…….	114
Table 4-8	Differences among Members by Chapter in Perceiving Factors that Influence Research Communication and Media Choice……..	115
Table 4-9	Differences among Members by Chapter in Research Communication Behaviour and Motivation…….	116
Table 4-10	Gender Differences in Using TTRA-endorsed Communication Channels……..	118
Table 4-11	Differences by Career Stage in Research Communication……..	119
Table 4-12	Differences between Regular and Executive/Board Members in Research Communication Perceptions and Behaviour……	121
Table 4-13	Differences among Members by Region of Residence in Research Communication Perceptions and Behaviour……	122
Table 4-14	Differences in Research Communication Behaviour and Motivation by Educational/Disciplinary Preparations……..	124
Table 4-15	Correlations between Research Communication and Participation in TTRA Conferences……	126
Table 4-16	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Rating the Importance of TTRA in the Formation of and/or Access to Professional Networks……	129
Table 4-17	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Networking Attitudes, Behaviours, and Motivations……	130
Table 4-18	Differences among Members by Chapter in Rating the Importance of TTRA in the Formation of and/or Access to Professional Networks…….	132
Table 4-19	Differences among Members by Chapter in Attitudes, Behaviours, and Motivations towards Research Networking……..	132

Table 4-20	Gender Differences in Rating the Importance of TTRA in the Formation of and/or Access to Professional Networks…….	134
Table 4-21	Gender Differences in Respondents' Attitudes, Behaviours and Motivations towards Research Networking……	135
Table 4-22	Differences between Regular and Executive Members in Research Networking Perceptions and Behaviour……	136
Table 4-23	Differences among Members by Region of Residence in Research Networking Perceptions and Behaviour……	137
Table 4-24	Differences by Educational/Disciplinary Preparations in the Perceptions of TTRA as a Facilitator of Research Networks …….	139
Table 4-25	Correlations between Researcher Networking and Participation in TTRA Conferences……..	140
Table 4-26	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Perceiving the Usefulness of Events, Activities and Programs in Building Association Capacity……	142
Table 4-27	Differences between Academics and Practitioners in their Perceptions of TTRA as a Community and their Willingness to Provide Community Services……	143
Table 4-28	Differences among Members by Chapter in Perceiving the Usefulness of Events, Activities and Programs in Building Association Capacity…….	145
Table 4-29	Differences among Members by Chapter in their Perceptions of TTRA as a Community and their Willingness to Provide Community Services……	145
Table 4-30	Correlations between Participation in TTRA Conferences and Association Capacity…….	146
Table 4-31	Multiple Regression of Participation in TTRA Conferences and Association Capacity……	147
Table 4-32	Correlations between Association Capacity and Length of Affiliation in the TTRA Member Community……	148
Table 4-33	Multiple Regression of Length of Affiliation and Association Capacity…….	148
Table 4-34	Factor Analysis of Media Use in Research Communication……	149
Table 4-35	Differences among Media-Use Clusters by Occupational Characteristics……	152
Table 4-36	Differences among Media-use Clusters in Other Research Communication Measures…….	153
Table 4-37	Factor Analysis of the Perceptions of TTRA as a Network Facilitator in the Association Community……..	155
Table 4-38	Differences among Network Perception Clusters by Occupational Characteristics…	157
Table 4-39	Differences among Network Perception Clusters in Other Measures of Research Communication, Networking and Association Capacity……	158
Table 4-40	Factor Analysis of the Perceptions of Association Capacity…….	160
Table 4-41	Differences among Clusters in Other Measures of Association Capacity…….	163

Chapter 1

Introduction

A scientific community consists of a multitude of overlapping professional and research networks, which are developing or changing in social structures both within itself and in interaction with other social entities or networks (Mulkay, 1977; Storer, 1966); or, in Kuhn's (1974) words, it consists of the practitioners of a scientific specialty that enters in close proximity to the notion of a paradigm, which he sees as the set of values and norms that members of a scientific community share. He argues that "it is their possession of a common paradigm that constitutes a scientific community of a group of otherwise disparate men" (1974, p.460). Bound together by common elements in education and training, and in research and practice, members in a scientific community see themselves and are seen by others as pursuing a set of shared goals. Such communities are often characterized by the relatively more frequent communications and networking within the group (versus outside the group).

From a paradigmatic perspective, Kuhn asserts that members of a scientific community "will have absorbed the same literature and drawn from it similar lessons" (1974, p.461). To illustrate the various paradigmatic levels of a scientific community, he suggests that while all natural scientists can be seen as forming one community at a higher level, its major discipline groups (e.g., physicists, chemists, astronomers, zoologists, and the like) are examples of the community at a slightly lower level through memberships of field associations. Going down to the level of more specialized interests groups, problem networks, or smaller circles, similar classification techniques can further isolate major subgroups such as organic chemists or theoretical physicists.

In much the same vein, Storer (1966) foresees the future of a scientific community as characterized by a gradual elevation of the importance attached to applied research, which is due to continual societal support of scientific research, the elevating call for evidence- or knowledge-based practices, as well as an increasing status of scientific research as a profession. Storer argues that such a trend will not only "add more impetus to the tendency to organize the scientific community on the basis of its members' common-career interests" (1966, pp.160-161), it will also serve as norms or code of ethics for research communication and professional networking "to govern scientists' relations with

the government, with suppliers of scientific instruments, with employers, with their research subjects in the case of social sciences, and with their colleagues" (1966, p.161).

While much of the seminal work on scientific communities (or sociology of science in general) was published in the 1960s and 70s and was developed mostly with a focus on the traditional, well-established science or social science disciplines (Ben-David, 1964; Ben-David & Collins, 1966; Collins, 1974; Crane, 1969, 1972; Garvey & Griffith, 1967; Hagstrom, 1964, 1965; Kuhn, 1962/1970, 1974; Merton, 1957; Mullins, 1968, 1972; Taylor, 1973), the connotation of a scientific community as a social system, or as a paradigm, lends itself readily to discussions pertinent to the more recent, multi-/inter-disciplinary fields such as tourism research. Arguably, the rapid growth of tourism research has fostered the formation of such a community (Ritchie, 1996), through its many professional/scholarly associations and conferences (AIEST, APTA, ATLAS, CAUTHE, CHME, CHRIE, IAST, ISTTE, TTRA, to mention only a few), the multiplicity of field journals and research centres, the rapid growth of educational programs at degree levels, the instant interactions facilitated by information and communication technologies, and the high subscription to electronic bulletins or listservs for communications and networking within the field. On the other hand, questions have also arisen as to whether such a multi-/inter-disciplinary state of tourism studies has strengthened or weakened its scientific community (Echtner & Jamal, 1997), and whether the field is in a healthy state of growth (Franklin & Crang, 2001; Hall, Williams & Lew, 2004). Part of this dilemma is attributable to "the problem of *reference*" in the philosophy of science (Smith, 1981, p.1, emphasis original), that is, the extent to which the multidisciplinary communities approach the tourism phenomena in terms of theories and methodologies.

In analogy, the tourism research community is a multidisciplinary association of researchers and scholars that is characterized, to a large extent, by a state of fragmentation with cultural, linguistic, geographical and disciplinary boundaries separating sub-groups or sub-cultures within the larger scientific community. As noted above, sociologists of science have long used sociometry, social network analysis, and scientific communications and networking to understand the structure and growth of scholarly communities of traditional disciplines (e.g., physics, mathematics, chemistry, psychology), few similar studies have been conducted on young, multidisciplinary fields such as tourism.

1.1 Purpose, Objectives, and Research Questions

The purpose of this dissertation research is to examine the role of tourism research associations in the structuring, through research communication and networking, of a young and applied multidisciplinary research community and consequently in the fostering of its growth. Considering associations as an avatar for a community of researchers has methodological advantages for an in-depth investigation of scientific communication and networking amongst its members. For example, research associations provide a readily available sample of researchers for study. They also have an explicit sense of identity and membership, as well as an articulated vision and mission. Associations also serve a variety of functions related to the promulgation of a sense of community through community service provisions such as events, activities, and professional development programs amongst their members.

To fulfill this research purpose, the Travel and Tourism Research Association (hereafter TTRA) is selected as a case study to examine issues such as research/knowledge networks; scientific communications as a social system; as well as the functioning of communication and networking in the capacity-building of a scientific community. Operationally, this research addresses three objectives: 1) to examine the role of TTRA in the capacity-building of an applied tourism research community through the formation of professional/research networks; 2) to examine the role of TTRA in the capacity-building of an applied tourism research community through professional/research communications; and 3) to understand the chapter structure of TTRA in facilitating the building of an applied tourism research community through communication and networking activities.

Specifically, the study is guided by six research questions.

1) What are the factors that facilitate or deter the formation of professional/research networks among TTRA members?
2) How do professional/research networks contribute to (or are perceived to have contributed to) the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community?
3) What are the factors that facilitate or deter professional/research communications among TTRA members?
4) How do communications contribute to (or are perceived to have contributed to) the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community?
5) How does TTRA's chapter structure facilitate or deter communications and networking in the building of the association as an applied tourism research community?

6) What are the implications of this case study for the tourism research community in general and for TTRA in the planning and development of communication and networking strategies in particular?

TTRA is a professional association comprised of producers and users of travel and tourism research information. As a global leader and international network of tourism research and marketing professionals, TTRA holds as its mission to advocate standards for research and analysis, to promote training and education of research professionals, as well as to promote the application of research and marketing information in the practices of the travel and tourism industry. Initiated and primarily based in North America, TTRA is one of the largest research associations in the brief history of tourism research. Founded in 1970 through a merger of the Western and the Eastern councils of travel research—both US-based, the growth and development of the association have been remarkable, with currently nine chapters (including seven US-based chapters, a Canada chapter, and a Europe chapter) and over 700 active members coming from research and educational institutions, convention and visitor bureaus, government tourism and non-tourism offices, various sectors of the travel and tourism industry, as well as marketing research associates, analysts and consultants.

The association organizes an international conference every year—with its 38th annual event in June 2007. The association journal—*Journal of Travel Research*—is currently in its 46th volume; both its international conference and the journal have become major channels for research communications and knowledge networking in the field of travel and tourism. In addition, most of the chapters have similar events or conferences to advocate the exchange and use of travel research information and to promote evidence-based destination marketing, tourism policies and development.

In its recent update of the *TTRA Strategic Plan 2004-2008* (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004), the association positions its future growth and development in the overall context of tourism as a multidisciplinary field of research, education and scholarship. In view of its evolution—initiation as a merger and historical growth over the past decades, the association is currently seen as entering a period of renewed growth (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004). In response to a potential for further growth, TTRA has identified professional networking and communications, in addition to advocacy and business and education services, as strategic priorities for the period of 2004-2008. To fulfil the goals of the strategic plan, a series of objectives and action plans have been formulated. These include providing opportunities to develop and maintain professional relationships and exchange information; establishing and maintaining visible and consistent communications and networking among its

members; increasing the perceived value of TTRA as a means of facilitating professional learning, skills development and knowledge of tourism research; and developing a higher profile for TTRA as an authoritative commentator and advocate (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004, p.3).

This dissertation is designed around the aforementioned purpose, objectives and research questions. Case study methodology is adopted. Data collection involves 1) the retrieval and analysis of secondary sources about or related to the association, which include both published and unpublished documents such as panel discussions, roundtable summaries, conference reports and proceedings, strategic plans and implementation reviews, previous member surveys, association journals, websites and newsletters, and other non-confidential records such as membership directories and by-laws of associations or chapters; and 2) an online survey of TTRA members designed and developed on the basis of consulting the aforementioned secondary materials. Implementation of this research (e.g., gaining access for the case study survey) is facilitated under the guidance of the thesis committee with approval and support from the Board of TTRA-International.

1.2 Conceptualization

This research is elaborated in the contexts of the sociology of science (or knowledge). In particular, reviews and discussions on the functioning and role of tourism research associations are articulated in relation to the growth and development of an applied research community, professional communications as a social system, social and knowledge networks (or networking), as well as the production, dissemination and use of research information in tourism.

Research suggests that there are different forms of communications among members in a scientific community, for example, formal versus informal, and planned versus unplanned (Garvey & Griffith, 1967; Mullins, 1968). Likewise, there exist a variety of professional networks or networking mechanisms in a research community such as team works, problem or interest groups, research collaborations, and various mini- or sub-networks among academics, government, industry, graduate students and mentors (Hagstrom, 1964; Collins, 1974). Pioneers in the sociology of science have also pointed out that professional communications and social networks among members in a scientific community are related, in complicated ways, to norms and values and the extent to which community members are in conformity or commitment to them (Hagstrom, 1965; Merton, 1957; Mulkay, 1977; Storer, 1966).

In these conceptualizations and for the context of the present study, the capacity of a research community is defined as the interaction of researchers, research resources, and various research

networks within a given community (e.g., a tourism research association), which can be leveraged to solve collective problems and maintain or improve the well-being of that community (Chaskin, Brown, Venkatesh & Vidal, 2001). As noted earlier, previous research on scientific communities largely suggest that communication and networking are two levels of social agency (individual and organizational) through which community capacity can be built. Of the various dimensions of capacities of a scientific community, 1) the sense of a community reflects the degree of connectedness among researchers (or, association members in this context) and a recognition of or conformity to community values and norms (e.g., recognition and reward, originality and priority, competition and secrecy, disinterestedness and universalism, and communality of intellectual property). It encompasses the sense of belonging, the sense of identity, and the sense of home. 2) Commitment indicates the responsibility that researchers, network groups, or research associations alike take for what has happened or is happening in the community, in which members see themselves as stakeholders in the collective well-being of the community and have a willingness to participate actively in maintaining and improving the community. Such commitments are translated into actions or efforts to solve problems through accessing and mobilizing research resources. It is argued that, as one of the agencies at the organizational level, tourism research associations have an important role to play in the process of facilitating research dissemination and utilization for knowledge-based policy and industry practice.

In this process of leveraging knowledge assets, utilization or knowledge use is central to the concerns of a research community as well as its various knowledge agencies such as research associations. According to Weiss (1979), utilization or knowledge use is defined as whether knowledge is taken into account for, or the extent to which knowledge affects a user's decision/policy-making and industry or business practices, which is conceptualized both as a process as well as an outcome (Rich, 1997). In the utilization literature, studies have revealed the multidimensional nature of knowledge use (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Caplan, 1979; Dunn, 1980; Patton, 1997; Weiss, 1979), which encompasses conceptual use (*e.g.,* the use of knowledge for enlightenment or freedom from falsehood), instrumental use (*e.g*., the use of knowledge for solving problems or finding solutions), strategic, political or symbolic use (*e.g.,* the use of knowledge for justification of actions, policies or decisions), as well as process or intended process use (*e.g.,* individual changes in thinking and behaving as a result of and/or during the process of implementing an evidence-based strategy).

A series of notions such as credibility, usability, usefulness and effectiveness are used in conceptualizing the process of research information use (Menon & Varadarajan, 1992; Souchon & Diamantopoulos, 1996). These notions and their interrelationships form the complex dynamics of a research community in the production, dissemination and use of research knowledge through various communication channels and networking mechanisms. In view of its mission of "acting as a leading professional organization of providers and users of travel and tourism research" (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004, p.12), TTRA serves as an ideal case for examining professional communications and networking in this growing multidisciplinary community of applied tourism researchers.

1.3 Significance

This study has both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the study is contextualized or conceptualized in relation to the sociology of scientific communities. The research is built on previous works such as research communications as a social system, networks/networking among members in a research community, knowledge networks or the process of producing, disseminating and using research information, as well as the role of research associations in the capacity-building and growth of a research community. Findings from this study add perspectives on such discussions. Results from this project also cast light on tourism research as a field through understanding the characteristics of its research associations. While the design is a case study of TTRA, there are potentials for the research design and results to be applied or replicated to other tourism research associations. Therefore, the study contributes both to the state-of-the-art discussions on tourism research and scholarship, and to the studies of applied research communities in general.

On the practical side, the research has resulted in recommendations for the planning and development of tourism research associations. Specifically, in relation to the association chosen for this case study, some of these results are useful for a better understanding of TTRA in both its plan implementations and in its strategic development as a leading professional association in travel research and tourism marketing.

1.4 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is organized under six chapters. The first chapter presents an introduction to the research topic, the theoretical and methodological contexts under which research objectives and questions are addressed, as well as a brief outlining of the implications or significance of this research. Chapter 2 reviews the academic literature that informs this research. This includes the sociology of a scientific

community; scientific communications; research networking; knowledge networks or the process of producing, disseminating and utilizing research information; and the roles and functioning of research associations in the growth and capacity-building of a research community. While drawing primarily from the sociology of science and knowledge literature, much of the discussion is cast in the context of an applied tourism research community. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used in this project. Case study as a comprehensive research strategy is discussed; its applications in tourism research are reviewed from a state-of-the-art analysis. Research design and implementation such as sequence of data collection and techniques used for data analysis are also included in this chapter. Chapter 4 reports the research results. Based on data from the survey as well as secondary sources, the research describes results pertinent to the factors that facilitate and/or deter professional communications and networking that are believed useful for the capacity-building and growth of the tourism research community. While findings are specific to TTRA, implications of the research—both theoretical and practical—for other tourism research associations or its research community in general are discussed in Chapter 5. Limitations and future research issues are acknowledged in the conclusion chapter, in addition to a summary of major findings and a list of managerial recommendations. Additionally, the survey instrument, documents used for research implementation, and an executive summary are provided as appendices.

Chapter 2
Context

The development and growth of a scientific community and of a research field can often be viewed as a process where members of the community (researchers and practitioners; knowledge producers, brokers and users; academics, government, and industry; research associates and consultants; professors and students; authors, readers and editors; and information/knowledge managers and publishers) interact through a variety of social mechanisms such as publications, symposia and conferences, professional organizations and associations, workshops and forums, and educational and scientific institutions. Sociologists of science have attributed the amorphous character of a research community to the individualistic and separated or fragmented nature of its members (Price, 1963). The members, in Crane's (1969) notion, form "invisible colleges" in which "[P]articipation is voluntary. Turnover is very high, …boundaries of research areas are difficult to define…, and, …agreement among scientists is far from unanimous" (p.335). According to Crane (1969), social organizations of a scientific community can be inferred from questioning whether researchers who are working in a particular community (or research area) have more social ties with one another than with those working outside the community, and whether researchers who work in a research area can be differentiated in terms of degrees of social participation within the community.

Sociologists of science have emphasized the essential role of social factors in fostering the growth of scientific communities. Ben-David and Collins (1966) have schematically presented a process in depicting the origin and growth of a scientific community, in which "ideas beget ideas until the time is ripe for a new and coherent system of thought and research to arise. Thenceforth the system possesses a life of its own. It is identified as a new field of science, is eventually given a name of its own, and grows rapidly into maturity" (p.451).

Previous research has pointed to the social dimensions in the structuring of a scientific community through conformity of members to norms (Merton, 1957; Mulkay, 1977), social interactions or communications amongst the researchers (Garvey & Griffith, 1967), and professional and scientific networks or social circles (Collins, 1974; Hagstrom, 1964; Mullins, 1972). For example, Mullins (1972) summarizes the social factors that relate to scientific activities in a research community into categories such as communication, co-authorship or collaboration, citation networks, and colleagueship and apprenticeship.

He also proposes that the distribution of social properties across a research community can be understood by addressing issues such as the social factors (e.g., social status, cultural and institutional properties of research) that order the structure of a community (Mullins, 1968). These considerations can be translated into research questions such as whether social/categorical differences affect communications and networks, whether there are boundaries around certain research groups or networks that are distinct in terms of communications and information exchange, and whether clusters of relations are homogeneous with respect to categories such as disciplines, departments or institutions, and research organizations or associations (Mullins, 1968, p.793).

In much the same vein, historians of science have posed similar problems with respect to the complexity in the growth of a scientific community. Among these thinkers, Crombie (1963) suggests that future research on the social organization of scientific communities could fruitfully address questions such as "who were the people taking part in scientific activity? What were their numbers, education, social position, means of livelihood, personal motives, and opportunities, means of communication, institutions? What critical audience was there to be convinced by, use, transmit, develop, revise or reject their conclusions? What social pressures were there within the scientific community itself to affect the consensus of opinion in favour of the old or of the new?…What value has been put on scientific activity by society at large, by the needs of industry, commerce, war, medicine, and the arts, by government and private investment, by religion, by different states and social systems?…" (p.10). Taken collectively, these issues or questions pinpoint to scholarly discussions on scientific communications and professional networking in the earlier sociological studies of a scientific community. Arguably, these postulations are still relevant today to tourism as an applied multidisciplinary research community; they serve as one of the intellectual contexts for the present research.

This chapter presents a review of the literature that informs this research. The sociology of science focuses primarily on research communications and networking and their contribution to capacity-building of a scientific community through social network analysis. Knowledge network, which is also reviewed in this chapter, is typical in the context of scientific communities in general and research associations in particular. The earlier sociological studies of science or scientific communities were extended into the marketing literature. Of particular relevance to this discussion are research endeavours on the marketing and planning of research associations in terms of membership services, commitment, and behaviour. Characteristics of tourism studies as a young

multidisciplinary applied research community are also reviewed as the context to examine its research associations, particularly the TTRA. The review of scholarly literature provides the theoretical context for, and informs the formulation of objectives and questions of, this research.

2.1 The Sociology of a Scientific Community

As noted above, previous research suggests that communications and networking help form a discernible social structure of a scientific community. This structure can be analyzed in relation to researchers' underlying perceptions of their research; social recognitions of and/or value attached to research; social categories in the agency of research in terms of disciplines, departments and institutions; and the organizations and associations of researchers (Crane, 1972; Hagstrom, 1965; Mulkay, 1977; Mullins, 1968; Storer, 1966; Taylor, 1973). In a recent reflection on the evolution of the organizations research community, March (2004) argues that communications and networking are two crucial propositions governing the exchanges among member researchers and henceforth the development of the community.

> The first is a proposition about contact. Scholars, like other humans, prefer most of the time to associate with people who are similar to themselves, people who share their histories, experiences, language, and world views. These preferences generate a social structure built around differentiated, coherent and unified subgroups. The second proposition is about the development of inter-subjective knowledge. Although to a substantial extent it is what scholars share that makes discourse possible, it is what they do not share that makes it valuable. Scholars associate primarily with others whom they understand well, those who are, by virtue of their familiar knowledge and beliefs, people from whom they can learn relatively little (March, 2004, p.16)

These propositions speak subtly to the amorphous nature and complexity of research communications and networking among members in a scientific community. Embedded in different situations and contexts and to varying degrees, professional communications and networking show different levels of association with or contribution to the structuring and capacity-building of a research community.

2.1.1 Professional and Scientific Communications

Professional or scientific communication is a dynamic social system that is inseparable from the social processes internal to the institution of research (Garvey & Griffith, 1967). As research

communication is essentially a matter of interaction among the researchers who normally produce research and disseminate their research findings, major activities in the professional communication system are both social and public, and of various types or categories. Speaking of the multitudes of, and competitions amongst, scientific communication channels in psychology prior to the age of information and communication technology, Garvey and Griffith (1967) noted:

> Central to the system and to the most general interests of psychologists were approximately 50 channels of exchange of scientific information. Various specialties within the discipline utilized a wide variety of sources, numbering in the hundreds…[and] the elements constituting the system of scientific communication in psychology seemed to compete with one another rather than fulfill any separate, special functions with respect to the whole, and in governing and revising this system the scientists seemed to suspend the objectivity which characterized his approach to his research, and to rely on "folklore" (p.1011).

To varying extent, the observation of the myriad and competing nature of research communication channels is still true, or even truer, today when many research fields are increasingly multidisciplinary and communication is facilitated by advanced (digital and electronic in addition to print) information and communication technology. There are, in tourism studies, several score academic journals; dozens of professional, research, educational, and/or scientific associations with conferences, formal association publications, and newsletters and bulletins; and countless books and edited collections from major publishers every year.

Previous research on scientific communication has alluded to the distinction between formal and informal means of information exchange. Formal communications among researchers in a scholarly community are defined as the public portion of the scientific communication system that involves outlets such as journals, conference presentations/proceedings, and published books and anthologies. Informal communications among members in a research community are characterized by various forms of interpersonal contacts that allow theories, ideas, procedures, and methods to be brewed, circulated and evaluated before formal publication (Tuire & Erno, 2001). The science communication literature suggests that each of these communications assume distinct forms. Formal communications are often represented by the traditional vehicles (e.g., journals, books, and conference presentations and proceedings), which are often associated with the institutional norms of science among members in a community (Merton, 1957). These are widely known in the sociology of science as Mertonian norms, which include universalism, originality, claims to priority (which requires that information

communicated to the scientific community be assessed independently, often through peer review), as well as recognition and/or rewards (in terms of citation linkages, promotion and/or tenure) once the formal communication is accepted by the community. Informal communications, on the other hand, take the various forms such as rejoinders and debates, inter-sessional discussions during conferences, word-of-mouth questions and critiques, and personal communications within a group.

The distinctions between formal and informal communications in the scientific community are best articulated by Garvey and Griffith (1967, p.1013). Their view can be summarized as follows: 1) formal communications are more often public, have potentially larger audiences, and disseminate research information at a lower cost per message than the informal ones; 2) information communicated formally is permanently restored and typically retrievable while the other is often temporary and difficult to retrieve; 3) formal channels generally carry "older" information than the informal ones; 4) information carried by formal channels is often monitored, according to community norms or standards, to produce peer-reviewed publications, while the informal channels are not monitored and often accomplished through direct, face-to-face interactions or correspondence; and 5) formal channels appear to be highly user- or audience-selected while the informal system is characterized by active cooperation between the addressors and addressees. These authors have also noted "considerable redundancy" in the overall system of scientific communication, in which the same research is reported by different channels with different focuses or emphases. Arguably, while formal channels contribute less to such a redundancy due to the norm of not publishing a same research in different outlets, "it is not uncommon to find the same material repeatedly reshaped in various informal media, to fit the characteristics of the channel and the needs of the audience" (Garvey & Griffith, 1967, p.1013).

While it is often assumed that formal and informal communications are complementary to one another, past research has also noted "a matter of emphasis" (Tuire & Erno, 2001, p.495) and the presence or absence of a balance between the two forms (Garvey & Griffith, 1967). These arguments are made on the basis of 1) explicit versus tacit dimensions of research dissemination or diffusion, and 2) the potential and need for innovations in the scientific communication system. For example, Garvey and Griffith (1967, p.1011) stated that "the public portion of the scientific communication proves to be small" as compared with the informal domain. Researchers have also noted that "the overt and organized activities represent only the visible tip of the iceberg" in the system of scientific communication (Tuire & Erno, 2001, p.495). On the other hand, informal communications are

attributable to the formation of invisible colleges in a research community (Crane, 1972) and can be particularly useful when new approaches are to be explored or new areas investigated (Schott, 1988; Weedman, 1993). This is especially true in the age of information and communication technology when informal communications are getting more popular amongst members in a research community through channels such as listservs, web postings and/or personal blogs facilitated by the internet. It would therefore be interesting to see how information and communication technology brings innovations in scientific communication to members in a research association or a research community in general.

Another aspect in relation to the formal versus informal or planned versus unplanned discussions has to do with the fuzziness in between the two distinct forms of communication (Menzel, 1962). These fuzzy forms of scientific communication are often characterized as collaborations or co-authorships, colleagueship and/or apprenticeship (e.g., supervisors and graduate/research students), and other intellectual linkages such as citation links (Crane, 1969; Mullins, 1972). The science communication literature has highlighted the importance of looking at communicative forms among members in a research community. Collins (1974), for example, has noted that "informal communication has often been treated like a more flexibly packaged version of formal communication" (p.171). In much the same way, Schaffner (1994) argues that a strict distinction between the two domains can be misleading because much of the informal communications is actually about formal research communication.

Scientific communications, regardless of formal, informal or the fuzzy forms, have become an important area of investigation to better understand a research community. Preoccupied with the notion of "invisible college", Crane (1969) suggests that communication is central to the dissemination and/or diffusion through various linkages, which can be operationalized in terms of collaborations, citation linkages, and the influence of one on the other in selection of research problems, methods and courses of implementation. This is also true from a knowledge use perspective for research findings to be communicated to different users or user groups (Dunn, 1980, 1983a, 1983b; Rich, 1977, 1997; Weiss, 1979, 1980, 1981, to be discussed further in a next heading).

With respect to the growth of a scientific community, Garvey and Griffith (1967) elaborated on how the fuzziness and gaps between distinct forms of scientific communications can provide a potential to formalize the informal domains and therefore serve as a context for innovations in research communications, which will eventually lead to the development or growth of a scientific

community. For example, these authors speculated that there are three conditions that seem to call for innovation in scientific communications: 1) the long lag between submission of a manuscript and journal publication of the article, 2) the long lag between journal publication and the inclusion of a published research in indexing and abstracting sources, and 3) the annual association conferences in a field. Illustrated with cases from psychology, Garvey and Griffith (1967) noted these features have led to innovations such as members distributing preprints among their "invisible college", journals publishing lists of forthcoming papers (or, from today's perspective, journals making available the in-press/prepublication articles on their websites), the appearance of more abstracting and indexing sources in a research field and consequently the reduction of time for such inclusions. Even in the case of annual association conferences, the publication of pre-convention proceedings (now often in CD-ROMs as part of a registration package for delegates) is the norm. Also, it is not uncommon that some of the proceeding papers are later published in field journals as efforts to formalize the informal communications.

While these observations are from the perspective of psychology in the 60s, most of these speculations are still largely true to a research community today. The growth of communication channels and the formalizing of the informal within tourism research have been remarkable over the years. As Morrison (2005) noted, there has never been a greater opportunity or a better time for tourism researchers to communicate through field journals, with more than 80 periodicals currently spanning tourism, hospitality, and leisure and recreation, two-thirds of which were founded after 1990. Many of these periodicals regularly publish thematically special issues, which both reduce the turnaround times from submission to publication, and help build stronger relationships among researchers working in the same or similar topic areas. Even though there is currently no citation index specific to tourism journals themselves (with only a limited number of journals such as *Annals of Tourism Research* and *Tourism Management* included in the *Social Sciences Citation Index*), research communications through field journals are widely abstracted and indexed in a variety of other sources such as *Business Periodicals Index*; *Geo Abstracts*; *Sociological Abstracts*; *Leisure, Recreation and Tourism Abstracts*; *CAB Abstracts*, and documentation touristique such as International Centre for Research and Study on Tourism (or CIRET). In addition, there are also a large number of alternatives to journal communications, including books, anthologies, proceedings, research monographs, and other professional publications. The increase of professional (education and research) associations have also been remarkable over the years, making them an important form of communication for members in the research community. Therefore, with respect to tourism as a

research field, the above review of other fields has pointed to a proposition that professional/research communications among members in a tourism research association will have important contributions to the capacity-building and henceforth the growth of the association community.

2.1.2 Professional Networking

Professional and scientific communications among members in a community help form various social circles or social networks. These networks and social circles are formed on the basis of research interests or problem areas, within professional organizations or associations, and within and/or outside research institutions. Very often, such social networks and groups (e.g., a research group, a task force, team members for a grant, research students and mentors, and stakeholders and partnerships in a collaborative research program) may appear, re-appear and/or disappear over time as a research community grows or evolves. In sociological studies of social organizations, a social circle is defined as a fuzzy-edged group whose members associate more with each other than with outsiders in respect to one or more social relations (Kadushin, 1966, 1968). In the context of a scientific community, Collins (1974) noted that workers in scientific specialties are organized in such social circles, which are distinguished by "the greater density of relations between its members than between members and non-members" (p.166). In this sense, research associations of a field serve as an effective mechanism for the interaction and networking of member researchers.

In outlining the development of a scientific specialty, Mullins (1972, p.53) classified the social structures of the research community, in terms of professional networking and social group activities, as 1) paradigm groups, 2) communication networks, 3) clusters, and 4) specialties. Using the research community of molecular biology as an example, Mullins (1972) observes that a specialty generally passes through these four stages, and in each of these structural stages, various social and network activities occur. These activities include 1) communication, e.g., serious discussions about current research through conferences and published media, 2) co-authorship or joint publication of research, which is a more intimate form of association among two or more members jointly reporting their research results on certain topics, 3) apprenticeship in which young researchers are trained and student-mentor relationships are formed, and 4) colleagueship, in which two or more members work together on certain problem areas either within one institution or in the community at large.

Mullins (1972) argues that active members in a research community are usually engaged in one or more of these activities, sometimes within specific sub-groups, but almost always within the scientific

community as a whole. It is further noted that the patterns of social organizations through professional networks (e.g., pairs or triads of members engaged in regular communication and colleagueship) are in constant flux, which may change without much perceptible effect on the community. As Mullins (1972) put it:

> A network grows, decreases and functions as each scientist who is a member of it makes a few new contacts and breaks others (usually unintentionally through neglect). The pattern of these contacts is fairly far-flung. In a group of scientists writing on the same very specific problem area, some of them might have all their contacts within the group; others might have their contacts within and without the group; while others, who are clearly studying the same problem as those scientists already mentioned, might not be connected with any of the other groups (pp.58-59).

Arguably, such contacts among members in a research community, as specified above, may be characterized by any of the aforementioned activities (e.g., communications, co-authorship or joint research publication, colleagueship, or apprenticeship).

From a professional networking perspective, discussions on the structuring of a scientific community can often be made at both the discipline and the specialty (or research field) levels. With respect to the former, prior research indicates that connections between the social structures of disciplines and their actual social groupings that are responsible for the extension of scientific knowledge have become increasingly tenuous due to two common factors: 1) a great increase in interdisciplinary or multidisciplinary research brought about by the emergence of problem areas overlapping several major disciplines, and 2) the exponential expansion of a discipline itself that leads to an internal proliferation of sub-fields or specialties (Brooks, 1967; Mullins,1968; Polanyi, 1962; Price, 1963). At this disciplinary level, as the scientific community grows in size, its specialties or sub-fields will also have become large social networks. For example, in an early survey of the American physics community in 1966, Anthony, East and Slater (1969) found that acoustics had about 1,000 members, and nuclear physics and optics each had around 2,000 members, while the biggest specialty of physics—solid state physics—had over 3,000 members.

At a specialty or sub-field level, studies have also found that research communities of a scientific specialty or field can be geographically widespread and disciplinarily diverse because of its international membership and the variety of research areas that a field covers or embraces. Hagstrom (1965) noted, in response to their growth in size, their geographical diffusions and their internal

scientific differentiations, specialties have evolved some of the formal characteristics of a discipline by forming their own scientific societies, arranging their own regular conferences, establishing specialized journals, and setting up problem groups to study their own future developments. Indeed, as Mulkay (1977, p.110) noted, the comparatively small social groupings at a specialty or sub-field level are particularly important for building the capacity of a research community for several reasons: 1) the intensive investigation required in a field means that research activities are highly specialized, 2) there is a limit to the amount of time and effort that researchers can devote to gathering, absorbing and producing the scientific literature and other technical information specific to their own specialties, and 3) researchers tend to choose, on the whole, to communicate with those who are pursuing similar research problems. Taken together, these factors lead to a clustering of communication choices, to the formation of a multitude of loose research networks, and to the structuring of scientific literatures and eventually the research communities (Griffith, Small, Stonehill & Dey, 1974; Small & Griffith, 1974).

In comparison to the above discussion, tourism as a research field has similar properties yet also has distinct characteristics. Like a well-established discipline, the growth of the community is virtually exponential in terms of the output of its research literature as well as the increase of professional groups or research networks. Two of the earliest tourism research associations - AIEST (International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism) and CHRIE (Council of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education) - were founded as far back as 1941 and 1946, respectively. As an academic non-profit organization for colleges and universities offering programs of study in tourism and hospitality, CHRIE has around 1,400 international members in 57 countries, and serves as a tremendous source of interaction, information exchange and influence for its members committed to tourism and hospitality education and research (Sigala, 2006).

Nevertheless, unlike traditional disciplines whose scientific communities are characterized by a "vertical growth" of specialties, tourism is primarily a multidisciplinary field of research and scholarship, with a community spanning "horizontally" across many different traditional fields or disciplines. Researchers have referred to tourism as a field that recognizes no boundaries (Jafari, 1977; Jafari & Ritchie, 1981). These and other features of tourism as a young multidisciplinary field (to be discussed later under another heading) make it a unique instance of study with respect to social network analyses in the research community in general and through its research associations in particular.

2.1.3 Understanding Social Networks in a Research Community

The origins of social or research networks in a scientific community are often identified retrospectively because researchers in a field do not realize the significance of such social groupings or formations to the status of an emerging field when they are immersed in its creation or functioning. According to Merton (1961), at the earliest stage of a scientific community, researchers with different training backgrounds or at different locations in various countries take up the same or loosely related problems often unaware of similar work proceeding elsewhere. Research by Reif and Strauss (1965) and Mulkay and Edge (1973) also suggest that such a lack of communication and consequently concerns about crude explorations of the initial set of problems lead subsequently to multiple discoveries, anticipation of results, and open competitions and disputes.

Prior research in the sociology of scientific communities has alluded to a variety of features with respect to the exploratory nature and role of pioneers in the origination of a research field. For example, the Kuhnian notion of anomaly as a source of crisis is well-known. According to Kuhn (1962/1970), the recognition and acknowledgement of anomalies usually result in crises that serve as a necessary precondition for the emergence of novel theories, new problem areas and/or research fields. In fact, the emergence of new fields is one of the three solutions Kuhn proposes for the closure of such crises.

Similarly, Mulkay (1977) has noted that the early lead in the exploration of a new field tends to be taken by those "with best access to such resources as suitable techniques, graduate students, research funds, publication outlets and the legitimacy conferred by the approval of eminent scientists" (p.114). In an earlier article, Mulkay (1974) postulates that the sponsorship of scientists with high repute is a crucial factor in the initiation of a research field, as these pioneers not only attract new entrants into a newly explored area, they also guide their protégées into the promising field. The initial results of research from a new area, according to Griffith and Mullins (1972), are often scattered among various disciplinary journals and in general-purpose journals.

As a result of these first publications, some of those working independently on similar problems become aware of other people's interest and work, and they consequently establish informal contacts, which are both facilitated by, and trigger the further growth of the "invisible colleges" (Crane, 1969, 1972; McGrath & Altman, 1966; Price, 1963). During the exploratory stage of a field, research problems tend to be loosely defined and results are often given differing interpretations. As a result of

increasing networking and communications, consensus is likely to emerge about basic issues of research, proper definitions of variables and the correct use of methods (Mulkay, 1977).

The growth of tourism as a research field or community largely supports these observations. A comprehensive content analysis of a leading tourism journal suggests that tourism research has undergone the stages of exploration and rapid growth with the types and characteristics of intellectual debts and/or social networks identical to those discussed in the earlier sociology-of-science literature (Xiao & Smith, 2006a). As the community increases in size, research teams, social networks, and clusters of collaborators of various types and nature form both within and outside research organizations and associations in the increasing institutionalization of tourism research (Hall, et al., 2004).

Previous research has used a variety of terms to describe social groups or groupings in a scientific community. These include not only the common notions such as "schools or disciplines" (Usdiken & Pasadeos, 1995), but also the more ambiguous ones such as "paradigm" (Kuhn, 1962/1970, 1974), "invisible college" (Crane, 1969, 1972; McGrath & Altman, 1966; Price, 1963), "co-citation networks" (Small, 1973), and "social contagion" (Marsden, 1998; Levy & Mail, 1993). The concept of social contagion, for example, is used to describe a process in which individuals in a community are thought to adopt the attitudes and behaviour of others who have influenced them. Tuire and Erno (2001) argue that, to some extent, social interactions in a scientific community can be seen as such a process in which ideas are transmitted from one person to another: "[W]hen members of a social system are communicating with one another, a kind of contagion effect occurs" (p.497). These authors have also emphasized the importance of network compositions (who is included) as much as its size (how many are included).

Studies on the social structuring of scientific communities indicate that central to the discussion of social networks are issues pertinent to the strength of ties, size and/or scope of social circles, and ways of understanding social networks within a research association or in the scientific community in general. Conceptually, the strength of an interpersonal tie is defined as "a (probably linear) combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimacy (mutual confiding), and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie" (Granovetter, 1973, p.1361). With respect to the strength of social ties in diffusing influences and information, Granovetter argues that emphasis should be laid on "the cohesive power of weak ties" in transmitting influences over long distances and/or between groups. He further suggests, from a premise drawn from the theory of structural

balance, that where two groups are connected by fewer links over longer distances, these links can be regarded as weak, and that the tracing out of weak ties will define a larger area of the social network than the tracing of strong ties. In other words, weak ties are suggestive of larger networks, whereas strong links correspond to small and tighter circles. These observations are particularly interesting and potentially useful to the discussion of social networking among members in a research community. As Granovetter (1973) noted,

> Especially within professional and technical specialties which are well defined and limited in size, this mobility [individual movement of members from one network of ties to another—*notes added*] sets up elaborate structures of bridging weak ties between the more coherent clusters that constitute operative networks in particular locations. Information and ideas thus flow more easily through the specialty, giving it some "sense of community", activated at meetings and conventions (p.1373).

Arguably, the maintenance of weak ties is an important function of community events such as associations' annual conferences. Take travel and tourism research as an example. These discussions appear particularly relevant as tourism is a young multidisciplinary community of researchers and practitioners where theories, concepts and even practices are mostly adopted from other (usually established) fields. Arguably, the tourism research community is large in terms of its multidisciplinary and multifaceted coverage; yet it is precisely its all-embracing scope that creates the weak or weaker connections between and/or among its many sub-networks.

In terms of exploring or understanding such informal and often invisible forms of communication or contacts, social network analysis (previously or alternatively called sociometry) has served as a promising technique in modeling the structure of social interactions, which permits analysis at both group and individual levels and allows the integration of data on individual attributes with data on interpersonal relations (Scott, 2000). Arguably, social network analysis of research associations can help reveal issues pertinent to density and centrality, and clusters and components in the social structuring of a research community. These conceptual discussions are suggestive of a presupposition that professional/research networking among members in a tourism research association will have important contributions to the capacity-building and consequently the growth of the association community.

2.1.4 Community Capacity and Capacity-Building

In much the same way as in other communities, the growth of a scientific community depends on the building of capacities to make it function well and to fulfill its goals of development. Chaskin, Brown, Venkatesh and Vidal (2001) define community capacity as:

> The interaction of human capital, organizational resources, and social capital existing within a given community that can be leveraged to solve collective problems and improve or maintain the well-being of that community. It may operate through informal social processes and/or organized efforts by individuals, organizations, and social networks that exist among them and between them and the larger systems of which the community is a part (p.7).

This conceptualization not only highlights community members, social relations, and resources as the focus of building community capacities, the theorizing also points to different levels of social agency (e.g., individual, organizational and network) for the fulfillment of goals in community development. In the context of this research, the capacity of a research community is characterized by the interactions and communications of researchers, the mobilization of research resources, and the formation of various research networks both within and beyond a given community (e.g., a tourism research association). As can be seen from the above review, prior research on scientific communities almost unanimously suggests that communication and networking are different means through which community capacity can be built. Put in the context of research associations, the relationships among these factors can be illustrated through a diagram (Figure 2-1).

Of the various dimensions of capacities of a scientific community, *the sense of a community* reflects "a degree of connectedness" (Chaskin, et al., 2001, p.14) among member researchers (i.e., association members in the context of this study) and a recognition of, or conformity to, community values and norms such as the aforementioned ones in the sociology-of-scientific-community literature, including recognitions and rewards, originality and priority, competition and secrecy, disinterestedness and universalism, and communality of intellectual properties. Because of these norms and values, and the services and benefits passed through research associations to their members, a professional community is typically characterized by a sense or state of connectedness, which encompasses a sense of belonging, a sense of identity, and a sense of home among the member researchers.

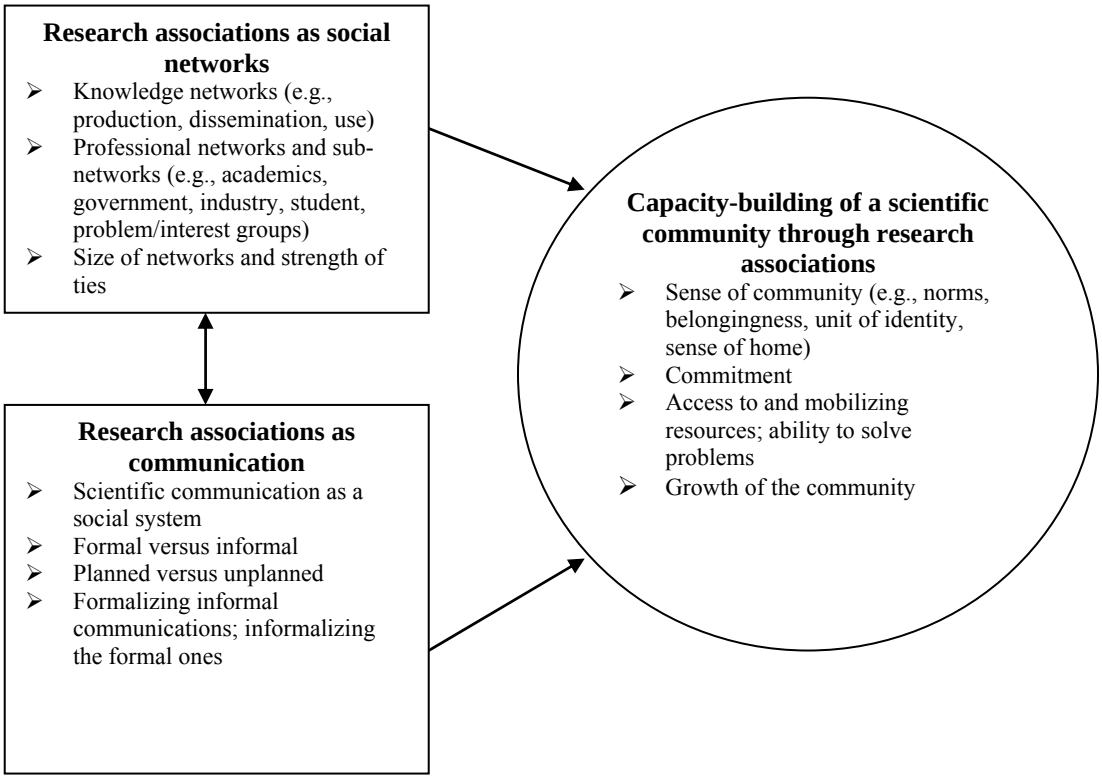


Figure 2-1. The Structuring of a Scientific Community: A Research Association Perspective

Likewise, commitment indicates the responsibility that member researchers, network groups, or research associations take for what happens in a scientific community. Chaskin, et al. (2001) argue that there are two essential aspects in such commitments. The first is that community members see themselves as stakeholders in the collective well-being of the neighbourhood; the second is expressed through a willingness of these members to participate actively as stakeholders in maintaining and improving the community (pp.15-16). Such commitments are usually translated into actions or efforts to solve problems through accessing and mobilizing research resources.

Arguably, active participation of members in a scientific community are fulfilled primarily through communications and networking. In an earlier study of natural science communities, Hagstrom (1965, pp.44-47) developed a role typology of researchers participating in their scientific communities. By intensity of participation and/or degrees of socialization in their community, these members can be classified into eight categories:

1) *Highly involved leaders* (these are members who, among other things, participate a great deal in all the communication channels within a community; publish a great deal; receive formal recognition; participate in association activities; and correspond with, visit and are visited by others).
2) *Informal leaders* (those highly productive and respected scientists who have more informal contacts than formal ones in a community).
3) *Scientific statesmen* and/or *marginal scientists* (members who have established reputations in a community or field and begun to devote much of their time to members in other scientific communities or to non-scientific members in the field of practices).
4) *Student-oriented leaders* (eminent members noted for their formal contributions, who spend a disproportionate amount of time with their students-current or former, and are related to a discipline or the research community through their students, and whose eminence stems partly from the success of their students).
5) *Student-oriented scientists* (less eminent and relatively productive members for whom a group of present and former students are nearly their only link with the scientific community, who are noted primarily not for their own work but for the work of their students, and most of whose informal relationships are with students rather than departmental colleagues or colleagues in other institutions).
6) *Intra-departmentally oriented scientists* (those, having strong needs for interpersonal approval and esteem but few students, and lacking the prestige necessary to approach specialists outside their own departments with confidence, and having to rely on their departmental colleagues).
7) *Productive isolates* (those who have established considerable reputations and continue to be highly productive while remaining relatively isolated from informal contacts with their colleagues either within or outside their community).

8) *Non-productive isolates* (those who seldom communicate in any way with other scientists, virtually retired from the scientific life or community, and consequently turn permanently to teaching or administration).

While these typologies were developed in the 60s and from the pure perspective of university-based academics in natural sciences, the relevance of these role typologies for social sciences, especially modern applied social sciences which comprise a diverse community of researchers, is open to discussion. Following these thoughts, this research will lend to discussions on the openness or closed-ness of scientific communications as a social system (e.g., frequency, density and amount of information flow among association members; and the frequency and density of contacts within versus outside smaller groups) in relation to creativity and the generation or circulation of new ideas in the community. Furthermore, in the context of research associations, do members have a preference of using their own association journals or going to their own association meetings for professional communication rather than using outside channels? How are scientific communications associated with (and to what extent are they perceived to be associated with) the social norms of a research community (e.g., recognition and reward, originality and priority, competition and secrecy, disinterestedness and universalism, and communality of intellectual property)? While this thesis research is not directly guided by (or may not directly address) all these questions, the outlining of such issues or problems could by themselves reveal the complexity or dynamics in the structuring of a research community.

Based on individual differences in communication practices, Hagstrom (1965, p.43) also developed an inventory of scientific communication channels. Accordingly, the most common ones are 1) published articles and books, and papers presented at association meetings, which is the most important channel of communication from the standpoint of the community (Hagstrom argues that members who do not contribute at all through this channel cannot be considered scientists); 2) contacts through association meetings; 3) informal contacts with others in the same specialty at different institutions (often through correspondence, visits, or in the course of meetings); 4) informal contacts with departmental colleagues; 5) contacts with former and current graduate students; and 6) contacts with members of different communities or with non-scientists.

With such an inventory of communication channels, Hagstrom (1965) suggests that a “profile” can be constructed for any researcher in a scientific community on the basis of his participation levels. According to Hagstrom (1965, pp.49-50), the communication and networking practices among

members in a scientific community can be further grouped into six types: 1) participation in activities of scientific societies and similar groups, identifiable in social roles such as association board officers or members, journal editors, and advisory or academic committees; 2) extra-departmental communications or networking, measurable by scientific correspondence or the amount of informal contact a member researcher has with others in the same community who are in other departments, institutions or associations; 3) productivity and outputs, measurable by the number of papers or formal communications by a member in a given number of years; 4) honours, prizes and awards; 5) intra-departmental communication, to be measured by the amount of time a community member spends in communication with departmental colleagues and the number of colleagues with whom he/she has discussed research; and 6) the number of graduate students and post-doctoral fellows. Again, it would be interesting to examine whether such observations and categorizations hold true for today's social sciences, especially for a young multidisciplinary field of research and scholarship such as tourism.

In this study of a scientific community characterized by research associations, a number of issues have emerged from the above review discussions. For example, it would be interesting to explore how the aforementioned typologies account for researchers in a young applied social science field such as tourism. Alternatively, questions can be raised as to whether members in a multidisciplinary community such as tourism fall into different clusters with different characteristics or traits due to research communications or professional networking unique to this community. From the perspective of capacity-building for a research community, it will be of interest to examine the roles and types of communications and networks and the way they contribute to (or are perceived by its members to have contributed to) the capacity-building and growth of a research community. Specifically, with respect to social networks, questions can be asked as to the formation and existence of professional networks among association members with respect to the types and sizes (e.g., special knowledge networks, professional groups or sub-networks, problem groups, collaborative research teams, specialty/special interest groups), the ways and process of such formations, and the roles an association has played (can play, or is perceived to have played) in facilitating the growth of professional networks.

In addition, research can address questions such as how members participate in the various research or professional networks (e.g., the initiation of a project in a collaborative research team, and the production, dissemination and use of research results in a knowledge network). How do various social/professional networks interact (e.g., government members, academic/educational institution

members, industry members, consultants, students and mentors, joint research collaborators)? Is the size/scope of a network positively or negatively related to the strength of ties, frequency or density of contacts, and amount of information exchanged? Is the assumption that the strength of ties is inversely related to the size of a network (i.e., the larger the social group, the weaker the ties) to be justified in this study?

Similarly, issues pertinent to communications include, for example, the type and use of communication channels (e.g., formal versus informal, planned versus unplanned) in relation to member networks or social groups (e.g., professors versus students, practitioners versus academics) and types of projects or research knowledge (e.g., explicit versus tacit). Moreover, prior research has frequently indicated that innovations or scientific discoveries are more likely to occur in an open community (Ben-David & Collins, 1966; March, 2004).

2.2 Planning and Marketing of Research Associations

The planning and marketing of professional/research associations is a more recent elaboration of the sociology of scientific communities into the business and organizational studies fields. The significance of professional associations and membership in a modern society is repeatedly emphasized in the research literature. For example, Israel (1972) and Rodenhauser (1999) suggest that ours is an organizational society, in which professional memberships and associations are an integral part in the extensions of interests and social relationships. According to the American Society of Association Executives (ASAE, 1994), in the United States alone, there are more than 23,000 national and 64,000 state, local and regional associations that represent different industries and/or professions.

Imber and Horowitz (1999) have commented on the role of professional associations in modern society. They note clusters of professionals such as scientists, engineers or technicians, and social scientists are responsible for forging the ideology of a society in the trenches of the various associations. Consequently, the importance of professional associations are also reflected in a number of published research on associations in a variety of fields such as art museums (Bhattacharya, 1998; Bhattacharya, Rao & Glynn, 1995), event management (Arcodia & Reid, 2003), health information management (Kloss, 1999), insurance (Gruen, Summers & Acito, 2000), modern languages (Cantor, 1999; Pinsker, 1999), purchase and supply management (Crosetto & Salah, 1997), and real estate (Ayal, 1986).

Thematically, such research has covered a variety of topics, including long-term or strategic planning of associations (Ayal, 1986; Kloss, 1999), association life cycles and administrative

dynamics (Rodenhauser, 1999), political use of research information or the role of advocacy (Imber & Horowitz, 1999), and relationship marketing (or building) and organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Gruen, et al., 2000; Gundlach, Achrol & Mentzer, 1995; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Because tourism professionals are late additions to the family of associations due to its youthfulness as a research field, there are no studies on these associations, which is a potential gap the present research is hoping to fill.

The planning and development of professional associations have never been without controversies. As Imber and Horowitz (1999) have cautioned, "they [professional associations] have come into existence and fractured as a result of many factors intrinsic to the life of a discipline as well as many that are extrinsic and a part of the life of the society" (p.5). From a planning and marketing perspective, it is important to consider the activities, products, and services of a professional association in relation to its membership commitment and behaviour and the overall development of the association (or the research community) in general.

2.2.1 Services and Activities of Research Associations

To a large extent, research associations are characterized by paid membership in non-profit contexts, in which, according to Bhattacharya (1998), traditional notions such as utility maximization, use of association services, and satisfaction are typical of membership commitment and behaviour with respect to the association's services. There are various accounts or summaries of association services and activities, stated or actually delivered, to fulfill an organization's goals or missions. For example, Crosetto and Salah (1997, pp.29-32) suggest that activities of a professional association include, among other things, 1) organizing professional development events at various levels (e.g., educational and training programs for career development of members), 2) providing specialized advice or information, e.g., both general and specific information about practices or progress in a field, 3) stimulating the exchange of experiences and information among the members, e.g., organizing and participating in conferences and symposia, developing direct and indirect contacts with other professionals or professional bodies, 4) undertaking and publishing research of interest to members and non-members in the professional community, e.g., initiating and funding research projects, publishing association journals and research handbooks, and 5) developing a code of procurement ethics that members of the association undertake to respect, e.g., maintaining professional standards; maintaining professional qualifications and certifications; complying with the norms, values and professional/academic integrity in field activities and practices; striving for the highest possible

standard of competence; and watching for (or working against) anomies or deviant behaviour in the research community.

In addition to the above functions or activities, the educational roles of professional associations are particularly emphasized by field researchers (Arcodia & Reid, 2003; Kloss, 1999). As Kloss (1999) noted, "[the professional associations] exist to advance the standing of the members of the occupation or profession by setting educational and other standards governing the profession, advocating for favourable public and private policies, aiding members in their professional development, and advancing professional practices through research and information dissemination" (p.71). In a more closely related instance of event management associations, Arcodia and Reid (2003) reported a content analysis of the documents and websites of 152 professional event management associations worldwide. Findings from their analysis indicate that there are a number of key concepts or factors consistently appearing in associations' mission statements, goals and objectives, services, and codes of ethics.

For example, education was the most commonly recurring category among these associations in their mission statements, followed by other concepts such as networking and sharing of experiences; communication and/or keeping updated in information; professionalism, standards and ethics; career advancement or professional development; and promotion and positioning (Arcodia & Reid, 2003, not paginated). Many of these missions are reportedly to be fulfilled through association activities such as conferences and symposia, seminars and workshops, communications through association publications, and other professional development programs or events.

The "goals and objectives" of the observed event management associations are characterized by thematic concepts such as standards and ethics, identity and recognition, networks and collegiality, information exchange, education and training, business management, and membership. Major services of these associations were categorized into five recurring types: 1) education, 2) communication, 3) business, 4) community, and 5) advocacy. To a varying degree, these services are delivered through a wide array of association activities such as annual conferences, tradeshows, seminars, workshops, training programs, education and certification, online educational services, research, consultation, library facilities and access, publications for sale, regular meetings, and the production and delivery of social programs (Arcodia & Reid, 2003, not paginated).

While education and professional development are recurrent terms in an association's mission statement, goals and objectives, and the services it provides, these authors find that the codes of ethics

are represented by issues such as effective business practices; reputation, respect and personal conduct; fair play; quality and competence; communication; professionalism; and satisfaction of clients, among others. Arguably, such activities and services can be translated into relationship-building efforts through which associations can influence membership commitment and behaviour.

2.2.2 Membership Commitment and Behaviour

In the organizational science literature, commitment is often conceptualized as multi-dimensional (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Gundlach, et al., 1995; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). As an extension of the previous studies on the strength of ties in social network analysis (Granovetter, 1973), commitment is generally viewed as the strength of the relational ties among members of an organization or association in the marketing and business literature (Kim & Frazier, 1997). It is also believed that organizational commitment has an impact on membership behaviours such as performance, participation, and turnover or retention (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The term "commitment" is variously defined and operationalized in the organizational studies literature. Steers (1977) defines commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization. Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) suggest that commitment has three primary components: 1) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, an organization's goals and values, 2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of an organization, and 3) a strong desire to remain with an organization. In other words, a member who is highly committed to an organization or association intends to stay with it and to work hard towards its goals.

In a comprehensive review of the research literature from the 60s to early 80s, Reichers (1985, p.468) summarizes that organizational commitment is operationalized around notions such as "side-bets" (in which commitment is a function of the rewards and costs associated with organizational membership), "attributions" (in which commitment is a binding of an individual to behavioural acts that results when the individual attributes an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in behaviours that are volitional, explicit and irrevocable), and "individual/organizational goal congruence" (in which commitment occurs when individuals identify with and extend efforts towards organizational goals and values). More specifically, as Luthans, McCaul and Dodd (1985) have noted, much of this research has centred on determining the predictors of commitment such as age and tenure, which are found to be positively related to organizational commitment.

Conceptually, Allen and Meyer (1990) propose a three-component model of commitment that integrates a number of previous conceptualizations. According to these authors, the *affective component* of organizational commitment refers to members' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization; the *continuance component* refers to commitment based on the costs that members associate with leaving an organization; while the *normative component* refers to members' feelings of obligation to remain with an organization (p.1). A related area of research is the establishment and maintenance of relational exchanges in relationship marketing. Morgan and Hunt (1994) theorize such relational exchanges with a commitment-trust model, in which commitment to a relationship is defined as "an exchange partner believing that an ongoing relationship with another is so important as to warrant maximum efforts at maintaining it" (p.23). Correspondingly, trust is understood as an existence "when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity" (p.23). Morgan and Hunt (1994) argue that communication and shared values (or norms) can lead to trust, which in turn influences relationship commitment among organizational members.

These conceptual understandings have been extended and applied to different contexts of relationship marketing such as the case of industrial distribution channels (Kim & Frazier, 1997) and the instances of involvement with, or commitment (loyalty) to, leisure activities and services (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, 1999; Pritchard, Havitz & Howard, 1999). A more related discussion is the extension of commitment research in relation to activities and membership behaviour in the context of professional associations. For example, with empirical evidence from local/regional chapters and members of the National Association of Life Underwriters, Gruen, et al. (2000, pp.36-38) find that core service performance of an association—defined as "the extent of the quantity and quality of the planning and delivery of an association's primary services", is directly and positively related with membership behaviours such as retention (i.e., the percentage of members that renew their membership from one year to the next) and participation (i.e., the extent to which membership consumes an association's services). They also find that normative and affective commitment could partially mediate the effects of some relationship building efforts (e.g., enhancement of member inter-dependence, recognition, and dissemination of knowledge) for membership behaviours such as participation and "co-production", which is defined as "the extent to which membership is involved in the production of an association's products, services, and/or marketing" (Gruen, et al., 2000, p.37).

2.2.3 Association Planning and Development

While commitment has mediating effects on members' behaviour, association activities and services remain the primary factors affecting membership participation, retention, and their commitment to an organization (Gruen, et al., 2000). From the perspective of a professional association, efforts to increase membership commitment and behaviour can be achieved through strategic planning of its services and activities. Nevertheless, as Ayal (1986, p.51) points out, strategic planning is particularly problematic with non-profit organizations with paid memberships due to the following factors: 1) diffuse missions with multiple and often hard-to-define goals and objectives; 2) multiple constituencies frequently with conflicting goals; and 3) voluntary leadership that changes frequently, and though devoted, often lacks the time, staff and other resources required for any planning activities.

More succinctly, Rodenhauser (1999, pp.423-425) summarizes the issues pertinent to organizational change as follows. 1) Organizations innately embody hidden functions, i.e., the latent functions that are unintended and unrecognized by member participants but can be observed by analysts outside the system. 2) Organizations suffer from unclear purposes, as the purposes of membership are usually varied, and lack of clarity can result in disappointment and wasted resources. 3) Organizations develop blind spots due to the aforementioned goal displacement. 4) Organizations develop power struggles due to an inherent internal power structure typical in institutionalization. 5) Organizations resist change when a learning organization becomes a learned organization.

Arguably, professional research associations as non-profit organizations bear many of these characteristics, which, if not properly handled or planned, could inhibit the nurturing of membership commitment and behaviours, and eventually serve as barriers to the growth of a healthy research community. According to Gundlach, et al. (1995), part of the strategy in organizational planning and development resides in the establishment of long-term membership commitment. The authors suggest that such commitment can "provide an impetus for the development of relational social norms", which are defined as "shared expectations regarding behaviour" (Gundlach, et al., 1995, p.81). They further argue that, within an organization, parties or groups seeking stable and long-term exchange relationships will evolve a self-regulatory governance approach that avoids the uncertainty, conflict, and opportunism of information exchange and market transaction, as well as the bureaucracy and inefficiencies of enforced cooperation.

Based on previous conceptualizations, these social norms can be understood, in an organizational context, as factors such as solidarity (the extent to which unity or fellowship that arises from common responsibilities and interests dominates an exchange relationship), mutuality (the degree to which an exchange relationship is based on mutual benefits and trust), and harmonization of conflict (the degree to which social groups or networks attempt to reach mutually satisfactory compromises) (Gundlach, et al., 1995, p.84). Similarly, as Morgan and Hunt (1994) have noted, shared values of members in beliefs, behaviours, and organizational goals and objectives are the direct precursor of relationship commitment and trust, which can be interpreted either as "[the commitment] brought about by a person sharing, identifying with, or internalizing the values of the organization", or as "that brought about by a cognitive evaluation of the instrumental worth of a continued relationship with the organization…" (p.25).

Arguably, from a planning and development perspective, the communication of such social norms or shared values among association members can help establish commitments and trust, which can, in turn, assist in the capacity-building and growth of a research community. As previous research has pointed out, communication (especially timely communication between community members in the context of marketing research provision and use) fosters trust by aligning perceptions and expectations (Moorman, Deshpande & Zaltman, 1993; Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande, 1992). In this sense, factors such as communications and networking, previously identified and highlighted in the earlier studies as dimensions of capacity-building of scientific communities, have been further developed from the standpoint of organizational planning and/or marketing research.

2.3 Research Associations as Knowledge Networks

The conceptualization of knowledge networks (or knowledge networking) is another recent extension from the sociology of science (or knowledge). This can be seen from a number of related notions or concepts such as utilization (or knowledge use), community of practice, organizational learning, and more recently, knowledge management in the domain of business and information management. It is argued in this study that the process of producing, disseminating and using research knowledge is facilitated by a variety of social organizations, one of which is research associations. Presumably, it is also argued that knowledge networks are characterized by the properties and practices of a specific field. In other words, knowledge networks of tourism are potentially shaped by the characteristics of the field both as a young, multidisciplinary specialty of applied social sciences research, and as a multi-faceted, multi-sectoral industry of practice. In the context of this study, characteristics of TTRA

members with respect to research information use can be probed through their professional communication and/or research networking behaviour, which could, more or less, cast some light on the role of research associations in facilitating knowledge use among members in the community.

2.3.1 The Dynamics of Research Knowledge Use

The advent of the new century has witnessed a sustained interest in issues related to the management and use of knowledge for decision/policy-making and program development. The concerns for the creation, dissemination and transfer, and utilization of knowledge or research, coupled with the sophistication of information and communication technology as a facilitator of the process, have been translated into a huge enthusiasm among the academics and, consequently, a rapid growth of research on knowledge networking for more effective use.

Utilization has been central in the process of knowledge production and dissemination. In the social sciences literature on knowledge use (hereafter KU), utilization is conceptualized not only as an outcome but also as a process that encompasses information processing capacities, social and affective relationships that influence interpretation and use, capacities to assess and select research knowledge for decision making, as well as actions taken to put research into practice (Beyer & Trice, 1982). For the purpose of this dissertation research, the central questions in knowledge networking are the degree to which, how and for what purpose research information or knowledge is used by members in a research association, as well as the role of research associations in facilitating the process of knowledge networking which, arguably, will build on the capacity of a research community in return.

It is further argued that knowledge network or networking could serve as a useful theory for an understanding of communications, social networks and collaborations for information and knowledge use in tourism research associations. Related to these arguments are notions such as knowledge management and transfer, which are used either to refer to a planned application of knowledge to accomplish the goals or missions of an organization, or the communication strategies for effective dissemination and sharing of knowledge or research information for product/program development and decision making (Ives, Torrey & Gordon, 1998; Wiig, 1997).

Much of the knowledge literature describes the multidimensional nature of KU. These dimensions encompass, in various terms, conceptual/cognitive/knowledge-enhancing use for enlightenment or freedom (Anderson, Ciarlo & Brodie, 1981; Beyer & Trice, 1982; Weiss, 1979), instrumental/behavioural/action-oriented use for problem solving or solutions (Caplan, 1979; Dunn,

1980), symbolic/political/affective use for the justification of actions, policies and decisions (Menon & Varadarajan, 1992; Weiss, 1980), process use or "intended process use" (Patton, 1997, p.90), different levels or stages of use (Knott & Wildavsky, 1980), as well as the complexity in the process of utilization (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Rich, 1997).

Previous research also indicates that KU is only a descriptive concept, as it does not imply any evaluation of utilization results. In conceptual discussions, a number of related terms such as usability, usefulness, and credibility are employed to examine the effectiveness of KU (Menon & Varadarajan, 1992; Souchon & Diamantopoulos, 1996). Effectiveness focuses on the outcome of KU relative to the user's goals or expectations; usability refers to the potential or probability for a body of knowledge to be used; and usefulness reflects its potential to produce an outcome that could be subsequently evaluated as (in)effective in terms of users' goals or expectations. Because usefulness is relative to specific tasks or objectives, there is a temporal dimension in that knowledge can lose its usefulness over time. Finally, credibility reflects the perceived quality or perceived value of a body of knowledge. Among the use dynamics, usability is affected by both credibility and usefulness because actual KU is determined not only by its perceived quality but also by its potential or likelihood to produce effective utilization results. The linkages among these concepts can be seen in Figure 2-2, in which the arrows connote the causality in the use dynamics.

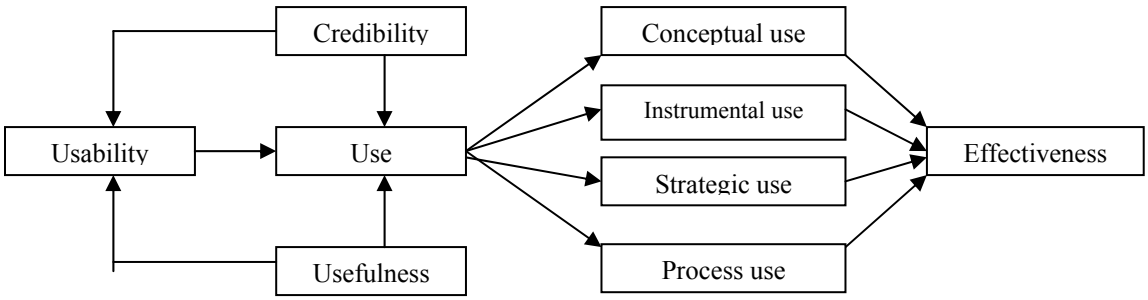


Figure 2-2. A Conceptualization of Research Information and Knowledge Use

2.3.2 Theories about Knowledge Production, Dissemination and Use

The nature and process of KU determines the scope of its study in a particular context such as a research association. Very often, this could encompass issues and/or activities such as knowledge need assessment, identification or inventory of sources, formulation of strategies for utilization and transfer, and organization of dissemination or transfer activities (e.g., workshops, seminars, or

conferences). Theoretically, the setting of a strategy for KU fits appropriately within a communication framework, which would involve not only knowledge producers and users, but also the various knowledge brokers and the nurturing of a culture of learning or utilization through research associations. Differences between the producer and user communities are often shaped by the textual features of research (or knowledge attributes) and the environments of both communities (i.e., the utilization attributes or use dynamics). More specifically, KU research encompasses practical issues such as effective communication mechanisms between the producer and user communities, relationship building and facilitation, and even the building of community capacity for KU. In fact, the practice of KU has been examined or evaluated from highly multi-disciplinary perspectives in diverse fields such as policy research (Bardach, 1984; Saxe, 1986), the use of scientific information in education (Boyd & Menlo, 1984), knowledge innovation in financial management (Sorg, 1984), and the utilization of rehabilitation research (Muthard & Felice, 1982).

In the utilization literature, there are a number of theories about knowledge production, dissemination and utilization. *The two-community metaphor* is perhaps the most prevalent theory found in utilization research. According to Wingens (1990), the use of this term bears resemblance to the concept of "two cultures" originally proposed by Snow (1965) to describe the differences between natural sciences and the humanities. Utilization research in the 70s and early 80s reinforced the idea of two cultures with a new concept to account for the low instrumental use of social sciences research by practitioners (Caplan, 1979; Caplan, Morrison & Stambaugh, 1975; Deshpande & Zaltman, 1983). To explain the low or non-use of social sciences knowledge, Caplan, et al. (1975) outline three theoretical approaches: 1) knowledge-specific theories, which attribute non-use to features of scientific knowledge itself, 2) practitioner constraint theories, which explain the lack of use by internal or external conditions that constrain users for decision/policy making, and 3) two-communities theories, which interpret non-use as due to different cultures or life forms that social scientists and practitioners share respectively. Of the three explanatory approaches, the two-communities theory provides a theoretical basis and research perspective for looking at KU in subsequent studies. It focuses on the cultural gaps between knowledge producers and users, and pays special attention to the lack of interaction among members in the two communities. As Caplan (1979) notes, "authors who hold this view attempt to explain non-utilization in terms of the relationship of the researcher and the research system to the policymaker and the policy-making system. They argue that social scientists and policy makers live in separate worlds with different and often conflicting values, different reward systems, and different languages" (p.459).

The systems theory is a further development or reformulation of the two-communities theory. Wingens (1990) notes that "what is called the two-communities theory is *very problematic in theoretical status*…and, plain and simple, [it is] *no theory at all*" (p.31, emphasis original). His critique is made on the basis of two arguments: 1) The two-communities theory takes an individualistic perspective on the performance or actual realization of utilization, and 2) The two-communities theory is a theory of non-use rather than a theory of utilization. However, as Wingens (1990) further suggests, "what the two-communities metaphor and a systems theory approach have in common concerning knowledge use is the starting point for explanation: There is, *in principle, a difference* between the scientific social system/community, on one hand, and the political social system/community, on the other" (p.34, emphasis original).

In the systems theory, this difference is not conceived as a cultural difference between the two groups. Instead, built on Luhmann's (1981) arguments on the use of social sciences knowledge in different social systems, the systems theory views knowledge producers and users as two functionally different social systems using different communication media. As Luhmann (1981) notes, "[k]nowledge, at least the generation of new knowledge, is a matter of the scientific system. Concerning processes of this system, one speaks of research. Power, however, is a matter of the political system. Concerning processes of this system, one speaks of collective binding decisions" (p.287).

The crucial question that the systems approach addresses is how the interaction between the two different social systems and subsequently the use of scientific knowledge can possibly take place. In comparison to the two-communities theory, the systems approach has an important theoretical asset in answering the question of interaction. While both theories depart from the fundamental presupposition that there is a difference between knowledge producers and users, the systems approach treats this presupposition (or difference) as "the logical starting point for explanation" (Wingens, 1990, p.36), whereas the two-communities theorists view the presupposition itself as identical to the explanation.

The conceptualization of a systems theory has contributed to a better understanding of KU in two aspects. First, the use of scientific knowledge cannot be understood as a rationalization of decision-/policy-making or practical actions in an actual field or organization. As Wingens (1990) observes, "while early utilization research carried the rather naïve idea or hope that the use of scientific knowledge would lead to a growth of rationality in policy-making, this idea was given up during the past years under the weight of numerous empirical studies that could not identify any rationalization

of policy making actually using scientific knowledge" (p.35). Second, the systems approach has brought an enhanced interpretation of the unity of theory and practice or the blending of research and practice. According to this theory, there are different types of rationality dominating the two systems of research and practice. Simple blending of the two social systems could lead to the destruction of system-specific rationality. In Wingens' (1990) words, blending can only be possible "at the cost of evoking the functional differentiation of both systems and their evolutionary development" (p.36). Therefore, instead of blending the two communities, the systems theory focuses on successful interaction between the two social systems, which is made possible through a contextual change because "it is exactly the functional differentiation that increases the mutual dependencies of the two systems" (Luhmann, 1981, p.287). From the standpoint of systems theorists, contextual change is not only an essential condition but also a sufficient one for KU.

Bipolar or tripolar models are developed on the basis of social interaction theories, with the assumption that knowledge transfer involves the parties of research producers and users (Yin & Moore, 1988). There have been various degrees of sophistication in the conceptualization of bipolar or tripolar models. The earlier, simpler versions cast KU as one-way transmission or dissemination from the producers to the users. As is illustrated by Howes (1980), "an activity that called for research and development goes on, and the outcomes of this are new techniques or innovations" (p.336). More complicated approaches conceive utilization as a problem of transaction in terms of knowledge exchange, in which the flow is two-way and often in continuity (Zaltman, 1986).

Adding to the conceptual sophistication, Boggs (1992) proposes a three-way exchange approach to KU that brings research subjects—a unique agent in the process of knowledge creation and transfer—into the dynamics of KU. It is argued that all three parties (social scientists, decision makers, and research subjects) should be viewed as both producers and users of social knowledge, which is the core of KU. Any party, Boggs (1992) explains, might be placed at any corner of the three-way exchange triangle to give a different "feel" to the model, without changing its substance (p.37). Such a knowledge exchange model finds a clear support from innovation economics with respect to the relationship between the problems faced by economists and those by the economic agents whom the former group attempt to study. As Loasby (1991) notes, "the behaviour of economists may help us to understand the behaviour of economic agents, and vice versa" (p.2).

In addition to the above theories, there are a couple of other conceptualizations found in the utilization literature. *Knowledge-driven theory*, for example, has also been called the research, development, and diffusion (RD&D) theory or more frequently referred to as the research and

development (R&D) model (Rosenberg, 1982). It stipulates that ideas and discoveries from basic research will eventually result in inventions or advances in applied research, which, in turn, will facilitate production or distribution research. The RD&D theory suggests that resource allocations (*e.g.*, number of researchers and amount of budget involved) have normally displayed an ascending pattern from basic research (with fewest researchers and least fund), to applied research (with more researchers and more funds), and finally to development or production research, which involves the most people with extensive funds. As Yin and Moore (1988) observe, the knowledge-driven theory depicts a linear process and is strongly characterized by knowledge or technologies as push factors.

The problem-solving theory, on the other hand, accounts for a linear but reverse sequence compared to the knowledge-driven theory. As the term implies, its conceptualization begins with the identification of problems from the users' perspective. The problem is then communicated to the researchers or knowledge producers, whose task is mainly to identify or find alternative solutions. During this process, utilization is explained by the fact that the ultimate users of the research are willing and prepared to implement any viable solutions informed by research. Based on case studies in the natural hazards field, Yin and Moore (1988) argue that such a utilization process is more often characterized by demand-side features or as a sequence of pull factors.

Theoretically, while the above theorizing has captured the general issues or concerns during the process of knowledge production, dissemination and utilization, it will be interesting to probe whether and to what extent knowledge networking is also characterized by social organizations such as research associations. Therefore, in the context of this dissertation research, questions can be asked about the characteristics (facilitators and barriers) with regard to dissemination and use of research knowledge by association members, and the role of associations in facilitating this process through communication and networking strategies. Coincidentally, the use of research information and communications between research producers and users have long been an issue of concern or debate in TTRA (Blakeman, 2005; Reid & Smith, 1998; Smith & Taylor, 1994). In fact, the Greater Western Chapter of TTRA has recently concluded a symposium on this very topic—*How research drives policy* (March 22-24, 2007, Seattle, Washington).

2.3.3 Utilization Research Methodology

Methodologically, research on KU has followed both positivist/post-positivist and constructivist traditions. The quantitative aspects are featured by the various approaches to measuring KU. These include the development of scales or indices for measuring utilization and knowledge impacts such as

the level-of-use scale (Hall, Loucks, Rutherford & Newlove, 1975), evaluation utilization scale (Johnson, 1980), overall policy impact scale (Vall & Bolas, 1982), rehabilitation research utilization index (Muthard & Felice, 1982); experimental methodologies used to understand KU or knowledge management (Coursey, 1989); path analysis of factors affecting KU (Deshpande & Zaltman, 1982); as well as simulations of user behaviour (Lee, Acito, & Day, 1987). Hall, *et al.* (1975) have proposed an eight-level scale of utilization: 0) Non-use—potential users have little or no knowledge of research findings; 1) Orientation—users start to gather information about research; 2) Preparation—users prepare for initial use; 3) Mechanical—users direct attention to day-to-day use; 4) Routine—users stabilize the application; 5) Refinement—users modify or improve the application; 6) Integration—users combine applications with other activities to achieve collective impact; and 7) Renewal—users re-evaluate the quality of use.

Over the years, some of the earlier measurement techniques have been critiqued by their contemporaries (Dunn, 1983a); some have been more recently empirically refined or tested in the context of using university research by government agencies (Amara, Ouimet & Landry, 2004; Landry, Amara & Lamari, 2001). Nevertheless, as is noted by Mandell and Sauter (1984), empirical studies on KU suffer from four conceptual and methodological problems: 1) composition of the study population, 2) specification of the dependent variable of "use", 3) problems associated with the independent variables used, and 4) problems resulting from the failure to appreciate respondents' inability to report and explain user behaviour accurately. To further these arguments on having respondents report and explain their KU behaviour, Landry, Lamari and Amara (2003) direct future researchers to intriguing questions such as, "to what extent is it possible to rely on respondents' memories of the contents of single research reports and single discrete decisions made a few years earlier, and to what extent is it realistic to assume that a single discrete decision was influenced by a single research report and, if so, what is the meaning of the word 'influence'?" (p.196). Consequently, knowledge literature suggests that the conceptualization of and methodology for KU research is still under development. One of the methodological directions that attempts to address these pitfalls is an orientation towards more interpretive or constructivist approaches to the understanding of KU.

In a detailed description and analysis of the techniques and approaches used in KU studies, Conner (1981) finds that qualitative methods are more often used than quantitative approaches. As noted by Dunn (1983b), qualitative methodology represents a loosely organized configuration of presumptive claims about the subjective nature and meaning of knowledge, and is seen as particularly suitable for addressing the dimensions of utilization and transfer in the natural settings or processes of its

occurrences. In the utilization literature, constructivist approaches to the understanding of KU have been variously used in terms of grounded theory methodology (Bhatt, 1998; Gupta, Iyer & Aronson, 2000), participatory action research of collaborations or knowledge networks (Kiely & Armistead, 2005; Kramer & Wells, 2005; Schonstrom, 2005), utilization-focused evaluation (Patton, 1997), communities of practice (Brown & Duguid, 1996; Wenger, 1998), naturalistic studies of utilization settings (Maynard-Moody, 1989), case studies of organizational innovations (Yin, Bateman, & Moore, 1985), ethnographic narratives of knowledge exchange in call centres (Koh, Gunasekaran, Thomas & Arunachalam, 2005), and constructivist ethnomethodology of knowledge processes (Knorr-Cetina, 1981).

Arguably, there is an emergent paradigm shift with respect to KU studies at both the conceptual or theoretical and methodological levels. Conceptually, the conventional transfer theories or models with implicit assumptions of an inequality between knowledge creators and users in terms of power relations (i.e., one is more knowledgeable or better educated than the other and thus there exists the need to transfer, as is assumed in the two-community theory and bi-polar models) are challenged by concepts such as communities of practice, and knowledge networks or networking. Methodologically, scientific/positivistic measurements of KU are similarly challenged by community-based, participatory collaboration or action research. While the former has a stronger focus on outcomes of KU, the latter attempts to get both knowledge producers and potential users involved in the process of production, dissemination, and utilization. Through social constructions of the use process, it is argued that more effective utilization can be achieved through joint developments of utilization research programs as well as negotiations for better practice solutions by both researchers and users or user groups.

Such a shift is a reflection of both epistemological and methodological concerns. Take the community-based approach to KU as an example. The rationale for adopting community-based studies is clearly associated with the contextual nature of knowledge (what constitutes knowledge), the changing views of knowledge generation, as well as critiques of positivist/post-positivist research on measuring KU. As is variously stated, recognizing the limitations of a value-free science, encouraging self-reflexivity of the researchers, acknowledging the ownership of knowledge, and sharing findings are some of the major principles for the empowerment of communities through research collaborations (Denzin, 1994; Israel, Schulz, Parker & Becker, 1998; Minkler, 2004). Turning to the more recent literature on KU in health studies, a number of instances such as the building of networks for the transfer of research to workplaces (Kramer & Wells, 2005), researcher-

stakeholder collaborations in the development of a research program for workplace health (Kramer, Cole, Hepburn, Theberge & Eerd, 2006), and the development of a unified view towards working, learning, and innovation through communities of practice within organizational settings (Brown & Duguid, 1996), serve as good examples of such constructivist-oriented approaches. In terms of intervention research practice, community-based models for the promotion of health are also introduced (Canadian Tobacco Control Research Initiative, 2005).

In short, the utilization theories and methods reviewed above have implications for studying knowledge networking or KU within tourism research associations. In the context of this study, the focus on research communications and networking provides an approach to understanding the characteristics and behaviour of TTRA members with respect to releasing or publishing and retrieving or using tourism research information (see more discussion in the research design section). Built on studies from tourism and other fields, the empirical survey of TTRA members will help better understand the dimensions of research communication and networking in relation to more effective use of knowledge in an applied research community. The results pertinent to research information use shed light on issues such as differentiation or categorization of associational knowledge networks, the role of associations for professional networking, and communications and networks amongst association members for effective use of travel and tourism research in this applied research community.

2.4 Tourism as an Applied Field of Research and Practice

Tourism is both a multidisciplinary field of research and a multi-faceted, multi-sectoral area of practice. Compared with its many contributing parent disciplines, tourism is also a young field of study. As Graburn and Jafari (1991, p.1) have noted, most of its studies have taken place since 1970. The field is young in many ways. Its earliest professional/research associations appeared in the 40s. Its earliest scholarly journals appeared about a decade later, e.g., *Turizam* (or *Tourism*): *An International Interdisciplinary Journal* (established in 1952) and *The Tourist Review* (established in 1956). Its first set of books (now classic texts) appeared largely in the 70s and 80s.

Despite its youth as a field of study, the growth of tourism as a research community over the last five decades has been remarkable. This can be seen from a number of aspects. First, there is a proliferation of research journals. By now, there are more than 80 tourism related journals with an assorted combination of general, theme-specific and region-specific periodicals. However, as Morrison (2005) notes, two thirds of these periodicals appeared after 1990. Second, there is an

exponential growth of research outputs. Hall, et al. (2004) estimate there are over 2,000 research articles published every year in tourism journals plus books and book series, anthologies and book chapters, monographs, conference papers and proceedings, and other research/professional publications. Third, the rapid increase of research associations is indicated by the frequency and number of international and regional tourism conferences, seminars, or workshops. Fourth, there is a worldwide increase of tourism higher education programs, research institutes, and/or research information centres. Fifth, tourism has become a popular topic for dissertations and theses. Taken together, these are indications of the rapid growth of its research community (Goeldner, 1999; Hall, 1991; Jafari, 1998; Jafari & Aaser, 1988; McKercher, 2002; Meyer-Arendt, 2000; Meyer-Arendt & Justice, 2002; Sheldon, 1991; Williams, et al., 2001).

From the perspective of practice, the emergence of tourism as a field of study reflects the growth of the tourism sector; its economic significance at global, national and local levels; its long-term impacts on the socio-cultural and environmental aspects of the hosts and guests' societies; and the benefit of tourism for the well-being of both individuals and societies. To a large extent, the recently rapid development of tourism as an applied research field can be seen in its responsiveness to the needs of government tourism agencies (e.g., the convention and visitor bureaus), tourism industries, destination marketing organizations, non-governmental tourism organizations, and the host communities of tourism development. Arguably, its research community, its knowledge networks, and (in a miniature sense) its research associations are characterized by the nature of tourism as a multidisciplinary and applied research field.

2.4.1 Tourism as an Applied Research Community

Arguably, the tourism research community is characterized by its nature as an applied multidisciplinary field. State-of-the-art analyses suggest that tourism research bears intellectual debts to a variety of disciplines or specialties in terms of source knowledge contributing to its research (Xiao & Smith, 2005, 2006b). Specifically, the research community covers a diverse spectrum of researchers from (or related to) disciplines or fields such as sociology and anthropology; marketing, business and management; environmental studies and geography; economics and statistics; planning, development and community studies; hospitality; and recreation and leisure studies, among others. Such a diversity of scholarship is confirmed in a recent study of academic leadership in tourism research (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). These authors argue that while leading tourism researchers have

come from a diverse training and educational background, they are highly concentrated in the Anglophone community.

From a social organizational perspective, it is also interesting to note that tourism researchers are affiliated at the secondary (i.e., faculty, college or school) and tertiary (department, program or research centre) levels, "with units that embrace a team of colleagues with common interests in tourism issues and provide tourism-related degree programs" (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007, p.483). While such a social organization of tourism researchers can be interpreted as a sign of maturation and autonomy, or one that is increasingly developing a boundary of its own, Xiao and Smith (2006b) have noted that tourism research has also remained a relatively open field of scrutiny in terms of drawing intellectual resources. For example, it is noted that about 45% of the intellectual debt for tourism research come internally from within the field, another 45% from outside the tourism field, and about 10% from tourism related specialties such as recreation and leisure studies, and hospitality (Xiao & Smith, 2006b). In another study on the structure of knowledge impacts in the scholarly community, Xiao and Smith (in press) have noted that tourism research has contributed about 60% of its impact internally to the tourism and its related fields versus 40% of its impact externally to the outside, non-tourism fields. Moreover, a pattern of simultaneous knowledge production and knowledge use was observed in its research community, which is regarded as a common practice in a young social science research community such as recreation and leisure studies, and tourism (van Doren, Holland & Crompton, 1984; Xiao & Smith, 2006b).

From a scientific community perspective, prior studies in the sociology of science suggest that maintaining a reasonable degree of openness is conducive to productivity and innovation as discoveries are more likely to occur in an open community (Hagstrom, 1965; Garvey & Griffith, 1967; Kulkarni & Simon, 1988; Merton, 1957; Mulkay, 1977; Tuire & Erno, 2001). On the contrary, parochialism in the evolution of a research community can be potentially dangerous, as March (2004) points out in the case of organization studies,

> The maintenance of a differentiated structure of beliefs and practices within a small, homogeneous community enforces standards and yields the elegance of a refined domain of knowledge. However, such cohesion is potentially self-destructive. As a community develops loyalty towards its own members it encourages a conflation of familiarity with quality. The same sense of community that brings refinement and consensus also brings an in-group bias (p.15).

In this sense, the current state of openness in the structure of tourism literature (as seen from its citation linkages) could be regarded an asset for the healthy growth of the community. Nevertheless, it will be interesting to see to what extent the above findings on scientific communications through citation linkages in the tourism literature hold true for the community from the standpoint of its research associations.

Another approach to examining the tourism research community has to do with the characteristics of tourism as an applied social science field. In the earlier sociological accounts of scientific communities, there have been debates in distinguishing the applied versus basic (or pure) research. For example, it has been suggested that the distinction can often depend on assumptions about the motives of the researchers (Reagan, 1967), in which basic or pure research is seen as undertaken by those researchers who have little interest in the ultimate practical applicability of the results, whereas the objectives of applied research are assumed to be entirely or primarily utilitarian.

The distinction is also made on the substance of the research (Kidd, 1959), in which basic/pure research is thought of as the pursuit of problems for the advancement of theory or knowledge while applied endeavours are more often the pursuit of problems for more immediate practical implications. Moreover, Mulkay (1977) argues that such differences can be seen in terms of the audiences of scientific information. He concluded that "in the case of applied research, scientists produce information for an audience composed mainly of non-researchers", who judge the results of research primarily in relation to non-scientific criteria such as usefulness in directing practice or the potentiality of economic profit or returns (Mulkay, 1977, pp.130-131). However, as this author has also noted, it can be extremely difficult to gather reliable evidence about the motives of research as well as the actual use of applied research knowledge. Nevertheless, discussions along these lines of applied versus basic (pure) research can be useful in drawing attention to the social divisions of the research community, particularly divisions in the social contexts or knowledge networks in which research is undertaken (to be discussed later in relation to the selected case study).

The structure and social organization of the tourism research community have positioned itself as an applied social science field. For example, tourism is often placed under business administration in the global higher educational framework (Xiao, 2000). Likewise, the applied status of the field is also reflected in the instance of research assessment exercises such as those in the United Kingdom and New Zealand (Easton & Easton, 2003; Hall, 2005; Page 2003, 2005).

Another area related to the characteristics of tourism as an applied field is the amounting interest in knowledge mobilization, knowledge management, and the leveraging of impacts or use of research

knowledge for practice (Vaugeois, et al., 2005; Xiao, 2006; Xiao & Smith, 2007). As mentioned earlier, the use of research knowledge can be addressed from both the academic and the practitioners' perspectives. Xiao and Smith (2007 and in press) have noted that while practitioners' use of tourism research can lead to a distinct set of issues and dimensions, the academic use of tourism research (or the scholarly impact of its knowledge) is often conducive to structural interpretations of the research community in terms of citation linkages or intellectual debts.

Arguably, in an applied research field such as tourism, the complexity of knowledge use, the praxis of theory (or research) and practice, and indeed research evaluation in general have recently become areas that attract increasing interest in the tourism research community. These endeavours can be seen as necessary in different lights, e.g., as research policy or administrative exercises such as the Research Assessment Exercise in the UK; as performance evaluation for promotion and tenure decisions for university faculties; and as indicators in legitimating the status of a field, in arguing for its maturation, and in examining the advancement of research or field knowledge.

Indeed, the past decades have witnessed continuous endeavours in assessing the state-of-the-art of tourism research and scholarship, and in examining the impacts of tourism studies on theory and practice. Such efforts have taken a variety of forms and perspectives. For example, in terms of using knowledge for practices, studies have alluded to the important role of research and education in the making of "mindful managers" (Moscardo, 1997, p.16) or the preparation of "philosophic practitioners" (Tribe, 2002, p.338). Nevertheless, there are concerns about the limited use of tourism research by practitioners and the limited role of its journals in transferring research knowledge (Frechtling, 2004). Some researchers have noted the weak link between academia and industry in terms of transferring research, arguing that the current state of confusion in tourism praxis are attributable to practitioners' negative attitudes towards academic research and their very practical requests for immediate answers and simple tools (Ritchie & Ritchie, 2002; Ryan, 2001). Numerous authors have also alluded to the differences between academics and practitioners in the acquisition and use of research information and pointed to the importance of improving research communications between the two communities (Blakeman, 2005; Reid & Smith, 1998; Smith & Taylor, 1994; Vaugeois, et al., 2005).

From the academic perspective, state-of-the-art research suggests that tourism is a rapidly expanding body of knowledge (Ritchie, 1996) and that the field has evolved into a state of remarkable research accumulation in a notable number of domains (Swain, Brent & Long, 1998; Xiao & Smith, 2006a). From an evolutionary standpoint, academics have proposed different platforms to reflect

upon the growth of its scholarship (Jafari, 1990, 2001; Hunter, 1997; Macbeth, 2005). Others have charted the progress of the field or suggested directions for its future growth (Faulkner & Goeldner, 1998; Goeldner, 1999; Jafari, 2002). In view of the maturation of the field, researchers have scrutinized and debated on issues such as dominant paradigms in tourism research (Dann, 1997; Tribe, 2001), the disciplinary status of tourism studies (Echtner & Jamal, 1997; Leiper, 2000; Tribe, 1997, 2000), theoretical advances of its sub-fields (Dann, 1999, 2001, 2005), and the epistemological basis of tourism research (Botterill, 2001; Tribe, 2004, 2006).

There are also reflections upon institutionalization as a mechanism in triggering tourism research growth (Hall, et al., 2004), as well as multidisciplinary contributions and maturation of its research and scholarship (Graburn & Jafari, 1991; Xiao & Smith, 2005, 2006b). From a knowledge transfer standpoint, inquiries have been made into the extent of cross-citations between tourism and the related field of hospitality (Howey, Savage, Verbeeten & van Hoof, 1999), as well as the nature and composition of its research in relation to fields such as leisure studies (Henning, Levy & Ritchie, 2005). More globally, Kobasic (1996) has commented on a pattern of Anglo-centeredness in the tourism research community in terms of the dissemination of research knowledge.

Despite the rapid growth of the tourism research community, there are concerns among academics about the theoretical underpinnings of its research outputs. For example, Franklin and Crang (2001) describe the field as "stale, tired, repetitive, and lifeless"—a troubling state of research and scholarship that is attributable to a tendency "of tracking and recording the staggering expansion of the industry and producing an enormous record of instances, case studies, and variations" (p.5). These authors have even noted that "[a]t times it has been unclear which was growing more rapidly—tourism or tourism research" (p.5). Such a standpoint is reiterated by Ritchie and Ritchie (2002), who express a concern about the lack of balance in knowledge production and utilization when they suggest that "[a] great deal of research is being conducted in tourism, but it is inefficiently used and rarely exploited to its full potential" (p.451); and by Page (2005), who echoes to a similar effect that "[i]f only 25% of the current tourism outputs were produced, our knowledge base in the subject would not be adversely affected" (p.665). Researchers also note that tourism knowledge has been generally characterized by place-specific discussions, best practice examples, one-off research, and case studies (Carter, Baxter & Hockings, 2001; Dartnall & Store, 1990; Hall, et al., 2004), which, according to Oppermann (2000), are "of limited additional scientific value" (p.145).

Despite these critical views, enthusiasm for assessing progress in tourism research continues. Such interest can be seen in the many studies of its journals including authorship analyses (Sheldon 1991),

citation analyses (Howey, *et al.,* 1999; van Doren, Koh & McCahill, 1994; Xiao & Smith, 2005, 2006b), perceptions of journal qualities by the publishing faculty (Pechlaner, Zehrer, Matzler & Abfalter, 2004; Sheldon, 1990), examinations of methodologies used for (or methodological innovations in) tourism research (Faulkner & Ryan, 1999; Reid & Andereck, 1989; Riley & Love, 2000), comparison of tourism journals based on historical stages of growth (Kim, 1998), as well as documentation of changes of subjects over the years (Swain, *et al.,* 1998; Xiao & Smith, 2006a). Longitudinal observations with regard to the changes of subject areas and research techniques have also been made in the field of hospitality (Baloglu & Assante, 1999; Crawford-Welch & McCleary, 1992).

More recently, there are ongoing studies of research performance evaluation by program administrators in tourism (Law & Chon, 2007); the ranking of tourism academics, institutions, and its journals (Pechlaner, *et al.,* 2004; Jogaratnam, Chon, McCleary, Mena & Yoo, 2005; McKercher, Law & Lam, 2006; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007); and a series of critiques in *Tourism Management* on academic rankings and leadership (Hall, 2005; McKercher, 2005; Page, 2005; Ryan, 2005). Overall, while the rankings of journals, researchers, and their institutions are perceived to potentially influence individuals' academic careers, standings of their institutions, reputations of the publishing media, as well as national research policy such as the Research Assessment Exercise in the United Kingdom (Easton and Easton 2003; Page 2003, 2005), there are concerns about the impacts of tourism studies outside the field as well as beyond the Anglophone community. To some extent, such concerns pinpoint to discussions or debates on whether and to what extent the tourism research community is "open" versus "inward-looking" with smaller impacts of its journals in the broader social sciences arena and consequently smaller impacts of its knowledge beyond the boundary of tourism studies. Indeed, as McKercher (2005) notes, tourism journals are notable by their absence from independent impact-appraisal systems such as the Social Science Citation Index (SSCI), and consequently, "[f]ew people outside the field consult this literature unless conducting tourism research, and by the same token, those working within the field cite the literature constantly" (p.650).

In general, the current state of tourism research is a clear reflection of the characteristics of an applied multidisciplinary community in evolution. As Mulkay (1977) has noted, such a community is characterized by "a multitude of overlapping problem networks", each of which is undergoing a sequence of intellectual and social development, and consequently, the maturity of the community is indicated by "an increasing cohesiveness of these networks", "the emergence of a band of elite members", "a rapid influx of new entrants", and "a cumulative growth of research findings" (pp.132-

133). In the tourism research community, for example, results from the recent studies on academic and institutional leadership and their induced discussions (Jogaratnam, et al., 2005; McKercher, et al., 2006; Zhao & Ritchie, 2007) appear to confirm previous observations that highest rewards are confined to a relatively small group of highly productive researchers (Cole & Cole, 1967; Price, 1963), that pioneers or leading researchers in a field tend to be concentrated at a limited number of universities and/or regions (Crane, 1969, 1972), and that these eminent researchers exercise greater influence over the trend and standards operative in a scientific community (Mulkay, 1977). Arguably, from an evolutionary and comparative perspective, tourism research as a field is moving on—at least in terms of the amount of research information supplied to the community. Nevertheless, younger researchers in this growing community have an enormous intellectual debt to the pioneers or leading researchers in the earlier stages of the community development. Additionally, while the above research evaluation exercises have placed enough emphasis on the academic or scholarly networks, more attention needs to be paid to the diversity and complexity of its knowledge networks, which are often typical of an applied research community such as tourism.

2.4.2 Tourism Knowledge Networks

As mentioned earlier, in the process of knowledge production, dissemination and storage, and knowledge sharing and use, a number of knowledge agents (e.g., producers, disseminators or brokers, and end users) are involved with a variety of issues such as types and characteristics of knowledge; dissemination channels and communication strategies, sources of knowledge; purposes and rationales of using knowledge; and effectiveness of use. Such a process conjures up an array of questions that studies on a research community must address. Arguably, within this process, distinct knowledge networks are formed that link members in a research community.

In an applied social science field such as tourism, research into the complexity or dynamics of the knowledge systems can take both macro- and microscopic perspectives. While the former type of research take greater challenges in its design and implementation, the latter can be seen through contextualized entities or vehicles such as convention visitor bureaus (Yuan, Gretzel, & Fesenmaier, 2006), visitor information centres or call centres (Carson & Adams, 2004; Koh, Gunasekaran, Thomas & Arunachalam, 2005), DMOs (Xiang, et al., 2005), taxi cab services (Skok, 2000), and/or teacher-student relationships (Pio, 2005).

From a macroscopic standpoint, Fesenmaier, Leppers and O'Leary (1999), and Ritchie and Ritchie (2002) provide good examples of the development of tourism or destination marketing information

systems. While the former focuses more on the structural elements (e.g., components such as industry intelligence, strategic market data, tools, collaborations, and development and training), the latter outlines a process of information need assessment, inventory of information sources, and specification of key research tasks. Another holistic approach is to propose research agendas for the management, utilization and leveraging of knowledge impacts in tourism (Xiao, 2006; Xiao & Smith, 2007 and in press).

Regardless of whether the dissemination or transfer pattern is a direct one from knowledge producers to ultimate users or whether it involves knowledge brokers in between, the process model of leveraging knowledge impacts fits most appropriately within a communication framework which links up the two communities. In such a context, network theory emerges as an appropriate conceptualization to account for the collaboration of knowledge brokers, agents and/or stakeholders in the process of knowledge networking. In the tourism literature, while collaboration or network theory has been used in recent discussions on a number of substantive topics such as policymaking or public policy (Hall, 1999; Vernon, Essex, Pinder & Curry, 2005), heritage management (Aas, Ladkin & Fletcher, 2005), destination management (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005), international tourism (Morrison, Lynch & Johns, 2004), and volunteer tourism (McGehee & Santos, 2005), the use of such a conceptualization in mobilizing knowledge in tourism is still limited, despite a couple of notable instances in collaborative tourism research settings (Beesley, 2004a, 2004b, 2005) and the academia-industry tourism research links (Ryan, 2001).

To a large extent, dissemination and knowledge mobilization though associations depend on people who are willing and capable of initiating and facilitating transfer through various networks (Bhatt, 1998, 2001). Putnam (1995) refers to this type of networking for community engagement as social capital. The knowledge literature largely suggests that "the presence of social capital can enhance knowledge capture, knowledge codification, and knowledge transfer " (Hoffman, Hoelscher & Sherif, 2005, p.99) and that of particular relevance to knowledge mobilization is social network analysis of the distinct dimensions or functions of social capital as a structure of trust, obligations, and expectations; as information channels; and/or as a system of social norms and effective sanctions (Lang, 2004; Liebowitz, 2005; Schonstrom, 2005).

As mentioned earlier, the tenets of social network analysis are that human individuals are nested within networks of face-to-face relations or communications with other people. To varying degrees, colleagues and associates, friends and families, associations and organizations, neighbourhoods, communities, and even society at large are social entities, which are embedded in such networks.

Social network analysts are therefore interested in how an individual or organization is embedded within a structure and how that structure emerges from among the individuals or organizations. This conception could be applied to knowledge mobilization through tourism research associations to see how the various knowledge agents relate to each other through interactions, communications and networking.

As a widely used or adapted theory in various other fields, the notions of collaborations and stakeholders are central in social network theorizing. Conceptually, while stakeholders are known as persons or entities who share common characteristics and have either the right or capacity to participate (or simply get involved) in a decision-making or development process (Wood & Gray, 1991), collaboration is defined as the interactive process in which "a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engaged in, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain" (p.146). Another idea related to knowledge networks is the concept of community-of-practice (Wenger, 1998), which is a notion of intuitive learning through participation in a specific community. The participation is at first peripheral, when the person is a newcomer to the community, but it increases gradually in engagement and intensity as one gets fully immersed in the community.

These communities, usually context-specific, can be anything like a problem or interest group in a research community, or a local regional chapter of an association. More explicitly, Wenger and Snyder (2000) define a community-of-practice as "a group of people informally bound together by shared expertise and passion for a joint enterprise" (p.142). To facilitate this discussion on the development of knowledge networks in the tourism research community, these terms are used, more or less interchangeably, to refer to the idea of knowledge networking through collaborations between/among community members in a research association. And it is in this sense of engaging the stakeholders or participants in a knowledge mobilization process that research associations have their unique role to play through facilitating communications and networks.

Researchers argue that utilization or knowledge transfer can be interpreted as a networking process (Yin & Gwaltney, 1981) or one of creating knowledge networks (Schonstrom, 2005). According to Walsham (2001), research on knowledge management (KM) has experienced three generations of initiatives or solutions. The first generation focuses on the creation of knowledge repositories—a central place where multiple databases or files are located for distribution over a network, or for direct access by users without having to travel across a network, but these often fail as much of the knowledge in these repositories are often found to be irrelevant to the personal

circumstances of the knowledge users. The second generation of KM initiatives focuses on personalized or specialized types of knowledge to specific groups of users. However, these solutions are successful only in cases where the target groups' needs have been successfully anticipated or identified. The third and current generation of KM solutions focuses on supporting and facilitating communications between and/or among the knowledge agents. Arguably, knowledge networks can be considered as a central thread running through the communication process.

Knowledge networks are made up of social relations among individuals residing within and sometimes outside an organization (Schonstrom, 2005). According to Seufert, von Krogh and Bach (1999), they can be divided into intentional networks—those formal networks that are intentionally created by an organization, and emergent networks—the informal networks that are in existence but need interventional support to make them useful or work for an organization. Based on benefit levels and amount of managerial support needed, Buchel and Raub (2002, p.589) present a standard four-matrix typology of knowledge networks, with the row representing benefit levels from individuals to organizations, and the column highlighting managerial support from low (e.g., self-managed) to high amount of managerial support.

While each type requires varying amounts of managerial support, the hobby networks and the professional learning networks tend to be more beneficial at the individual level, whereas business opportunity networks and best practice networks are more beneficial at the organizational level. In this article, Buchel and her colleague also outline four stages of network development: 1) focusing on knowledge networks, 2) creating network context, 3) routinizing network activities, and 4) leveraging network results (2002, pp.590-594).

Specifically, the first stage includes activities such as aligning the network around important and common issues, finding management support for these issues, and creating links between network members. The second stage of creating network contexts is a key activity to establish a common ground for communications within the network, in which members are given the opportunity to learn and understand each other's contexts. The third stage, through routinization of activities, helps the network define its roles and set up a structure for its operation. Lastly, leveraging results is an outcome stage when the knowledge generated from the network is transferred to the organization as a whole.

Schonstrom (2005) suggests that a knowledge network can either be limited to one organization or have members from several organizations. In the field of international tourism, large companies with many subsidiaries and geographically distributed units such as hotel chains, airlines and other

international tourism organizations can gain from creating knowledge networks in which experts from different units can communicate and share ideas across unit boundaries. In a smaller scale, tourism associations or organizations at national or provincial levels can also benefit from knowledge sharing facilitated by such networks.

By incorporating major collaborators or stakeholders in an applied social science research community, a hypothetical model of knowledge networks of tourism research associations can be seen through Figure 2-3. Although researchers driven by different values or perspectives may come up with different network models with distinct stakeholders, the knowledge networks in this diagram (i.e., academia, government, industries, DMOs and associations) are characteristics of the tourism research community, particularly in relation to membership structures of its research associations such as TTRA (to be discussed under a separate heading).

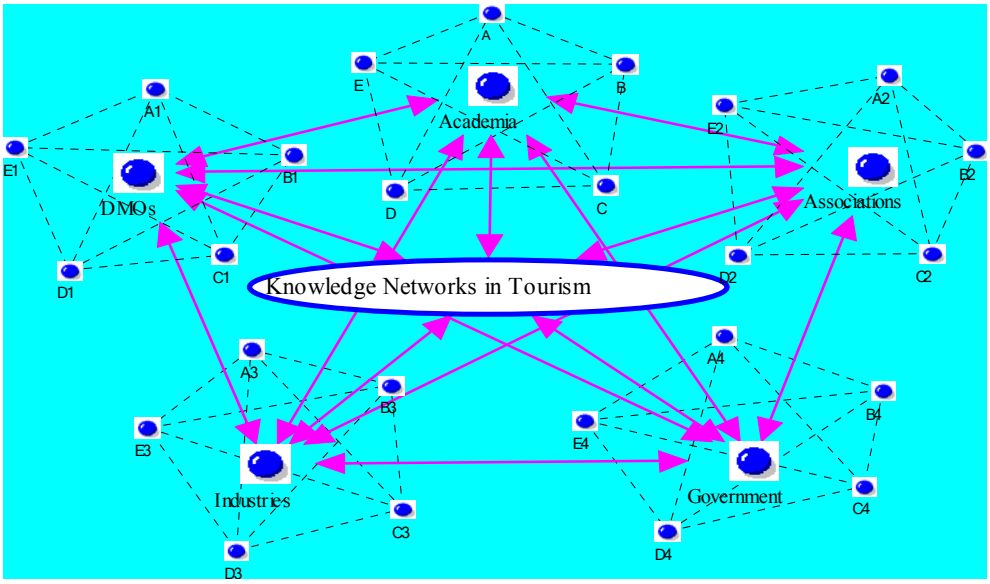


Figure 2-3. Hypothetical Knowledge Networks of Tourism Research Associations

Intuitively, the diagram in Figure 2-3 suggests that members in a community are related to each other through different paths or bridges and over various distances. As Granovetter (1973) has noted, the bridging functions between two points or members are more likely to serve local or smaller networks, whereas "in large networks, it probably happens only rarely, in practice, that a specific tie provides the *only* path between two points" (p.1364, emphasis in original). Granovetter (1973, p.1365) further argues that interpersonal information flow or the transmission of ideas between members in a community is directly proportional to the number of positive paths connecting its

members (i.e., the more the number, the easier the transmission), and inversely proportional to the length of such paths (i.e., the shorter the path, the more likely the transmission). Built on this logic, Granovetter (1973) emphasizes the significance of weak ties in a large, loosely organized community because they function as local bridges in creating more and shorter paths. Notably, "the removal of the average weak ties would do more 'damage' to transmission probabilities than would that of the average strong ones" (Granovetter, 1973, p.1366).

These arguments are particularly applicable to the social networks temporarily and/or loosely established through paid memberships of research associations. Arguably, the knowledge networks in a tourism research community are characterized by a number of major sub-networks such as academia, government, industry, professional associations, and destination marketing organizations, which can be seen through membership structures of research associations such as TTRA. Presumably, professional communication and networking facilitated by research associations are good instances in bridging and/or creating paths for members in a diverse community.

In this diagram, while stakeholders at the sub-network level jointly form a broader and more holistic network of their own, it is argued that each sub-network has its own distinct sets of entities and their communities of practice (illustrated at the outset of the model), which in turn form their own knowledge networks (or mini-networks) with similar agents or stakeholders at a local level. For example, Sheehan and Ritchie (2005) suggest that the networks for DMOs consist of stakeholders as diverse as city government, regional government, state/provincial government, university or college, chamber of commerce, board of directors, attractions, hotels and restaurants, other DMO members, convention centres, sponsors, as well as residents. They argue that the salience of a stakeholder decreases as network contacts with the DMO decrease, or the distance with the DMO increases (p.728).

Similarly, it can be argued that tourism academia has its own local knowledge networks. Depending on the degree or intensity of contacts, theirs could encompass stakeholders such as authors/researchers and intended readers, mentors/teachers and students, publishers and editors, librarians and tourism databases, consultants/marketing research companies, funding organizations, commissioned research providers, university/faculty administrators, and so forth. Local knowledge networks for tourism industries can be even more complicated given the various sectors of tourism businesses. Arguably, this subset could include competitors, customers, suppliers, distribution channels or intermediaries, financial institutions, insurance companies and so on.

Government networks, on the other hand, may consist of both tourism and non-tourism offices (or departments) at various governmental levels, intergovernmental organizations, NGOs, and even community groups. Tourism organizations and associations, among themselves, have subdivisions such as educational/scientific, governmental/intergovernmental, industry, environmental, and even religious associations pertinent to tourism, as can be seen from the "Organization and Association" entries in the subject index of *Annals of Tourism Research* (Annals, 2007). These associations could form knowledge networks within themselves, which, by intensity and degree of contacts, are composed of members, board of directors, conference/seminar attendees, sponsors, conference centres, convention/meeting planners, business and membership services, and educational or professional development programs.

Consciously or unconsciously, it is within such complex, interwoven and multi-layered networks that mobilization or leveraging of knowledge impacts is to take place among individual members, problem/interest groups, and organizations and associations in the tourism research community. Such a network approach has implications for examining the capacity and dynamics of a research community. First, the conceptualization of multi-layered stakeholder collaborations through local knowledge networks could help better understand the current state and the degree of connectedness of a research community. Second, knowledge mobilization in and/or capacity-building of the tourism research community should ideally be conducted at a lower or more local level by examining the functions of its sub-networks or entities such as a research association.

General attempts to account for utilization or mobilization in a broad/holistic sense are more likely to be frustrating (if not impossible). Arguably, many of the current concerns about utilization and knowledge transfer in tourism as well as recreation and leisure studies have departed from a generally broad, all-embracing and/or overly holistic perspective. As Beesley (2004b) observes with respect to the collisions and interactions among governments, industries and universities, "for the dynamics of the linkages formed between science, industry and the government to be fully appreciated and reflected within science policy, these linkages would be viewed not as collaborations, but as a *convergence* of these sectors" (p.31, emphasis in original).

Third, such a knowledge network approach could add to the perceived value of organizational (or "localized") learning associated with the stakeholders at individual, network, or an organizational level. Current utilization literature largely suggests that academic research or theory is not immediately or directly applicable to practice. While direct utilization could ideally be an expectation,

academia-industry links in tourism are found to be a challenge or in a state of confusion. As Ryan (2001) notes with respect to the industry's attitudes towards university research and methodology,

> 'Give me an answer, any answer, but don't bore me with caveats, I am after all a practical man' seems to be the attitudes. And can you blame them, for this is a rapidly changing industry where, because so many companies are small in size, then the norm is to be generally reactive rather than proactive. Given significant changes in market places over small time periods, need industry be concerned with research? There isn't enough time for a decision to be proven wrong, and if it was, then the next year, it is a new market! (p.93).

2.4.3 Tourism Research Associations

The global significance of the tourist industry has fostered the formation of various tourism organizations and associations, which exist in large numbers and are highly diverse in terms of functions. According to a potentially incomplete list under the "Organization and Association" entry in the subject index of *Annals of Tourism Research* (Annals, 2007), 123 different organizations/associations are identified that contribute to tourism research in one way or another. These entities are categorized into different groupings such as educational and scientific, governmental and intergovernmental, and industry and environmental tourism organizations. Notably, among them, 47 are educational and scientific organizations. They have served the tourism research community in a variety of ways such as organizing, hosting or sponsoring conferences, congresses and seminars; publishing and disseminating research findings; facilitating or mobilizing the use of research information; advancing field knowledge; developing education/training and professional development programs; formulating professional standards; and developing certification and quality control programs. Indeed, as Sheldon (1989) and Graburn and Jafari (1991) have noted, the role of research associations in the capacity-building of a scientific community should not be ignored as these organizations "provide cohesion and an opportunity for exchange of ideas" (Sheldon, 1989, p.495) for its member researchers.

While tourism research associations are generally concerned with the development of research and the advancement of tourism as a field of study, there are differences among themselves. Some have been around for a longer history than others. For example, as mentioned earlier, albeit the recency of tourism as a research field, associations such as AIEST and CHRIE have been serving the community for over 60 years. Some have a clearer regional focus than others. For example, albeit the recent

attempts in developing international chapters for global visibility, associations like AIEST, APTA (Asia Pacific Tourism Association), CAUTHE (Council of Australian Universities in Tourism and Hospitality Education), and TTRA have traditionally developed their focus on Europe, Asia-Pacific, Australia and New Zealand, and North America, respectively. While some have an open or semi-open system in recruiting members, others have a review process in place in their acceptance of members, and the extreme of this is to place a cap on the number of active members such as the prestigious IAST (International Academy for the Study of Tourism, founded in 1988), which is generally recognized as the premier scholarly community on top of AIEST, APTA, CAUTHE, and TTRA, and is devoted exclusively (at least in its vision and mission statements) to the advancement of research and scholarship. Additionally, while most associations have annual or bi-annual conferences for research communications, some others have association journals such as AIEST, APTA, ISTTE (International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators), and TTRA. Furthermore, some university-based organizations such as the Centre des Hautes Etudes Touristiques (founded in 1964 in Aix-en-Provence and continued as International Centre for Research and Study on Tourism, or CIRET) welcomes numerous international scholars and students and remains one of the largest sources of information for tourism researchers in the world.

Closely related to the above "pure" tourism research associations are the contributions made by the broadly social science associations from the parent disciplines. For example, several major disciplinary groups, such as the American Anthropological Association (AAA), International Geographical Union (IGU), and International Sociological Association (ISA) regularly organize tourism sessions at their congresses. Most significantly, IGU and ISA have created formal tourism research groups such as the one on "Sociology of International Tourism" under ISA (Lanfant, 1989).

Nevertheless, despite the multitudes in number, tourism research associations are generally small in size. Notably, in terms of membership, International CHRIE is probably the largest with almost 1,400 members located in 57 countries (Sigala, 2006). As of website postings in September 2006, AIEST has some 400 members from about 50 countries or world regions, APTA has 300 academic or industry members from 20 Asian-Pacific and other countries, and CAUTHE has close to 200 associate members in addition to 24 member universities. Comparatively, as noted earlier with respect to the size of research communities of physics specialties in the 60s in the United States (e.g., solid state physics, or nuclear physics), tourism research associations are arguably small. In this sense, tourism research associations are not even comparable to its sister field of recreation and leisure studies, whose iconic association, NRPA (National Recreation and Park Administration), has

many more members than any single tourism entity. Nevertheless, these discussions should not be taken as undermining the role of tourism research associations in facilitating communications and networking, and in fostering the growth of its research community.

2.5 Travel and Tourism Research Association

The Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA) is one of the earliest and leading professional associations that has served the tourism research community for more than 35 years. An international network of more than 700 active tourism research and marketing professionals from more than 40 countries (as of *TTRA Strategic Plan 2004-2008,* Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004), TTRA is comprised of both providers and users of travel and tourism research, and based on the statements posted on its official website <www.ttra.com>, the association holds the following goals or objectives as its mission:

1) Facilitate access to numerous sources of information to support research efforts.
2) Educate members in research, marketing and planning skills through publications, conferences and networking.
3) Encourage professional development and recognize research and marketing excellence through its awards program.
4) Creates opportunities to interact with peers throughout the industry.
5) Foster development of travel and tourism research and related curricula in institutes of higher education.
6) Promote the development and application of professional research in the travel and tourism industry.

To synthesize these goals or objectives, the association aims at mobilizing resources for the advancement in tourism research; facilitating communication, networking and information exchange; committing to professional development through education and research programs; and promoting the application of research and leveraging the impacts of knowledge in travel and tourism. As noted in the previous review sections, these goals and objectives are highly characteristic of a research association in an applied multidisciplinary community. In fact, TTRA as a tourism research association has come a long way, yet its mission of serving an applied research community with market research for informed decisions and industry practices has remained largely unchanged.

2.5.1 Early History

While TTRA is often regarded as starting from 1970, one of its predecessors—the Western Council for Travel Research (WCTR) can be traced back to the late 50s. According to the inaugural issues of WCTR bulletin, WCTR was founded in 1959 with its inaugural annual conference held in Salt Lake City in September of that year. Holding annual conferences has become a regular event of the association, and reporting these events remained a major part of the bulletin. Following its inaugural gathering, annual conferences for the next few years were held in Tucson (April, 1960), Reno, Nevada (April 12-14, 1961), Seattle, Washington (August 16-17, 1962), and San Francisco, California (August 28-30, 1963) respectively. WCTR had had 11 annual conferences before its combining with the then Travel Research Association (TRA) to create a merger association.

WCTR was organized in response to an increasing demand for travel market information at that time in the United States. As the Council's president Wayne Yates (1962) noted in the purpose and goals of WCTR, "[Tourism] is one of the largest revenue-producing industries in our country today, yet reliable information on its actual size and potential market is not available. Some states enjoy tremendous tourist business with little intimate knowledge of what attracts the visitor and how much he spends" (p.1). It is to satisfy this information need that the Western Council was organized. Understandably, due to the then exploratory nature of travel research, the primary aim of the Council was "to achieve standardization in travel study methodology and statistical reporting concerning the travel industry", and its goal was "to act eventually as a clearing house for information on all aspects of the travel industry" (Yates, 1962, p.1). Accordingly, major research programs of the Council at this initial stage were noted as "compiling a manual of instructions for use as a guide in future travel studies, …programming new fields of travel to be studied,…[and] completing the plans for a national program of basic travel market research" (Yates, 1962, p.1).

Charted with these aims and goals, WCTR began to develop areas of agreement or work towards a consensus with respect to conducting travel research. As noted by Hook (1962, p.2) in his summary, these areas of agreement include 1) the standardization of visitor/tourist definitions, 2) standardization of travel research methods, e.g., survey areas and models, and 3) the standardization of basic information to be gathered and questions to be asked in the gathering. These questions or basic information pertain to, for example, total number of visits, size of party, total visitor expenditures (including breakdowns in different business sectors), origins and destinations, purpose of trips, length of stay, and modes of transportation and accommodation. Indeed, as Goeldner (1999) noted, the characteristics of early travel research are highly related to the nature of tourism as an applied field as

well as multifaceted business sectors: “Tourism research at that time was in its infancy. The WCTR was established by business school, bureau of business and economic research directors and highway department directors. The highway people felt that they needed to know something about the phenomena called ‘tourism and travel’ and that it surely needed to be considered in their highway planning endeavours” (p.34).

However, it was also noted that the field would need basic research for a healthy growth. As Harmston (1962) suggested, “In the travel industry today, we are trying to apply a new twist—to do applied research in a field where no basic research of any consequence has been done…Even in the collection of statistical data to measure the industry there is such a lack of analysis and of common sense that the situation has become ridiculous” (p.1). The then WCTR president suggested that “any kind of basic research having a bearing upon the travel market should be welcome” (p.1). He went on to note that some fields of inquiries (e.g., the field of leisure time use decisions) yield profitable results within a shorter time than others. It can be inferred from these arguments that, right from its start, the multidisciplinary connections of travel and tourism were acknowledged in the research community, and that, despite its nature as an applied research field, theoretical underpinnings or foundations of basic research were also acknowledged.

As a professional association, WCTR achieved a sizeable scale of growth and a considerable level of organization early in its existence. For example, as was noted by Yandon (1962) of the organization and attendance of WCTR’s second annual conference held in Tucson in April 1960, three committees were appointed for the organization of the event in charge of invitations and publicity, program development, and actual arrangements, respectively. The event was noted as a three-day conference featuring a variety of sessions, “with 100 persons in attendance at some sessions” (Yandon, 1962, p.3). Reportedly, the representation of the conference included governmental, academic, and private organizations, and the geographical coverage included a wide spread between Missouri and Hawaii, with most of the states in between being represented in some way (Yandon, 1962).

In much the same way as today’s tourism research association conferences, these early WCTR gatherings were also remarkable in arranging social events for the purposes of both attracting future attendance and developing professional networks, which, from a current organizer’s perspective, are the norms of professional tourism research association conferences. In an interesting recollection of his first exposure to travel and tourism research, Goeldner (1999) recalled:

> The conference (the 7th WCTR conference held in Vancouver, British Columbia in 1965—*notes added*) opened with a cocktail reception aboard the ocean liner, Oronsay. The final night banquet started with a reception sponsored by the State of Florida. Then everyone was asked to pair off and march in a column of twos into the banquet hall through a tunnel formed by people in Beefeaters costumes who were playing trumpets. Once inside the banquet hall, there was a 96-piece orchestra and parchment menus at the table. Each dinner course had at one time been served in the court of Louis XIV or his successors (p.33).

Indeed, as Goeldner (1999) noted, his personal involvement with travel and tourism research started from this conference, which, in his words, was the most memorable event that marked his initiation into the field. In addition, scholarly communications and information exchange through these early WCTR gatherings were also notable. For example, in the Spring issue of the *WCTR Bulletin* which featured a report on its 8th annual conference (WCTR, 1966), it was noted that "a special place has been arranged in the program for one of the leading European authorities on tourism, Dr. Hunziker, President of the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism" (p.2). The then-AIEST president was invited to give a keynote on the latest research being done and the future trends of travel research in Europe. Arguably, this was probably one of the earliest formal scholarly exchanges between researchers in the two continents. In total, WCTR has organized eleven annual conferences prior to the merge for a new national travel research association.

2.5.2 The Merge of Two Travel Research Associations

By the late 60s, the need for a national travel research organization in the United States was "a generally recognized one" (Keeling, 1969, p.5). Mark Lowenthal, vice president of the then Travel Research Association (TRA), also noted such a critical need for a national-level travel research association to fulfill four major objectives: 1) to unite all the existing organized travel research groups into a central source of travel marketing and research information, 2) to permit interested professionals in the field of travel research in all parts of the United States to have a central organization with which to affiliate, in much the same way as the American Marketing Association, 3) to avoid wasteful duplications of regional travel market and research organizations, and 4) to have leverage, through a strong central national organization, with the Federal Government and major affiliated travel industry groups, so as to make itself a significant voice on all matters relating to travel research and marketing (Lowenthal, 1969, p.11).

In the years of 1968-69, there seemed to be a definite movement towards the creation of such a national travel research organization. In many ways, the moving of WCTR and TRA toward such a merger could be viewed as the cooperation of two strong entities since the merging was based on a series of similarities or compatibilities. As noted by Keeling (1969), there was a tremendous similarity between the two organizations in their basic objectives: "Both organizations state that their primary aim is to provide leadership in the field of travel research; both seek to encourage cooperation in travel research activities; both recognize the role they play as a forum and clearing house for the exchange of ideas on travel research; and both seek to improve the quality of travel research" (p.1). In terms of organizational patterns, the constitutions and by-laws dictate that both WCTR and TRA are non-profit organizations having "the usual slates of officers and the usual rules to do business by" (p.2). By membership patterns, basic similarities are also noted in both having private research organizations and consultants, media, universities, government tourism offices, advertising agencies, and air carriers as the top categories of membership.

To move forward, a practical step was initially taken by WCTR in the form of a resolution passed by members in its 10th annual conference in August 1968 in San Diego. The resolution was soon brought by WCTR's vice president William Keeling to TRA's annual conference in September for further endorsement of the idea of creating a national-level travel research organization. As an important process towards the merger, a joint committee with members from both WCTR and TRA was formed, which functioned as a working group to develop procedures for the formation of a new organization. Initially, a number of options were identified: 1) to form a loose confederation with a joint board to establish overall policies for holding joint annual/national and regional meetings, 2) to set up a tight national organization with chapters at the local level, or 3) to completely consolidate into a single organization (Keeling, 1969, pp.4-5).

Eventually, an agreement between WCTR and TRA for the creation of a unified travel research organization was unanimously passed and approved by both associations to mark "January 1, 1970, the birth of the new affiliated organization to be called the Travel Research Association" (WCTR, 1970, p.1). As a result of the new TRA, the former TRA was re-named the Eastern Council for Travel Research (ECTR). However, according to the agreement, both councils would continue with their names (WCTR and ECTR) for professional and research activities.

In addition to the name of the new organization, the affiliation agreement also stipulates issues pertinent to the missions and objectives, organizational structure, officers or board members,

conferences and meetings, headquarters, membership and dues, and the implementation of the agreement for the association's future. For example, the unified travel research organization was perceivably created "to represent and advance the best professional interests of the travel research community as it relates to the travel industry as a whole…and to provide professional leadership in research related to the travel industry in all its dimensions and thereby promote orderly and effective development and marketing within the industry" (WCTR, 1970, p.1). Such a mission is closely related to the applied nature of travel research and an appropriately stated goal for a national-level travel research association. To achieve this, the objectives of the new TRA were stated as follows (WCTR, 1970, pp.1-2):

1) To serve as a forum and clearing house for the exchange of ideas and to regularly schedule and hold meetings, conferences, seminars, and other group discussions.
2) To collect, publish, and otherwise disseminate the results of research projects of interest to the travel industry.
3) To encourage cooperative action by producers and users of travel research.
4) To provide objective professional guidance for the formulation of public policy on matters pertaining to travel and tourism.
5) To encourage research activity and programs in colleges and universities.
6) To identify and support special research efforts to fill gaps in the current state of knowledge in the field.

In retrospect, albeit the historical context of the merger, a clear sense of continuity can be spotted in terms of the new TRA objectives relating to the missions of both its predecessors and its future development. Arguably, these objectives speak to the normative practices of research associations in advancing field research; facilitating communication and information exchange; disseminating and leveraging for better or more effective use of research knowledge; and fostering interactions or networking for professional development and ultimately the growth or well-being of the research community.

Like most organizational change, the unifying sense of WCTR and ECTR merging into TRA was identifiable in several ways. For example, members of either WCTR or ECTR could automatically share in the rights of the other with regard to mailings, publications, attendances at meetings, and

membership dues. In addition, both WCTR and ECTR need to change their previous designation of their chief officers (e.g., from president and vice president to chairman and vice chairman) and begin to embrace a joint governing body of TRA with an executive committee composed of officers from both councils. Nevertheless, in the initial stage after the merge, the sense of two bodies was still visible. For example, both WCTR and ECTR were still in existence after the merging, and members could choose to be affiliated with one or the other. Most distinctively, for the first few years after the merger, the new TRA had two headquarters (the eastern office at ECTR headquarter and the western office at the WCTR headquarter). Moreover, although membership in TRA was open to all organizations and individuals who indicated an intention to support the aim of the organization and followed the procedures of application, actual recruitments of new members and renewals (e.g., application and acceptance) were performed through the two separate offices. Arguably, such an organizational structure of a merger on the basis of two councils in its initial stage was a foregoing sign of the forthcoming structure of the new association with local/regional chapters.

Not surprisingly, a major re-structuring was noted in its second annual conference in Snowmass-at-Aspen (August 15-18, 1971), in which this merger association adopted new by-laws resulting in a complete merger of WCTR and ECTR. According to a report released in the Fall issue of the Travel Research Bulletin (TTRA, 1971a), the new by-laws called for the dissolution of WCTR and ECTR and strongly encouraged and supported the development of local/regional chapters. Interestingly, the association has also slightly amended its name, and the acronym TTRA (standing for "The Travel Research Association") was used for the first time.

While the missions and objectives have remained unchanged, this re-structuring has, in every way, brought this merger association in closest proximity to its current shape. For example, while the association is open to all interested organizations or individuals, membership with its dues is in direct affiliation with the association, and is distinguished in four categories (e.g., organizational, educational, allied, and international members with a due of the then US currency of $75, $45, and $35 respectively). In addition, the new by-laws also stipulated the officers of the association as consisting of a president, a first vice president, a second vice president, a treasurer, a chairman of the board, an executive secretary, and nine members of the board of directors; the job responsibilities of each were also defined (TTRA, 1971a, pp.10-11). More importantly, in terms of organizational structure and community growth, an initial definition of local/regional chapters and their relationships with TTRA was provided (TTRA, 1971a, p.11).

With these and its inaugural board of officers in place (TTRA, 1970, p.2 and 1971b, p.2), the newly re-structured association was well on its way to developing itself as a professional leader in travel research in North America and subsequently in the world. Anecdotally, from the programs and highlights (TTRA, 1970,1971b), it is notable that the inaugural and second TTRA annual conferences were highly comparable to a more recent TTRA annual gathering in terms of scope and profile. Also, as is indicated in the Winter 1981 cover page of *Journal of Travel Research*, TTRA incorporated "tourism" into the association name, as, from then on, this acronym has become the short form of "Travel and Tourism Research Association" as it is commonly taken today in the research community. In parallel to this growth, the quarterly publication of the association periodical has also shifted from *WCTR Bulletin* (1962-70), to *TRA Travel Research Bulletin* (1970-71/72), and to *Journal of Travel Research* (since 1972). In addition, local chapters in the early stage were developed to cover states or North American regions such as Canada, New York, Florida, California, Texas, and the Washington Metropolitan Area. Despite its short take-off and the loss of steering members in the critical years of merging (JTR, 1973a, p.14; TTRA, 1971c, p.6), the role of TTRA in facilitating research communications and political use of travel research, as was documented by Goeldner (1970/71) and JTR (1973b), has been remarkable.

2.5.3 The Current Structure

As noted earlier, TTRA as a national travel research organization has been around for 37 years serving not only the North American but also the international tourism research community. Arguably, while its missions of advancing field research and serving the research community have largely remained unchanged, the association is currently involved in a wider spectrum of activities and services to fulfill an expanded series of objectives such as mobilizing resources for the advancement in tourism research; facilitating communication, networking and information exchange; committing to professional development through education and research programs; and promoting the application of research and leveraging the impacts of knowledge in travel and tourism.

In its current status, TTRA has nine chapters (i.e., Canada, Hawaii, Europe, Central States, South Eastern, South Central, Texas, Greater Western, and California University of Pennsylvania chapters), with an affiliation of over 700 active members from research and educational institutions, convention and visitor bureaus, marketing research associates, and various sectors of the travel and tourism industry. Also by the current standards, the association has assumed an international leadership role in the tourism research community. Not only does its membership cover more than 40 countries or

regions, the association has also developed international chapters and is planning to further the development of its international visibility. Both its annual international and chapter conferences are core activities of TTRA research communications. In addition, the association provides a series of communication forums and/or publications (e.g., newsletters, websites, electronic outlets such as e-RTR, proceedings, association journals, and research agendas and handbooks) for its members to support the growth and development of tourism professionals.

The association is currently run by a Board of Directors that consists of 21 executive members (as of website posting in December 2006). Among these executives, five are university-based tourism academics, seven from CVBs and government tourism offices, another five from travel and marketing research associates or consultants, two from the industry, and two working in the daily capacity of executive director or manager of the association. Geographically, the board of directors are still strongly represented by the United States, with only two from outside North America and one from Canada. While such a composition is clearly related to the origin and the geographical focus of TTRA, the capacity of the board in directing the growth of TTRA as an international association of tourism research and marketing professionals should be acknowledged. In fact, one of its on-going tasks is the development and implementation of a strategic plan for TTRA for the period of 2004 to 2008, in which the association has identified five strategic priorities for its growth: 1) business services, 2) networking, 3) communications, 4) education services, and 5) advocacy. Of particular relevance to this thesis research are its priorities on communications and networking. Based on the previous review of literature pertinent to discussions on a scientific community, communications and networking are essential to the capacity-building and healthy growth of a research community.

In sum, this thesis research aims at examining the tourism research community through a case study of a tourism research association; TTRA is chosen for an in-depth analysis to fulfill this research purpose. The study is designed around three objectives and six research questions which are informed by scholarly literature from both tourism research and studies on the scientific community. Specifically, these objectives are:

1) To examine the role of TTRA in the capacity-building of an applied tourism research community through professional/research networking.
2) To examine the role of TTRA in the capacity-building of an applied tourism research community through professional/research communications.
3) To understand the chapter structure of TTRA in facilitating the building of the association as an applied tourism research community.

To implement this thesis research, six questions are asked.

1) What are the factors that facilitate or deter the formation of professional/research networks among TTRA members?
2) How do professional/research networks contribute to (or are perceived to have contributed to) the capacity-building and growth of TTRA as an applied tourism research community?
3) What are the factors that facilitate or deter professional/research communications among TTRA members?
4) How do professional/research communications contribute to (or are perceived to have contributed to) the capacity-building and growth of TTRA as an applied tourism research community?
5) How does TTRA's chapter structure facilitate or deter member communications and networking in the building of the association as an applied tourism research community?
6) What are the implications of this case study for the tourism research community in general and for TTRA in the planning and development of communication and networking strategies in particular?

2.6 Chapter Summary and Research Implications

This chapter presents the context for the subsequent examination and discussion on the development and growth of the tourism research community. The review incorporates prior studies on scientific communities from sociological and organization planning perspectives. The theoretical and methodological aspects of utilization research are also covered in this review, as the well-being of a research community is related in every way to the mobilization and leveraging of research knowledge for its individual and organizational members. Building on prior research, the review highlights the role of professional communications and social and knowledge networks in the capacity-building of a research community. To bring empirical substance to such a conceptualization, this thesis research is implemented in the context of a tourism research association through a census of its members.

As an applied field of multidisciplinary research, the characteristics and state-of-the-art of tourism research are also presented in the above review. Interestingly, unlike traditional disciplines such as physics, geography or sociology whose scientific communities are generally characterized by "vertical growth" in terms of having more and more specialties under the parent disciplines, the tourism research community as a new multidisciplinary field is distinct with "a horizontal pattern" of growth in that it embraces a variety of disciplines and disciplinary methodologies in its scrutiny. In

some way, this thesis research has theoretical implications in examining the validity and relevance of the concepts or theories originally developed from the studies of traditional disciplinary communities.

As the association for this case study, TTRA is presented as a North America-based international association of tourism research and marketing professionals. The review traces its origins and early history, and identifies the links of its current shape with its historical growth and contexts. This part of the review is concluded with the objectives and questions that the thesis research attempts to address.

This research has both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the study contributes to scholarly discussions on scientific communities. Previous theories and concepts on scientific communities are extended and applied to the young and applied multidisciplinary community of tourism research through a case study of TTRA. In view of the substantive context, findings from this study also contribute to the state-of-the-art literature of tourism research and scholarship. On the practical side, the research has resulted in a number of recommendations for the planning and development of tourism research associations. Specifically, in relation to TTRA, these recommendations are of practical value for its planning and development as a tourism research association.

Chapter 3
Methodology

Considering research associations as the surrogate of a research community among the producers and users of research information has methodological advantages for an in-depth investigation of scientific communication and networking among its members. In tourism, for example, research associations provide a readily available sample of researchers for study. They also have an explicit sense of identity and membership, articulated missions, and, very often, strategic plans for future development. Associations also serve a variety of functions related to the promulgation of a sense of community such as continuity and communication among the members.

Case study methodology has often been adopted in researching social and professional organizations. As Landry, Amara and Lamari (2001, p.339) put it in their recent review, case study is one of the three major approaches—the other two being citation analyses and surveys—to assessing dissemination, knowledge use, and the impacts of research on users of scientific information. In addition, the association of case study methodology with diffusion of innovation, knowledge mobilization and networking, and organizational learning has been strong (Dunn, 1980, 1983b; Moore, Jefferson & Crosse, 1991; Yin, 1981a, 1981b, 1999, 2003b; Yin, Bateman & Moore, 1985; Yin & Gwaltney, 1981; Yin & Moore, 1988). Epistemologically, due to the vantage of this approach as "the study of the particular" (Stake, 2000, p.438), case study methodology encompasses the nature, historical backgrounds, physical/geographical settings, as well as socio-cultural contexts of a specific case, all of which, from a social organizational standpoint, provide a useful and valid perspective on examining the role of research associations in the capacity-building of a research community.

TTRA is chosen as the association for a case study of tourism research and marketing professionals. The implementation of this research involves the review and consultation of secondary sources pertinent to the studies of a research community (particularly those on tourism as an applied research community) to inform the research questions and research design, as well as communication and contacts with TTRA executives to establish good will for gaining support or access to the association for this study. Primary data collection is completed through an online census of TTRA members; a series of hypotheses are postulated to guide data analysis. In view of the nature of this research and the types of objectives and questions the study addresses, attempts to the effect of "peer debriefing" (Creswell, 2003, p. 196) or quasi "investigator triangulations" (Patton, 1990, p. 187) are

made at a later stage of the research through submitting an executive summary, with recommendations, to the association's executives and interested individuals among its members (Appendix 4). This chapter covers a review of case study as a comprehensive research strategy, a discussion on its recent use in tourism research, and a detailed description of the case study design and implementation specific to this thesis research.

3.1 Case Study as a Research Strategy

Case studies have long been a topic of interest in the methodological literature. In an historical review of this approach, Platt (1992) observed a rise (in the 1930s) and fall (during World War II) of its earlier use and a revival of interest in this approach since the late 60s and early 70s. In his critique of this renewed interest, Platt (1992, p.41) suggested that case study as a research strategy has grown out of the methodological traditions of both qualitative and quantitative inquiries such as the grounded theory approach and the logic of experimental designs. More recently, Yin (1981b, 2003a) observed that the use of case studies has been high and increasing over the years in social sciences research. In terms of disciplinary or field coverage, methodological texts have noted that this approach was frequently found in anthropology, psychology, sociology, political science, social work, business/marketing, organizational research, community studies, innovation and technological changes, life histories of individual or families, industrial relations, education, law enforcement, public health, planning and development, and even program evaluation (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2002; Gilgun, 1994; Yin, 1981b, 2003a, 2003b).

Over the years, the strengths and weaknesses of case study designs have caught the attention of methodologists. As noted above, Stake (2000) referred to the vantage of this approach as "the study of the particular" (p.438), which encompasses the nature, historical backgrounds, physical settings as well as socio-cultural contexts of a specific case. However, it was also noted that learning from particular case(s) inevitably reflects the researchers' values and perspectives in the (re)construction of case knowledge. Issues such as comparison, triangulation, description versus interpretation, and generalization are often perceived as typical challenges in its implementation. In a critical reflection of its use in social sciences research, Stoecker (1991) concluded, "that the case study approach has been wrongly maligned…and that it is the best way by which we can refine general theory and apply effective interventions in complex situations" (p.109). In addition, the pros and cons of using case studies were also elaborated in other methodological discussions (Campbell, 1961, 1975; Gummesson, 1991; McClintock et al., 1979; Rose, 1991; Yin, 1981a, 1981b, 2003a, 2003b).

Methodological texts have demonstrated the effective use of this strategy through the differentiation of various types of case studies. Eckstein (1975) categorized the variations of this approach into configurative-idiographic studies, disciplined-configurative studies, heuristic case studies, plausibility probes, and crucial-case studies. From a functionalist perspective, Yin (2003a) proposed a typology of exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory case studies, each of which is defined as an effective research tool in situations that are too complex for other research strategies. In terms of topical focus, he noted that case study applications cover contexts as diverse as decision-making, individual behaviour, organizational operations, processes, programs, community development and neighbourhood dynamics, institutional structures and actions, as well as current events.

Technically, in terms of its scope, a case study is defined as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (Yin, 2003a, p.13). It was further stated that such an inquiry "copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there are more variables of interest than data points (i.e. the number of cases), …and as a result, [it] benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis" (pp.13-14). In other words, the case study approach comprises an all-encompassing method, covering the logic of design, data collection techniques, and specific approaches to data analysis. In this sense, case study is not merely a data collection tactic or an analytic method. It is a comprehensive research strategy or framework of design (Dufour & Fortin, 1992; Platt, 1992).

As a research strategy, case study is contrasted with experimental or quasi-experimental designs, which "deliberately divorce a phenomenon from its context so that attention can be focused on a few variables" (Yin, 1981b, p.98). In addition, case study is differentiated from history or historiography in that the latter involves special ways of verifying documents and artefacts in dealing with non-contemporary events when techniques such as participant observations, direct measurements, or interviews cannot be used as corroboratory evidence. However, in view of its frequent use of secondary/archival documents as data, case study overlaps with history or historiography in the documentation of historical or contemporary events.

In terms of situations and types of questions addressed, case study is recommended when "how or why questions are being asked about a contemporary set of events, over which the investigator has little or no control" (Yin, 2003a, p.9). As was also noted by Hartley (1994), case study allows for

"processual, contextual and generally longitudinal analysis of the various actions and meanings which take place and which are constructed within specific social or organizational contexts" (p.212).

3.1.1 Design and Methodological Procedures of Case Study Research

A research design is the logic that links the data to be collected and conclusions to be drawn to the initial research questions (Babbie, 1986). Yin (2003a) suggested that case study research designs need to be developed in the maximization of four conditions in terms of validity and reliability (Table 3-1).

Table 3-1. Case Study Tactics for Four Design Tests

Tests	Case study tactic	Phase of research in which tactic occurs
Construct validity	• Use multiple sources of evidence • Establish chain of evidence • Have key informants review draft case study report	• Data collection • Data collection • Composition
Internal validity	• Do pattern-matching • Do explanation-building • Address rival explanations. • Use logic models	• Data analysis • Data analysis • Data analysis • Data analysis
External validity	• Use theory in single-case studies • Use replication logic in multiple-case studies	• Research design • Research design
Reliability	• Use case study protocol • Develop case study database	• Data collection • Data collection

(Source: Yin, 2003a, p.34)

While the quality of case study research can be checked through specific tactics that correspond to different inquiry stages, validity and reliability concerns apply equally throughout a case study research process, regardless of single, comparative, or multiple case designs. As noted earlier, its strengths and weaknesses in research designs have been central to methodological discussions (Campbell, 1961, 1975; Gummesson, 1991; McClintock et al., 1979; Rose, 1991; Yin, 1981b, 2003a). For example, Campbell (1961) was initially very pointed in his criticism of case study designs, which he thought were inevitably problematic in the interpretability of results; however, in later years, he shifted his views on case studies to recognize the capacity of such designs to either build or reject theories. Yin (2003a), on the other hand, built a rather strong argument while accounting for the rationale of doing single-case studies. He proposes the use of critical, extreme/unique, representative/typical, revelatory, and/or longitudinal cases in such case study designs.

In principle, data collection for a case study is relatively straight-forward. Case study methodologists have outlined a series of procedures that can be employed in a variety of contexts. These include tasks such as the training or skill preparation of investigators, the development of case study instruments or protocols, the conduct of pilot case studies, and the actual implementation of a case study research plan. These steps are suggested in order for case study data collection (usually from multiple sources and by various means) to triangulate on the "fact" or the set of pre-specified research questions.

3.1.2 Analysis and Theory Building in Case Study Research

Methodological literature suggests that defining priorities for what to analyze should be among the first set of considerations while doing secondary data analysis prior to empirical case study research. In analyzing case study data, for example, Yin (2003a) proposed three strategies (i.e., relying on theoretical propositions, setting up frameworks based on rival explanations, and developing case study descriptions) and five specific techniques (i.e., pattern matching, explanation building, time-series analysis, logical models, and cross-case synthesis). In a state-of-the-art research on building theories from case study methodology, Eisenhardt (1989, p.533) developed a systematic process with a series of steps to watch for while doing analysis.

With the more recent increase of literature on case study methodology (Hamel, 1992; Platt, 1992; Stake, 2000; Stoecker, 1991), the stereotypical view that this approach is generally atheoretical has changed over the years. For example, compared to his earlier criticisms, Campbell (1975) admitted in later publications, "the intensive cross-cultural case study has a discipline and a capacity to reject (and perhaps to build) theories which are neglected in my caricature of the method" (p.182). He further commented on the extended presentation of evidence through case study research as "crucial to scientific evaluation" (Campbell, no date, p. ix). Moreover, Hartley (1994, p.211) also noted that, the case study method can be distinguished by its approach to theory-building and testing, which tends generally (but not exclusively) to be inductive. The opportunity to explore issues in depth and in their contexts means that theory development or testing can occur through the systematic piecing together of detailed evidence to generate (or perhaps replicate) theories of more general interest.

While this approach may also result in overly narrow, idiosyncratic, or complex theories that are sometimes against the principle of parsimony, Eisenhardt (1989) concluded that case study research has three strengths in the building and/or testing of theories: 1) its likelihood of generating novel theories, 2) the testability of its emergent theories or hypotheses, and 3) the likelihood of empirical

validation of resultant theories. However, it should be pointed out that the process of replication or generalization in case study means the generalization of findings into theories rather than generalizing from one case to another, as is often associated with the sampling logic (Yin, 2003a, p.38). Arguably, in terms of theory development, the replication logic applies to both single and comparative or multiple case designs.

Indeed, due to its incorporation of ontological and epistemic considerations in its design logic, Hamel (1992) succinctly concluded from a sociological perspective that "the case study approach embodies undoubted theoretical and methodological qualities…It is certainly the approach in which the specifying of a move from one epistemic form to another is ensured under ideal conditions, because of the depth of the description which characterizes this method…In this sense, the case method may thus be considered as a cornerstone of the new theoretical and methodological strategies for sociology" (p.7).

In short, case study is recognized as a serious research strategy. As a result of its widespread use, methodological discussions on its applications can also be found in a variety of social sciences fields such as public administration (Agranoff & Radin, 1991), technology transfer (Moore, et al., 1991), and health services (Yin, 1999). This review aims at extending such methodological discussions onto the field of tourism, particularly as an approach to examining the tourism research community through (or in the context of) a tourism research association.

3.2 Case Study in Tourism Research

Tourism research has often been criticized as case- or place-specific studies, which is stereotypically perceived as atheoretical or of limited scientific value. Nonetheless, criticism of case study as a valid or rigorous method in tourism research should be evaluated according to what is actually done in a case study; how it is implemented, analyzed and reported; and the specific circumstances under which it is conducted. Recently, Xiao and Smith (2006c) reported a state-of-the-art analysis of case studies in tourism research with respect to issues such as 1) themes and topics, 2) case specificity in research purposes, objectives and questions, 3) authorship characteristics, 4) place specificity of research, 5) time specificity of research, 6) case study research designs, 7) methodological procedures, and 8) generalization or discussions of findings in the context of literature. Based on published research in the recent volumes of *Annals of Tourism Research*, *Journal of Travel Research*, *Tourism Analysis*, and *Tourism Management*, their study finds that the stereotypical criticism of case studies in tourism

research is not justified and that this research approach has contributed to the production of knowledge in this field.

3.2.1 Themes and Objectives of Case Study Research

In the tourism literature, case studies are often used as a method in the treatment of a wide range of themes or topics, and adopted for the fulfillment of case specific purposes or objectives. For example, this approach is most often seen in research pertaining to tourism development, planning, and community perceptions of or reactions to the impacts of tourism. It is also frequently used to address themes or topics such as alternative forms of tourist experience, career and professional development, destination marketing or image, segmentation or tourist markets, cultural and heritage tourism, host-guest relations, as well as the management and operation of the tourism industries or sectors. In addition, case studies in tourism research are also designed to fulfill case-/place-specific purposes in terms of the stated or proposed objectives or research questions directly related to the site or locality of study. The reported analysis indicates that, in general, case-/place-specificity in purpose/objective statements of tourism case studies are attributable to factors such as the nature or type of research, its funding bodies, and a varying degree of elaborations characterized by different authors or methodological approaches.

3.2.2 Authorship of Case Study Research

Franklin and Crang (2001) believed that the association of tourism research as the production of case studies has to do with the background of its researchers. Based on the aforementioned analysis of case studies in tourism, a number of authorship characteristics of case studies in the tourism literature can be summarized as follows.

First, authors publishing case studies in tourism journals are often academics affiliated with colleges, universities or research institutions. Second, in terms of academic departments or faculties, case study authors are often housed in tourism, hospitality, and recreation and leisure studies departments, followed by economics, business, marketing and management, geography and environmental studies, and other disciplinary backgrounds or fields such as education, information technology, and public administration. Third, in terms of single versus joint productions of case studies, it was found that the instances of co- or joint-authorship have been high, which is a reflection of the extensive time or prolonged efforts needed for case study research. This is also related to circumstances pertinent to communications and networks in the research community such as research

team of a project, or mentoring relationships between research graduates and supervisors. Fourth, in terms of geographical distributions of tourism case study authors, Anglophone countries or regions are found to dominate, while in the meantime, a substantial proportion of case study authorship from non-English-speaking communities is also noted.

3.2.3 Research Design of Case Studies

The reported analysis also examined geographical scales, time points of observations (or time specificity), and the use (or number) of cases in the research design of tourism case studies. First, in terms of geographical scale and distributions of study sites, case studies in tourism often fall into either the small or the large-scale category, while this method is less frequently seen at the medium geographical scale. However, as the researchers admitted, the grouping of case studies into different categories of geographical scales—depending on administrative boundaries and spatial coverage of a case study research—has its limitations. One of these is related to the choice of organizations as case study sites. To illustrate, for an organization with a national or international coverage of its business, questions may arise as to whether a case study of such an organization should be regarded as a large-scale investigation in terms of business coverage, or whether it is more appropriate to see it as the study of a site in terms of its physical location.

While it is not possible to infer that case study research at the smaller range is easier to implement or manage than at the larger ones, the frequency of instances identified in this state-of-the-art analysis indicates that case study research in tourism tends to have a local focus. It is found that these case studies covered a wide variety of locations or geographical areas with local focuses in different countries or regions. Results on place specificity of case studies in tourism also suggest a dominance of Anglophone locations or regions, which is consistent with another observation on the geographical coverage of articles' subjects in a social sciences journal (Xiao & Smith, 2006a).

Second, in terms of the number of time points researchers use for data collection, case studies in tourism research are found to have frequently adopted one-time or cross-sectional approaches. A small number of instances can be regarded as longitudinal in their utilization of two or multiple time points for observation or data collection. These researchers explain that the frequent use of one time point in data collection for case studies is attributable to any of a number of reasons prevalent in the research community such as budget constraints, report deadlines, or the researcher's choice of paradigms in the case of an ethnographer's need for a prolonged engagement with a study site versus a quicker, one time survey.

Third, the use of cases or number of cases observed is an essential consideration in case study research design (Yin, 2003a). In tourism, the state-of-the-art analysis of its case studies suggests that about 70% of the published case study research have followed a single-case design. Only a small number of research adopted either two/comparative or multiple case designs.

As noted above, while some methodologists tended to favour multiple-case designs over a single-case study, especially in the sense of replication logic (Campbell, 1975), Xiao and Smith (2006c) believe that it can be one-sided to suggest that one-case designs are without merit. For example, Yin (2003a) has argued for the importance of doing unique case studies involving extreme, rare, critical, and/or revelatory cases. In the meantime, multiple case designs are not necessarily free of disadvantages, especially in the requirement of extensive resources and time, which is often beyond the means of a single or independent researcher. In addition, it should be noted that the choice of a particular research design could be seen as a matter of the research purposes or research questions of a specific project. From a disciplinary perspective, it is not uncommon to consider multiple case studies as a different methodology from single-case designs. For example, while the affinity or relationships of multiple case designs to comparative studies in anthropology and political science has long been established, methodological literature noted that these disciplines or fields tend to develop one set of rationales for doing single-case studies and a second or separate set for doing what has been considered comparative (i.e., multiple-case) studies (Eckstein, 1975; George, 1979; Lijphart, 1975). Again, the purpose here is to reveal what is found from this sample of case studies, rather than to evaluate on which is a/the better design for case study research in tourism.

3.2.4 Methodological Procedures and Reports of Case Study Research

The analysis of methodological implementations and presentation of case study reports has yielded a number of findings. First, from the perspective of data collection, there is a fairly spread-out usage of single source, two sources and multiple sources for case study research in tourism. In terms of the actual ways or methods of data collecting, secondary data (e.g., archival/statistical documents, government reports, and news articles) and surveys were most often used in the reported instances of tourism case studies, followed by interviews, while focus groups and other methods such as participant or on-site observations were less frequently seen from the sample of tourism case studies. However, it is important to also note that, very often, a case study may adopt several collection methods such as a combination of secondary data with surveys and interviews, which is particularly true for those case studies that rely on two or multiple sources.

Second, in terms of the description of methodological procedures, an estimate was made with respect to the approximate length devoted to the description of method and/or data collections. Again, results suggest that the majority of published case studies in tourism journals bore a limited-to-moderate description of methodological procedures. However, this should not be taken as a the-longer-the-merrier issue. Academic readers are largely familiar with journal policies and/or length restrictions on acceptable manuscripts in their fields, of which the situation of case study research in tourism can well be a reflection.

In terms of analytic techniques or styles of presentation, the reported analysis found that approximately half of their selected case-study instances were quantitative reports with statistical tables, figures, and occasionally econometric equations or formulas. Thirty-seven percent of the reports are distinctly qualitative, which are often characterized by thick descriptions, historical accounts, and/or ethnographic narratives, with information-rich texts or extensive quotes from key informant interviews. Thirteen percent used a mixed approach in their style of report writing as seen in their published reports.

Specifically, analytic techniques used in tourism case studies vary. On the quantitative side, the most frequently used techniques were descriptive statistics, factor analysis, ANOVA, regression, spatial analysis/GIS-ArcView, t-test, chi-square, and econometrics. Qualitative features are accordingly represented by thick description, historical approaches, narratives/stories, grounded theory induction, ethnographic accounts, and textual or content analyses.

The content analysis has also reported the extent of generalizations of case study findings in the broader contexts of literature cited by the selected tourism authors. The reported study has adopted the categories of "limited, moderate, and elaborated" to indicate the presence or absence and length of generalized discussions based on approximate estimates in terms of number of words. It was found that limited (< 500 words), moderate (500-1000 words), and elaborated (>1000 words) discussions have each covered about one third of the selected case studies published in the four tourism journals. However, similar to the above observation on the extent of descriptions on methodological procedures, it is also important to note that lengths of discussions and conclusions may be a reflection of journal policies or length restrictions, other than theoretical contributions or generalizations from a case study research in tourism.

3.2.5 Case Studies as Theory-Building

In general, case study methodology has been used to address a variety of subjects or issues in tourism. In particular, it is frequently used as a method to address broader or more holistic subjects such as tourism planning and development. In terms of research designs and implementation, case studies in tourism often focus on small geographical locales, adopt one-time points for data collection, and limit themselves to single cases. Various data collection methods and analytic techniques were found in use. Their reporting styles embrace qualitative, quantitative and mixed approaches, with varying degrees of richness in their descriptions of methodological procedures and their discussions in the contexts of literature.

As noted above, tourism research is often criticized as being dominated by case studies, which are stereotyped as atheoretical, area-specific, idiosyncratic, and with faulty or weak methods. While it is not the intent of this review to argue or defend that tourism research is in a better state than as characterized by these stereotypes, it is fair to conclude that the stereotypes of case studies in tourism are not justified and that the consequences and implications of such observations upon the field should be interpreted with caution. Although case studies often have clear case-related/area-specific objectives or purposes, the majority of tourism case studies have followed rigorous research procedures. Arguably, it should be concluded that case study is not only a frequently used but also a highly useful and much needed approach in tourism research.

From a research evaluation perspective, Eckstein (1975, p.86) outlined a bipolar scheme to the scrutiny of theory or theory building through case studies. On the hard end of the spectrum are theories characterized by critical traits such as 1) concepts defined precisely in terms of empirical referents which are intended to abstract characteristics (rather than to describe phenomena) for formulating general propositions, 2) connected sets of propositions that are either axioms (assumptions) or theorems deducted from concepts, 3) logical consistencies or correspondence of propositions to observations of phenomena or empirical import, and 4) empirical tests of propositions. On the soft end of the spectrum, Eckstein (1975) argued:

> Theory is simply regarded as any mental construct that orders phenomena or inquiry into them. This qualifies as theory many quite diverse constructs, including classificatory schemes that assign individual cases to more or less general classes, 'analytic' schemes that decompose complex phenomena into their common elements, frameworks and checklists for conducting inquiry, any empirical patterns found in properly processed data, or anything considered to underlie such patterns (pp.86-87).

To align against this evaluation scheme, in terms of the former, for example, case studies in tourism research and indeed tourism research in general still have a long way to go to achieve theoretical status. Yet, in terms of the latter, it seems reasonable to suggest that the case study approach has contributed considerably to tourism research and scholarship.

Arguably, the assumption that case studies are atheoretical has to do with what is meant by theory in different disciplines or to different field researchers. From the standpoint of classical economics, for example, the term "theory" usually connotes a set of principles, based on empirical evidence, that provides reliable, consistent, and verifiable predictions about the functioning of some systems or phenomena (Myrdal, 1932). In such a context, theory is not simply a model or a set of hypotheses, it is the formal articulation of cause-and-effect relationships that have been verified repeatedly, and that reveal insights into how the system of a phenomenon actually functions. From such a strictly disciplinary perspective, one might argue that the term "theory" is often used inconsistently in young multi-disciplinary fields such as tourism, and recreation and leisure studies, and that despite frequent debates on theoretical advancements (Kaplan, 1997; Valentine, *et al*., 1999), there is not much theory in these fields.

In contrast, in the evaluation of theoretical advances of tourism research from a sociological perspective, theory can also be defined as a conceptual framework for understanding, explanation, and prediction in which theoretical advance is taken to mean the synthetic outcome of a dialectical exchange of ideas (Dann, et al., 1988; Dann, 2001). In line with this argument, critical theorists and constructivists such as Bruner (1994, 1999) would prefer to emphasize only the understanding component of a theory, arguing that interpretation overrides a more neo-positivist preoccupation with causality. As Bruner (1999) noted, "social theory both reflects and is constitutive of changes in the world…It does not regard earlier work as totally discontinuous with the present or as fatally compromised politically, or as subversive of truth. It charts where we were and where we are going" (p.462). Therefore, as Dann (2005) pointed out, it would be misleading to simply give either an affirmative or negative answer as to whether a foregoing theoretical contribution is still as valid today as it was when it was initially articulated, as in the case of MacCannell's (1976) *The Tourist* and Urry's (1990) *The Tourist Gaze,* both of which are arguably ethnographic case studies related to Paris of the 60s and 70s and the UK of the 80s respectively.

With respect to the role of case study research in theory development in particular, it can be inferred from previous state-of-the-art analyses that confusions or a lack of consensus still exist with regard to the replication versus the sampling logic in tourism case studies. This is especially true in

the use of single versus comparative or multiple case designs when the essential question has to do with the number of cases deemed necessary or sufficient for a case study. As is suggested in the above methodological reviews, a study with a limited number of cases or replications is not necessarily less articulate in theory building, nor do multiple case designs necessarily lead to a guaranteed development of theory. From the perspective of substantive theory generation in a field, Glaser and Strauss (1967) have had a classic elaboration on the methodological aspect of constant comparisons, which are often characterized by case studies. By the same token, Eisenhardt (1989) also observed that the assessment of theory building from case study research depends as much upon the concepts, frameworks, or propositions emerging from the process, as upon the empirical issues such as the strength of the method and the evidence grounding the theory. On these observations and based on the review of case studies in tourism, it is imperative that future discussions on case study research in this field be carried on with a different focus. To align against these state-of-the-art discussions on case study as a research strategy, this thesis research—a case study of a tourism research association—aims at contributing from an organizational perspective to the case study literature in tourism.

3.3 A Case Study of the Travel and Tourism Research Association

This study of TTRA as a research community is built on this researcher's interest in tourism research and scholarship, and the supervisor/supervising committee's familiarity with and involvement in the case study association. Additionally, as noted earlier, the nature and structure of TTRA make it a typical case of an applied research community. This thesis research follows an embedded single-case design with multiple levels/units of analysis (Yin, 2003a). Data collection involves review and consultation of secondary sources and documents, as well as an online questionnaire survey of TTRA members. In sequence, knowledge of and perspectives from the former inform the design and development of the latter. The empirical data are collected through a census of the membership and analyzed and presented in triangulation with secondary sources and previous TTRA surveys. Validity and generalizability of the study findings are also noted at the design stage of the research.

3.3.1 An Embedded Single-case Design

A research design is a plan that provides a logical sequence or connections among major components such as purpose and objectives, conceptualization and contexts, research questions, methods and data, and ultimately conclusions or validity of findings in a proposed research (Maxwell, 1996). In

particular reference to case study design, it is referred to as a "blueprint" for research implementation and data collection. For this thesis research, the idea of using tourism research associations as a case study originally began with a comparative or multiple case design, that is, a comparative study of two or more associations such as AIEST, APTA, CAUTHE, and/or TTRA, in which the replication logic explicitly applies from one case study organization (or site) to another. A further understanding of the diversity of these associations—particularly after communicating the research idea with two TTRA presidents and getting a sense of the complication in obtaining access to different tourism research associations—suggests that comparative or multiple case designs are beyond the resources of this thesis research and may be impractical in terms of getting access to members of multiple associations. Further, the scope of data collection and analysis associated with a multiple (or even a double) case design would limit the potential for an in-depth investigation due to potential superficiality of findings resulting from uncontrollable or unforeseeable factors.

The decision on using one association for this case study was made after TTRA Canada conference in October 2006. Because of the current structure of TTRA as one overall brand with chapter units, the research ideally follows a single-case design with embedded or multiple levels/units of analysis. In a two-by-two matrix of case study design typology (Table 3-2), Yin (2003a, pp.39-53) contrasts single versus multiple case designs by holistic (single unit of analysis) versus embedded or multiple units of analysis. While a holistic single-case design examines the global nature of a case study organization (program or site) with one unit of analysis, an embedded single-case design is characterized by an organization (or case study site) that involves a number of sub-entities or embedded units (p.42). This describes TTRA in its current structure. In contrast, the difference between the two variants of multiple-case designs (holistic versus embedded) is largely dictated by research objectives and questions derived from (or designed for) different contexts, in which a multiple-case design will typically call for separate data collections at each distinct case study organization (or site) due to different contexts (p.52).

Table 3-2. Basic Types of Designs for Case Studies

	Single-case designs	Multiple-case designs
Holistic (single unit)	❖ One case within one context ❖ Single unit within the case	❖ More/different cases, each within a different context ❖ Single unit within each of the cases
Embedded (multiple units)	❖ One case within one context ❖ Embedded/multiple units within the case	❖ More/different cases, each within a different context ❖ Embedded/multiple units within each of the cases

(Source: Adapted from Yin, 2003a, p.40)

An embedded single-case design for this study is determined both by the objectives and research questions, as well as by the current structure of the case study association. In other words, the study is about TTRA as a single applied tourism research community. Data are collected through a census of TTRA members; analysis incorporates perspectives of individual members, chapters, and the association as a whole. Specifically, this single-case design involves three units of analysis. The main unit is the association as a whole as a surrogate of an applied tourism research community. The smallest unit is an individual member. In-between is the analytical unit of the chapters. The differences among chapters and the tensions between chapters and TTRA-International provide an unavoidable context for the interpretation of results, but this thesis does not intend to examine or compare chapters as the main or distinct unit of analysis. Further, the study does not aim at seeking administrative or management solutions to any of its current issues as a main goal. Rather, the purpose of this research is to examine the role of TTRA in facilitating (or deterring) member communications and networking and the creation of a sense of community through such activities. It also examines how the chapter structure serves the priorities of communication and networking, which are deemed major issues, according to TTRA's Strategic Plan, in the growth of the association as an applied research community. The relationships among the design components can be shown in the following diagram (Figure 3-1).

Research design texts typically highlight the role of theory in the planning of a research project. For example, Creswell (1994/2003) emphasizes the use of theory in both quantitative and qualitative research designs. In the former, researchers start with literature review by having a theoretical context(s) inform the formulation of research questions and the operationalization of concepts with a purpose of testing existing theories; in the latter, a design begins with theoretical sampling as a process of data collection for generating theories in which the analyst collects and analyzes her/his

data and decides what to collect next and where to find them with a purpose of developing theory as it emerges (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.45). For case studies, Yin (2003a) notes that theory development is an essential part of the design regardless of "whether an ensuing case study's purpose is to develop or test theory" (p.28).

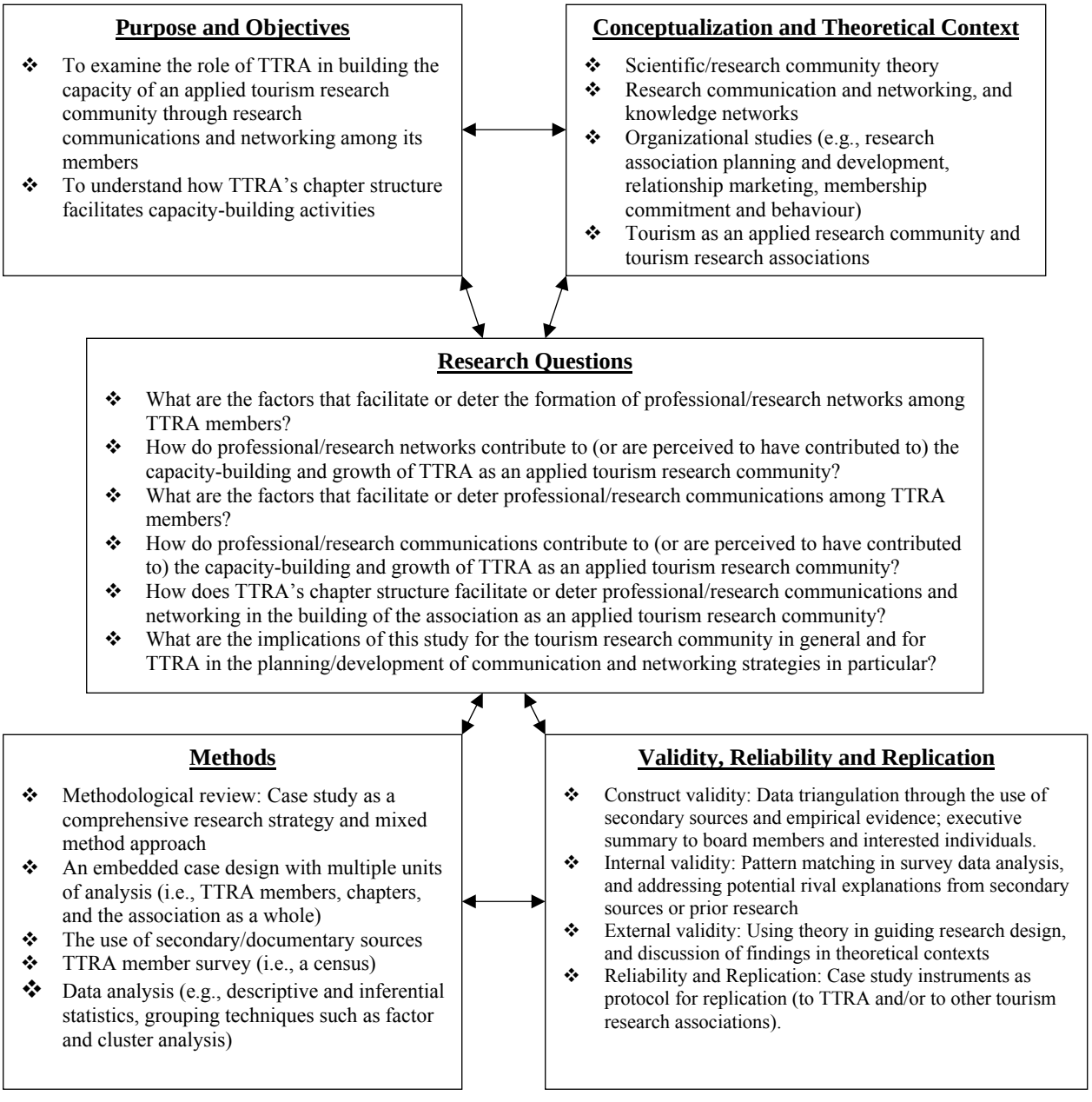


Figure 3-1. A Case Study of the TTRA: An Embedded Design

In the context of this case study design, the deductive logic applies because the research questions are informed by the literature, to be operationalized through a quantitatively-designed questionnaire, and answers to them are expected to verify existing theories about research communications and networking, and their roles in, or contributions to, capacity-building of a scientific community. The testing of theory and verification of explanations are essential in addressing external validity and potential replications of the case study design (Figure 3-1).

Both Yin (2003a, pp.30-31) and Maxwell (1996, pp.46-47) have stressed the importance of prior research and review or consultation of secondary/documentary sources in preparing for case studies. In addition to an extensive literature review for a theoretical context, these authors suggest the use of a number of tactics for case study preparations, which includes, for example, discussing the research topic or idea with colleagues and teachers and asking challenging questions such as what is to be studied, why the proposed case or site is to be used, what is assumed or to be hoped as a result of the study, and how the study can draw upon the researcher's prior experience. Arguably, many of these tactics apply in this case study of the TTRA. In the conception stage, the research idea was communicated to the association's executives, with input from both the current and the former presidents of TTRA-International. While the focus of research on communication and networking is primarily informed by the scientific literature, such a focus is also seen as very timely for the association because, according to TTRA's Strategic Plan, these are among the priority issues in the building of a marketing-oriented applied tourism research community. Moreover, this dissertation research draws substantially from the thesis committee because of their involvement in, and familiarity with, the case-study association. From the researcher's perspective, this design also benefits from himself being a member of this community with the associated access to information and some experience from prior conferences.

3.3.2 The Survey Instrument

Accordingly, following an embedded single-case design, a survey instrument for the census of TTRA members is developed (Appendix 1). The survey approach is seen as appropriate and sufficient for this case study data collection because it allows results from the survey to be generalized to the membership population. Further, it provides a consistent set of questions to be asked of all respondents, and the generally closed-ended format of the instrument (particularly the scales) supports clear analysis and comparisons of response patterns.

A number of secondary/documentary sources are consulted and used for the development of the survey instrument. Notably, this research focuses on how communication and networking among TTRA members could potentially build a more connected community of research producers and users. According to previous TTRA conference reports, records of panel discussions, and notes from academic-practitioner roundtables, communication and networking for enhanced provision and use of travel and tourism research have been consistently noted as issues of interest in the applied tourism research community. Take the Canada Chapter for example. In 1994, a nominal group workshop was held at the conclusion of that year's conference to identify ways in which research communication and information exchange could be improved for the tourism industry (Smith & Taylor, 1994). Conference attendees were divided into a series of panels in the workshop and the discussions focussed on four questions: 1) who needs improved research communication? 2) what are the barriers to more effective dissemination of research results? 3) what type of research results are needed? and 4) how might the barriers be overcome? The report, included in the conference proceedings, summarized a series of issues about the facilitation of research dissemination as well as issues relating to bridging the different cultures of the producers and users of research.

Subsequently, other roundtable-discussion summaries or plenary-session reports were drafted about similar issues. In 1998, a session was held during TTRA-Canada Conference with the focus on the connections of the researcher and the practitioner communities to improve communication and research use (Reid & Smith, 1998). More recently, the 2005 conference in Kelowna, British Columbia, featured a series of academic and practitioner roundtables on improving communication and networking among attendees and members of the tourism research community. An extensive list of issues and recommendations was generated through brainstorming discussions from these roundtables (Blakeman, 2005). While these summaries are limited to the Canada Chapter and while not all conference attendees are TTRA members, the issues identified and concerns expressed about research communication and professional networking serve as pointers in informing the design of the research instrument for this case study.

Another source that informs the development of the survey instrument is the TTRA Strategic Plan (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004). As mentioned earlier, a task force headed by the president was formed in 2001 to formulate a new strategic plan for TTRA-International. According to the progress report, participation in this planning exercise was a multi-staged and multi-level process that engaged executives, regular members, and chapters (or constituencies) in the discussion and collection of a

broad spectrum of issues. The revised plan was released in 2004, with its first implementation review presented in the 2005 TTRA-International Conference. Coincidentally, TTRA is currently in the process of implementing its strategic plan, with communication and networking being two of the five identified priorities in this planning period. While this case study is not an evaluation or re-assessment of the strategic plan, the issues or priorities that this plan has identified have practical implications for the development of the case study instrument. By implication, results from this research are potentially related to discussions pertaining to the roles of research communication and networking in facilitating the cohesiveness of the research community.

In addition, a number of other secondary sources that address research communication and networking more broadly in the tourism/recreation research communities in Canada and abroad are consulted. In North America, Frechtling (2004) developed a design to examine research communications through the reading of journals by members in two North American tourism communities, with samples from the TTRA and the Travel Industry Association of America.

Vaugeois, et al. (2005) reported a series of factors that facilitate or deter the transfer of knowledge from researchers to practitioners in the fields of leisure, recreation and tourism. Their data collection methods consist of both a Delphi process and workshops, with participants from the Canadian Association of Leisure Studies, TTRA, conference presenters, and managers and university faculty working in these fields.

In the UK, Pavlovcic (2005, personal communication) did a survey on the sharing of research information between destination marketing organizations. His survey looked at the means by which destination marketing organizations collect and disseminate market research information, the programs and activities that facilitate information exchange or knowledge sharing, and the positive and negative influences in making communication decisions.

In Australia, the feedback and responses of the 2005 CAUTHE conference evaluation serve as guidelines for what to look at and the discourse participants used with respect to communication and networking in a specific tourism research community (CAUTHE, 2005). From an association administration and management perspective, there are also surveys about member expectation and satisfaction such as the one conducted in 2002-2003 in TTRA-Canada (Ennamorato, 2003).

In short, although these prior studies do not provide direct questions or scales to answer the research questions raised for this study, they serve as pointers to the problems, concerns and even the

language used in discussing the issues relating to research communication and professional networking in a tourism research community. Derived from the above secondary/documentary sources, survey items deemed essential or necessary for answering the research questions are incorporated into the questionnaire design, which consists of five sections: 1) professional/research communication among TTRA members, 2) professional/research networking among TTRA members, 3) TTRA as an applied tourism research community, 4) characteristics of the respondents, and 5) final thoughts and comments (see next heading for further descriptions, or see Appendix 1 for the questionnaire). The questionnaire was revised a number of times under the guidance of the supervisor and the thesis committee. While ensuring that the survey instrument contains the items and scales needed to answer the specified research questions yet not perceivably overwhelming to any potential respondents, the questionnaire was designed to be capable of being completed in about 15-20 minutes. In the development and refining (or revision) stage, the questionnaire was sent to a small sample of people (graduate students and faculty) familiar with survey research or questionnaire design for a check of clarity and validity. Given the items being directly derived from similar substantive contexts, more aggressive pilot tests are deemed to not be needed.

The questionnaire is distributed as an online census to all TTRA members. SurveyMonkey <www.surveymonkey.com> is used as the platform for distributing the survey. This particular software allows the researcher to create a survey with a user-friendly survey editor via the user's browser of choice. It offers over a dozen types of questions (single choice, multiple choice, rating scales, drop-down menus, open-ended questions, etc.) and supports question flow control through a customizable skip logic. Respondents can exit at any time with her/his answers saved and continue from where she/he last stops. The user has control over the colours and layout of the survey. To customize this survey, the University of Waterloo logo was added at the top of each survey page. Its list-management function allows the creation of a list of respondents (by surname, first name, or email address) and the track of respondents with respect to their status, which helps the direction of subsequent email reminders to only those with a "not responded" status to avoid annoying cross-postings. Data are collected on a secure part of the SurveyMonkey website and are downloadable from a pre-registered paid account for analysis.

3.3.3 Data Collection

As noted previously, data collection for this case study involves 1) the review and consultation of secondary/documentary sources, and 2) an empirical survey of members. The rationale, sources, and

characteristics of the information solicited through these methods, as well as the time lines associated with its acquisition are shown in the following matrix (Table 3-3).

Table 3-3. Data-collection Matrix for a Case Study of the TTRA

What do I need to know?	*Why do I need to know this?*	*What kind of data will answer the questions?*	*Where can I find the data, or whom do I contact for access?*	*Time lines for data collection*
Secondary Data What are the issues related to research communication and networking in the tourism research community in general and in TTRA in particular?	To have a grasp of the issues, concerns, discourse and characteristics to inform research and instrument design for empirical data collection	❖ Secondary sources (e.g., published research and unpublished documents about or related to the case study association)	❖ Previous TTRA conference summaries and reports, strategic plans, newsletters, associations' websites, journal articles, previous surveys or instruments, similar information from/about other tourism research associations. ❖ Personal communication, previous conference experience.	❖ Collected and analyzed prior to instrument design. ❖ Ongoing for verification or discussion of findings and updating or informing changes (e.g., TTRA member survey for the formulation of its Strategic Plan, Greater Western Chapter's symposium on "How Research Drives Policy", March 22-24, 2007, Seattle Washington)
Member Survey ❖ How do TTRA members communicate and network for research purposes and research information use? ❖ What do they think of communication and networking in building the capacity of a tourism research community? ❖ How does TTRA as an association facilitate communication and networking among	❖ To examine the current state of research communication and networking between/among TTRA members. ❖ To understand TTRA members' attitudes towards or perceptions of communication and networking in relation to capacity of a research community. ❖ To assess the role and chapter structure of TTRA in facilitating research	❖ Channel/media/outlet, means/methods, activities and programs of research communication and networking among TTRA members. ❖ TTRA member perceptions of research communication and networking in relation to capacity of the tourism research community. ❖ Similarities and differences by member respondents affiliated with different chapters ❖ Demographic and occupational aspects of the survey respondents with respect to behaviour	❖ Information will be solicited from a TTRA member census through an online survey. ❖ Develop online survey using SurveyMonkey. ❖ Support of TTRA Board of Director was obtained. This provides access for the member survey and will likely enhance response rate. ❖ Assistance is solicited from TTRA secretariat to obtain email addresses of the members. Ethical issues of anonymity is not a problem with the online survey. ❖ The research receives ethic approval.	❖ Clarity and validity test of survey questionnaire with a small sample of people (graduate students and faculty) in the development and revision stage ❖ Ethic clearance from the university's office of research was received in mid April 2007. ❖ Online survey started from early May. ❖ First and second survey reminders were sent in late May and early June. ❖ The survey was cut off by mid June, with an appreciation note to all TTRA members. ❖ Address late response or non-response bias

members? ❖ What are the characteristics of the respondents by their perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour related to research communication and networking? ❖ Do such characteristics and behavioural attributes fall into clusters or typologies?	communication and networking ❖ To understand characteristics and behaviour of the respondents with respect to their research communication and networking.	and activities related to communication, networking, and research information exchange or use		

(Source: Adapted from Maxwell, 1996, p.82)

First, with respect to secondary data, various documentary sources have been consulted to inform the design of the research instruments. These include both published research and unpublished documents about or broadly related to the case study association (e.g., previous TTRA chapter conference summaries and reports, the recent strategic plan for TTRA-International, the association's newsletters and websites, journal articles, similar information from/about other tourism research associations), as well as personal communications and previous conference experiences. Most of the secondary data collection is completed and analyzed or reviewed prior to the research design, nonetheless part of the collection of such data is also ongoing as relevant information emerges during the process of research design (e.g., the Greater Western Chapter's symposium on "How Research Drives Policy", March 22-24, 2007, Seattle Washington). In addition, with the approval of this project by TTRA Board meeting (February 21, 2007), the researcher has access to previous member surveys of the same association (Ennamorato, 2003; TTRA 2006/7). While these previous surveys were conducted with a distinctly different focus, the results could serve the purpose of verification or triangulation for the analysis and discussion of findings from this case study.

Second, for the purpose of this thesis research, the questionnaire is designed to examine the current state of research communication and networking among TTRA members as well as members' attitudes towards or perceptions of communication and networking in relation to building the capacity of an applied tourism research community. The role and chapter structure of TTRA in facilitating research communication and networking, as perceived by the survey respondents, are also

incorporated in the questionnaire design. Data pertaining to the channels, media or outlets that members have used for professional/research communication; the means and methods adopted for research communication and networking; as well as activities and programs that members perceive as useful or important in building the capacity of the tourism research community are collected through the online survey distributed through SurveyMonkey.

The database generated from the survey is conducive to analyses from both individual and chapter, and academics and practitioner perspectives, e.g., to examine the relationships and differences of the variables of interest through both parametric and non-parametric tests; to explore potential factors around which respondents form clusters by their reported attributes on attitudes and behaviour in relation to research communication and networking; and to investigate potential bearings of demographic/occupational aspects of the survey respondents on attitudes, perceptions and behaviour in relation to research communication, networking and community capacity. Additional thoughts or comments not captured in the survey items are solicited through an open-ended question in the final section of the questionnaire. Subsequent analyses of the results from this survey potentially cast light on how research communication and researcher networking among TTRA members contribute to the capacity-building of the association as an applied tourism research community.

3.3.4 Data Analysis

In accordance with the types of data used for this case study, the research relies on quantitative analysis programs for interpretation. Specifically, interpretation of the empirical data involves three units of analysis (i.e., individual members, chapters, and TTRA as a whole) to reflect individual and chapter perspectives as well as undifferentiated treatment of the survey data to reflect TTRA members as an applied tourism research community. In addition, data analysis for this case study needs to address issues pertinent to validity and generalization (Table 3-4).

Table 3-4. Data-analysis Matrix for a Case Study of the TTRA

Data Type	*Program of Analysis*	*Role of the Researcher*	*Units of Analysis*			*Validity and Generalization*
			Individual	*Chapter*	*TTRA as a Whole*	
Secondary	N/A	Review of content for relevance and validity to inform design	N/A	N/A	N/A	Provide contexts for verification and discussions
		1) Code and create SPSS				1) Verification of

Survey	SPSS, with various statistical analyses	database for case study analysis (June-July, 2007) 2) Run various analyses (e.g., descriptive and inferential tests, grouping techniques such as factor/cluster analysis—see Table 3-5) and describe and interpret results (July-October, 2007) 3) Incorporate qualitative data from the open-ended survey question for verification, interpretation and/or discussion	√	√	√	findings with secondary sources 2) Construct validity (e.g., sharing research results by sending an executive summary to TTRA board members and interested individuals—see Appendix 4) 3) Discussion and generalization of findings in the context of scientific community literature

(Source: Adapted from Yin, 2003a, p.44)

Notably, in view of secondary and survey data, the former (e.g., both published and unpublished documents or reports) was reviewed and analyzed for relevance and validity to inform the research design during the conception and proposal stage. The role of the researcher as instrument should be noted in such reviews and consultations. As noted above, this part of the data analysis could still be regarded as on-going because more or updated documents are (or will be made) available as the research progresses. For example, there was an almost concurrent member satisfaction and conference survey (April 2007) in the Canada chapter prior to the despatch of this study. In many ways, the knowledge resulting from the review or analysis of secondary data serves as a context for verification and discussion of the empirical case-study findings.

Quantitative analysis of the survey data is facilitated by SPSS, a statistical package that includes capabilities for both data management and analysis. For example, its data management functions such as case selections, re-coding, and re-grouping are useful in creating composite measures and in facilitating analysis at different levels or units. The robust program allows descriptions and/or inferences to be made on a variety of variables of interest in accordance with the proposed research questions (Table 3-5; see also Figure 3-1 for research questions and Appendix 1 for the questionnaire). In addition, verifications of findings with secondary/documentary sources are made during and after the analyses for the check of validity. On the basis of literature review, results from

these analyses are discussed with potential or possible generalizations on research communications, networking and the capacity of applied research associations.

Table 3-5. An Overview of Survey Data Analysis

Survey Question	*Research Question*	*Variables*	*Analytic methods*	*Interpretation and generalization perspectives*
11-21	Of relevance to all research questions	Demographic	❖ Descriptive statistics	❖Characteristics/profiles/frequency distribution of the respondents ❖Representative-ness of the study population ❖Non-response bias (e.g., comparing selected characteristics of respondents with TTRA membership as a whole)
1-6, 11-15, 17-21	3-6	Communication and information exchange or use by demographic attributes	❖ Descriptive statistics ❖ T-test ❖ Analysis of variance ❖ Correlation and regression	❖Distribution patterns (e.g., frequency, central tendency, standard deviation, variance) ❖Differences about research communication (e.g., attitudes, perceptions, behaviour, influencing factors, information use and usefulness, information exchange through TTRA-internal versus external sources or outlets) are interpreted from different perspectives (e.g., academics versus practitioners, chapter, gender, types of memberships, age groups, geographical regions, disciplinary backgrounds).
7-8, 11-15, 17-21	1-2, 5-6	Research networking by demographic attributes	❖ Descriptive statistics ❖ T-test ❖ Analysis of variance ❖ Correlation and regression	❖Distribution patterns (e.g., frequency, central tendency, standard deviation, variance) ❖Differences about research networking (e.g., attitudes, perceptions, behaviour, influencing factors, network categories) are interpreted from different perspectives (e.g., academics versus practitioners, chapter, gender, types of memberships, age groups, geographical regions, disciplinary backgrounds).
9-10, 11-15, 17-21	Of relevance to all research questions	Capacity of association community by demographic attributes	❖ Descriptive statistics ❖ T-test ❖ Analysis of variance ❖ Correlation and regression	❖Distribution patterns (e.g., frequency, central tendency, standard deviation, variance) ❖Differences about research community capacity (e.g., attitudes, behaviours, perceived factors) are interpreted from different perspectives (e.g., academics versus practitioners, chapter, gender, types of memberships, age groups, geographical regions, disciplinary backgrounds).
1-6, 7-8, 9-10	Of relevance to all research questions (questions 2 and 4 in particular)	Communication and networking by capacity attributes	❖ Descriptive statistics ❖ T-test ❖ Analysis of variance ❖ Correlation and Regression ❖ Factor-cluster analysis	❖Distribution patterns of variables of interest (e.g., frequency, central tendency, standard deviation, variance) ❖Relationships between communication, networking and community capacity (e.g., direction and strength of correlations such as "the more association conferences a member attend, or the longer one is affiliated with TTRA as a member, the more she/he feels connected and experiences a sense of the community") are described and interpreted from the perspectives of individual members and the

			❖ Cross tabulation and chi-square	association as a whole. ❖Factors are derived through exploratory factor analyses based on respondents' perceptions of communication, networking and association capacity (e.g., survey questions 1-4 and 7-10) and saved in SPSS as criterion variables for possible/further cluster analysis, with an intent to identify relatively homogeneous clusters of individuals who share similar profiles on the derived factors. Results from these analyses contribute to discussions on typologies of association/community members.
22	Of relevance to all research questions	Interesting and useful information is solicited from this open-ended question; these additional comments provide a qualitative perspective, for verification purposes, on the roles and functions of TTRA in facilitating research communication, networking and capacity-building of an applied tourism research community, as well as reflections of some respondents on this thesis research.		

Survey items in relation to research questions are rendered into a number of hypotheses to be tested through the proposed analyses. Specifically, survey questions 1-6 and 11-21 are conducive to the testing of the following set of hypotheses in relation to research questions 3, 4 and 5 about research communications among TTRA members and capacity-building of the association as an applied tourism research community:

$H_{1\text{-}4}$ There are no significant differences between academic and practitioner members in using research communication channels; in rating the usefulness of TTRA-endorsed/associated media; in perceiving factors that influence research communication, information exchange and/or media choice; and in research communication behaviours and/or motivations.

$H_{5\text{-}8}$ There are no significant differences among members in different chapters in using research communication channels; in rating the usefulness of TTRA-endorsed/associated media; in perceiving factors that influence research communication, information exchange and/or media choice; and in research communication behaviours and/or motivations.

$H_{9\text{-}36}$ There are no significant differences by demographic attributes of the respondents (e.g., gender, age, geographical locations/regions, disciplinary backgrounds, levels of education, and categories and years of membership) in using research communication channels; in rating the usefulness of TTRA-endorsed/associated media; in perceiving factors that influence research communication, information

exchange and/or media choice; and in research communication behaviours and/or motivations.

H_{37} There is no correlation between research communication and conference participation in the TTRA member community.

Similarly, the next set of hypotheses can be derived from survey questions 7-8 and 11-21 in relation to research questions 1, 2, and 5 about research networking and community capacity.

$H_{38\text{-}39}$ There are no significant differences between academic and practitioner members in perceiving TTRA as influencing factors for networking; and in their research networking attitudes, behaviours and/or motivations.

$H_{40\text{-}41}$ There are no significant differences between members in different chapters in perceiving TTRA as influencing factors for networking; and in their research networking attitudes, behaviours and/or motivations.

$H_{42\text{-}55}$ There are no significant differences by demographic attributes of the respondents (e.g., gender, age, geographical locations/regions, disciplinary backgrounds, levels of education, and categories and years of membership) in perceiving TTRA as influencing factors for networking; and in their research networking attitudes, behaviours and/or motivations.

H_{56} There is no correlation between researcher networking and conference participation in the TTRA member community.

Based on survey questions 5-6, 8-11, and 13-14 in relation to research questions 2, 4, and 5, a third set of hypotheses can be stated as follows:

H_{57} There are no significant differences between academics and practitioners in perceiving issues (or the usefulness of factors) in the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community.

H_{58} There are no significant differences between members in different chapters in perceiving issues (or the usefulness of factors) in the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community.

H_{59} There is no correlation between association capacity and association conference attendance in the TTRA member community.

H_{60} There is no correlation between association capacity and length of affiliation in the TTRA member community.

Moreover, for survey questions 1-4 and 7-10, grouping techniques such as factor and cluster analyses are used for the generation of clusters or typologies based on the respondents' reported behaviours in research communication, networking and association capacity-building. Operationally, factors are derived through exploratory factor analyses based on respondents' behaviours or perceived benefits of communication, networking and association capacity, and saved as criterion variables for further cluster analyses. The intent of these is to identify relatively homogeneous clusters of individuals who share similar profiles on the derived factors; results of these analyses contribute to discussions on typologies of association/community members. Additionally, information solicited from the open-ended question provides insights or perspectives for verifications of survey findings.

With respect to reliability and/or replication, as this study follows a single-case design, albeit with embedded units of analysis, reliability of the design and/or replication of the findings serve as directions or implications for future research. For example, the protocol of this case study can be replicated to the same association in a longitudinal design (e.g., a cohort study) by the same researcher or by other investigators. Likewise, results from this study can be replicated to future case studies of other tourism research associations (e.g., a trend study).

Finally, as noted above, a caution about the role of researcher as "instrument" should be acknowledged. This researcher is a member of the case study association. Such an affiliation has both strength and weaknesses. On one hand, the research design, data collection and analysis, and the interpretation are consciously or unconsciously informed by his experiential knowledge of, or contact with, the association community. On the other, there is the concern of re-addressing imbalances (Guba, 1990, pp.22-23), or keeping a balance between bringing in the researcher's values or perspectives and observing neutrality or objectivity in data analysis and interpretation by allowing "the facts" to speak of themselves.

3.3.5 Gaining Access for Case Study

To establish good will for this thesis research, a number of things have been done in the conception and proposal stage for this case study. After the conception of the research idea, an expression of interest was sent via email to the current and the former presidents of TTRA-International prior to its

Canada Chapter conference in October 2006. Responses to these contacts are indicative of the executives' interest in this research at the initial stage. As a result, a brief meeting was scheduled between the two presidents, this researcher and the thesis supervisor during the TTRA Canada conference for discussions on this research project.

The research design has benefited from insights and reflections generated from this inter-sessional meeting (3:30pm-4:10pm, 16 October, at Fairmont Montebello, Quebec, Canada). To prepare for this meeting, a one-page proposal outline was brought to the session to generate discussions. From the researcher's perspective, the purpose of the meeting was to solicit both presidents' comments, reflections upon, and support of the thesis research. The 40-minute meeting was fruitful as a number of issues were explored, concerns clarified, and basic consensus achieved for follow-up steps or tasks. For example, both presidents see the research topic as a good one, which is of interest to TTRA members, with results potentially useful for the association's planning and development.

Part of the discussion has also touched upon the objectives and research questions. For example, as a tactic to secure support from the Board and to boost response rate from the membership survey, it was suggested that this thesis project incorporate issues or perspectives related to TTRA's strategic plan and the benefits of research communication and networking for the growth of the association as an applied research community. In general, these are constructive comments and reflections. As can be seen from the above descriptions on research design and survey instrument, some of these comments are incorporated. Nonetheless, this thesis research is undertaken as an independent endeavour rather than a project on behalf of the association.

While both presidents are generally supportive of the project, they are also interested in the data to be collected and the interpretation of the results. To clarify the research procedure, they were assured that this dissertation project would be guided by an academic committee in the candidate's university and that the study would receive ethic clearance from the university's office of research prior to its implementation. As a benefit to the association for supporting this research, an executive summary of the survey results would be sent to the Board of TTRA-International for informational purposes and shared with interested individuals in its membership community (Appendix 4). It is also understood that appropriate acknowledgements would be in place in future publications out of this project.

The initial communication was concluded by an understanding that this thesis research proposal be approved by the TTRA Board meeting before its implementation. Following their suggestions, a revised one-page proposal was re-submitted to the current president for inclusion of this project as an

item in the agenda of the Board meeting (in February 2007). Subsequently, a couple of emails were exchanged for the purpose of reminding and appreciating both presidents as advocates of the project during the Board meeting. Final approval from the Board was received on 21 February. Regarding its implementation and perhaps due to a number of other member surveys previously done in this community, it was noted in the letter of support that data collection for this thesis research should not overwhelm the members and that a copy of the survey instrument and cover letter should be sent to the Board for their information prior to the delivery of instrument to all members.

3.3.6 Implementation of the TTRA Case Study Survey

A detailed timeline for the implementation of this thesis research is outlined in Appendix 2. Operationally, after the acceptance of the research proposal by the thesis committee, the instrument was submitted to the Office of Research at the University of Waterloo for ethic clearance, with full approval granted on April 16. Subsequently, an online survey was re-created (on the basis of the ethic-approved copy) using SurveyMonkey templates, and professional subscription to the program was arranged for the data collection period (May to June 2007). The email list of current membership was provided by the secretariat of TTRA-International for the distribution of the online survey.

In view of the current list (721 active members) and the anticipated response rate in today's social or community surveys, the questionnaire was distributed as a census to all members. As outlined in Appendix 2, data collection through the online survey took place in May and June of 2007, with a pre-survey/advance notice, a formal invitation for participation, two reminders, and a cut-off note of appreciation respectively, addressed to current fellow TTRA members. These survey emails were sent with the help of the computing staff in the Faculty of Applied Health Sciences at the candidate's university.

Arguably, while online surveys with web links emailed to the study subjects can yield instant responses, one disadvantage of sending survey emails to mass recipients is the failure of delivery to a number of the intended recipients. This can happen because of the filter of a user's server to survey emails, or due to the outdated-ness, removal, and any technical failure of an email account, which is observable by the bounced-back notices such as "fatal error" or "undeliverable" of an address. In this census of the study population (N=721), the failures of deliveries were recorded each time after a survey email was sent. The bounced-back messages showed that 74 email addresses were consistently undeliverable in each of the five mailings. The number of members who have actually received the

survey emails is smaller than the original membership list (N=647). After the formal invitation and subsequent reminders, 186 usable questionnaires were returned, with a response rate of 28.7%. Late responses do not appear to be an issue in this online survey, as it is more instant and easier to control in terms of timing than conventional mail-back questionnaires; nonetheless, to address the issue of potential non-response bias, demographic profiles of the sample (n=186) were compared against those of the study population, derived from the original list, to examine the extent of sample representation (see section one in Chapter 4). Subsequently, these survey responses were converted into SPSS data files for statistical analysis.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter begins with a review of case study as a comprehensive research strategy. Its applications in tourism research are also described through a methodological review. An embedded single case design is described as an appropriate approach for this study of TTRA as an applied tourism research community. This part of the description highlights the interrelationships among research objectives and questions, theoretical contexts, and methodological approaches. In particular, the discussion focuses on primary and secondary data collection for this study, as well as the use of documentary sources for the development of a case study survey instrument. Primary data collection for this research is assisted by the secretariat of TTRA-International and fulfilled (or implemented) through an online survey of the association population, with a moderate response rate of 28.7%. Data analysis is guided by a series of hypotheses, with results of the study reported in the next chapter.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter reports on the findings of the data analysis. In the first section, demographic profiles of the respondents are described in comparison with the characteristics of the study population to assess the extent of sample representation. Guided by and organized in the order of the three sets of hypotheses, data analysis has yielded findings pertinent to research communications, researcher networking, and the association's capacity-building of the TTRA membership community, which are reported in the second, third and fourth sections respectively. Subsequently, role typologies are developed through factor-cluster analyses of the respondents' motivations and behaviours in research communications and networking in the association community. The chapter concludes with a summary of the study results and points of connections with the literature for discussions.

4.1 Demographic Profiles of the Respondents

As can be seen from Table 4-1, 52% of the members responding to this survey are male; 48% female. The majority of them (79%) are between the ages of 30 and 59; about 11% of the respondents are either in their early or late professional career. In terms of schooling, the sample consists of a highly well-educated group; 95% of the respondents have completed university education, with either bachelor or graduate degrees.

Table 4-1. Gender, Age Groups, and Levels of Education (n=186)

Gender	Response (%)
Male	51.60
Female	48.40
Age Group	
19 or under	0.00
20-29	10.80
30-39	22.80
40-49	26.00
50-59	29.80
60-69	8.20
70-79	1.90
80+	0.60
Level of Education	
High school	1.30
College diploma	3.80
University bachelor degree	19.00
University graduate degree	76.00

To compare demographic profiles of the respondents with those of the study population, it was found that the survey sample is primarily composed of standard members (44%) and premier members (32%). Professional/educational organization members account for 22% of the responses. Junior and lifetime or emeritus members represent about 7% and 4% respectively. However, it should be noted that, very often, organization members are in the meantime standard, premier and/or lifetime members. In general, the survey respondents are highly representative of the target population in terms of membership categories (Figure 4-1).

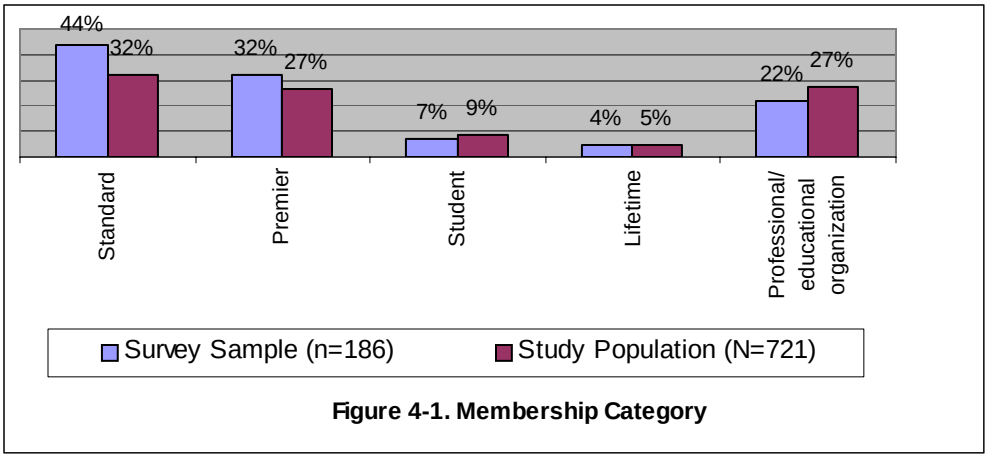


Figure 4-1. Membership Category

In terms of chapter affiliations (Figure 4-2), the majority of the respondents are from the Canada Chapter (36%), South Eastern Chapter (20%), Greater Western Chapter (15%), Central States Chapter (12%), and the Europe Chapter (9%), respectively. There are also a small number of respondents from other chapters such as Texas (4%), Hawaii (3%), California University of Pennsylvania (2%) and South Central (2%). In a broad sense, this pattern of frequency of the respondents also presents a close match with membership size in each chapter. Arguably, the geographical location of this thesis research as well as the long-established active member support serve as explanations for the relatively higher response rate from the Canada Chapter.

Based on the current membership list provided by the secretariat, it appears that international members from countries or regions, in which there is not yet a TTRA chapter to date (e.g., Australia and New Zealand, Japan, Taiwan, Hong Kong, India, and South Africa), are not affiliated with a specific chapter. While, according to the association's charter, they have an option to choose their own chapters of affiliation, they can also stand free as general TTRA members. It also appears, in the

membership list, that some are affiliated with the North Eastern Chapter, which currently remains as an inactive chapter and is not included as an item in the survey instrument.

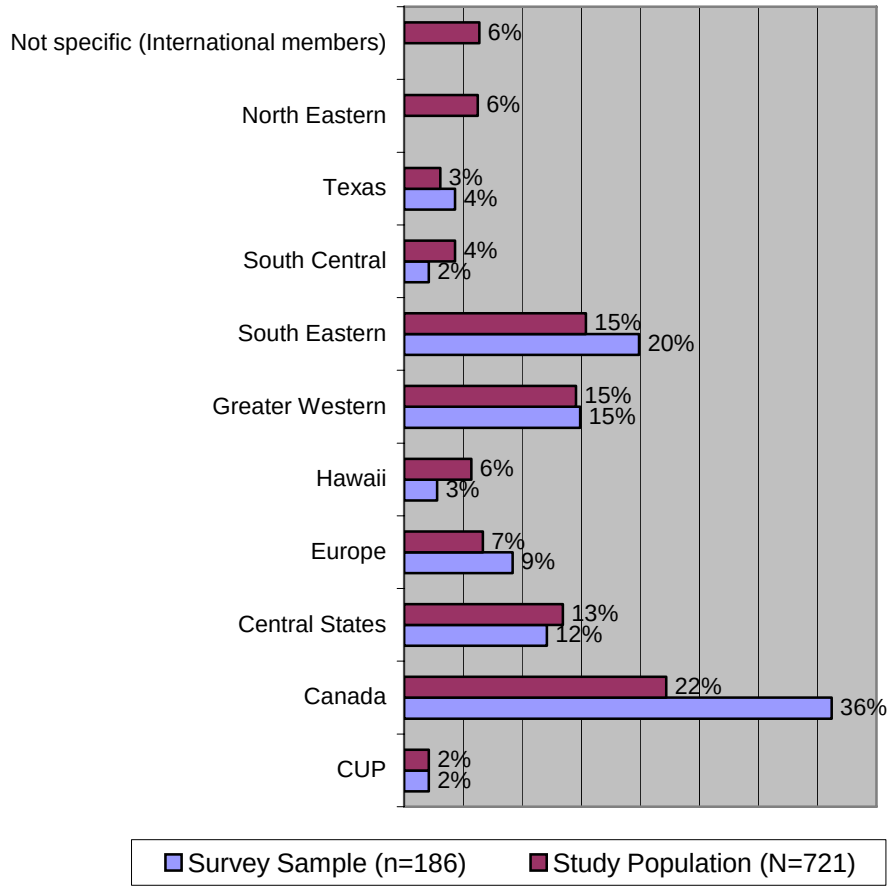


Figure 4-2. Chapter Affiliation

In terms of countries or regions of residence of the respondents, the sample is dominated by the US and Canadian members, with 57% and 30% respectively from these two countries (Figure 4-3). Other countries or world regions are also represented in the survey responses, e.g., Asia (4%), the British Isles (4%), Australia and New Zealand (3%), and other European States (2%). In alignment with the population parameter, while it appears, for reasons noted above, that the frequency of respondents from Canada is slightly higher and instances from the United States relatively lower than expected, the overall pattern of survey responses does not jeopardise the representative-ness of the sample by regional/geographical distributions.

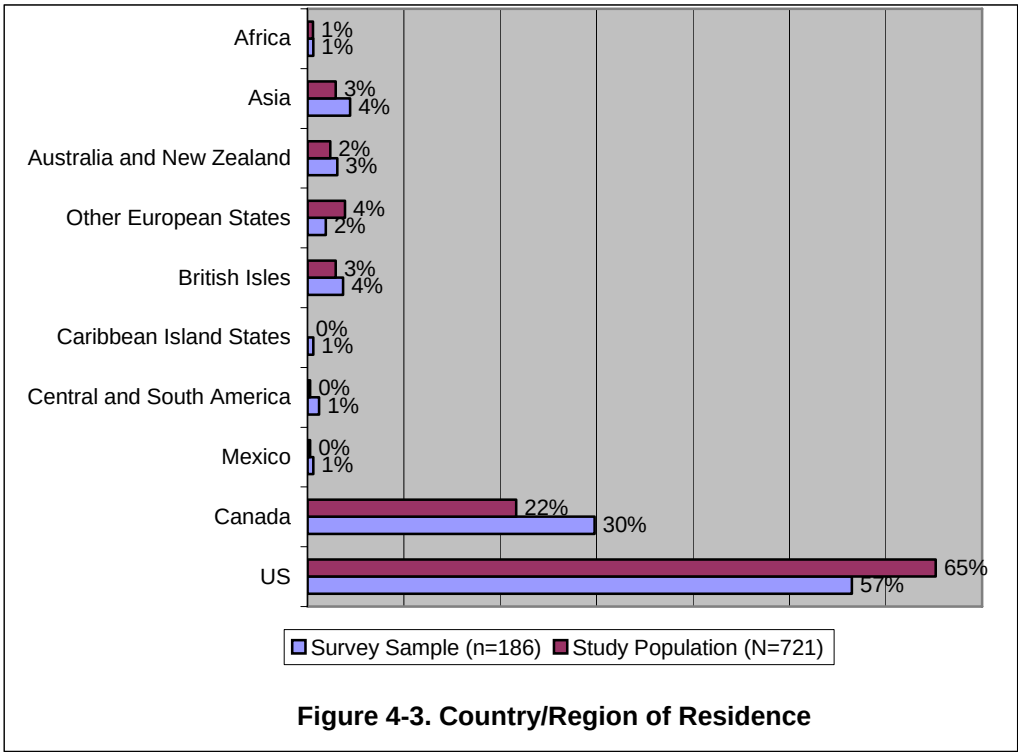


Figure 4-3. Country/Region of Residence

Next, in terms of occupations or job categories (Figure 4-4), three groups stand out among the respondents—academics (44%); policymakers and/or destination marketers from governmental agencies, tourism offices and CVBs (35%); and consultants, research associates, and analysts from research companies (34%). Practitioners from various tourism businesses, for-profit and/or not-for-profit entities form another category, e.g., advertising, public relations and marketing (11%), associations (6%), media and publications (6%), accommodation and lodging (4%), attraction (3%), tour operation and travel agency (3%), and transportation (2%). To compare sample statistics with the population parameter, it is found that the frequencies of responses from each of these job categories are more or less higher than expected. This is because, in the survey instrument, respondents had options to choose multiple jobs or occupations that they perceive they are actually performing in their professional career. Nonetheless, in the mailing list from which these comparing frequencies are derived, each member is associated with one primary job or occupation. Again, in broad patterns, the sample can be regarded as a good representation of the association's membership by occupational traits.

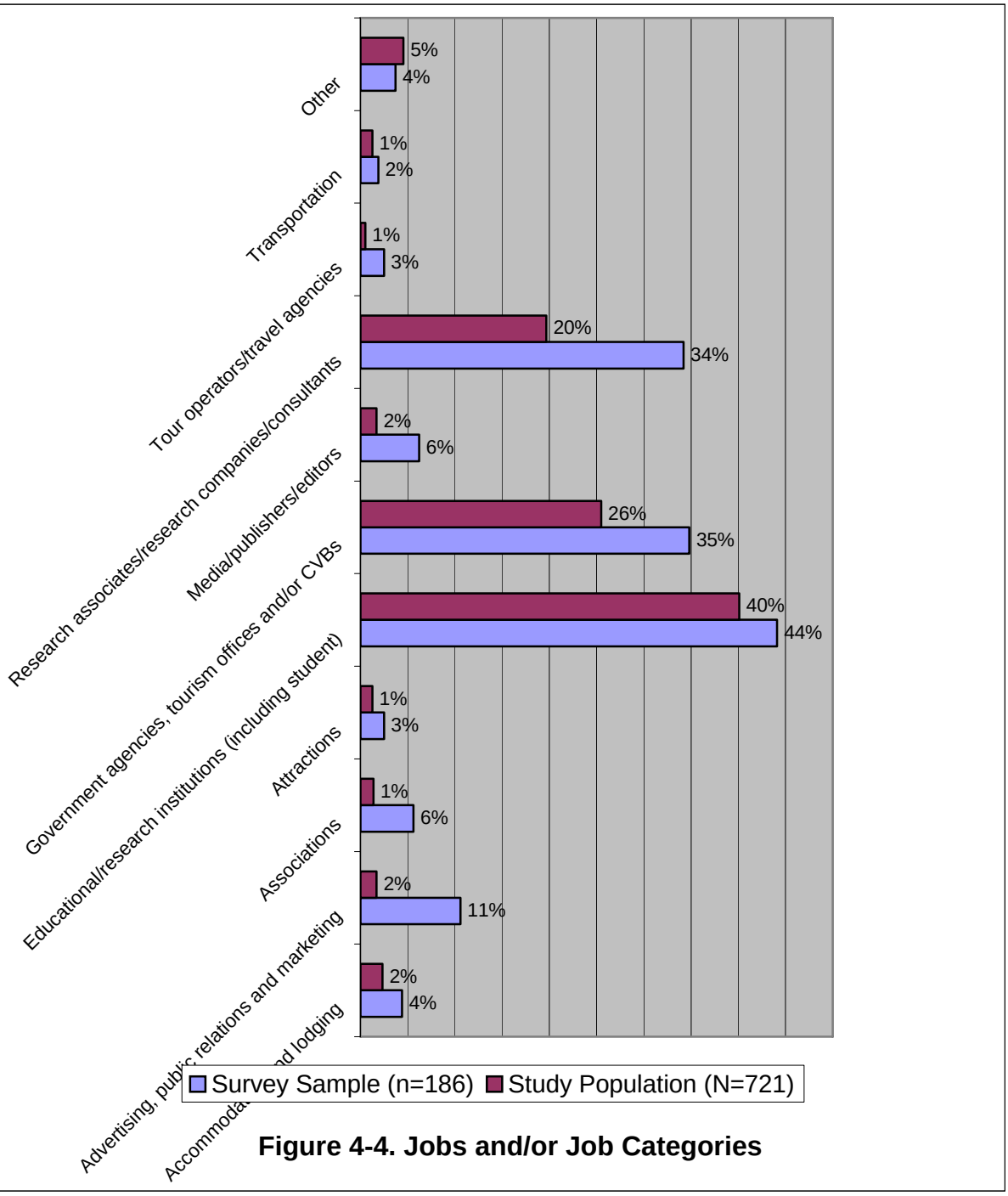


Figure 4-4. Jobs and/or Job Categories

With respect to positions the survey respondents reported as holding in either TTRA International or its chapters, 81% of the sample are regular members; 19% are association executives or board members (Figure 4-5). It appeared that the frequency of responses is slightly but not overly skewed

towards executives and/or board members. While this may serve as a note of caution in interpreting the survey results, it does not constitute a big concern of sample representation. Arguably, given the number of active chapters (9 in total) and the number of executives, board members or officers in TTRA International (18 members in total) and its corresponding chapters (e.g., from the chapter websites as of August 2007, there are 12 executives in Canada Chapter; 6 in Europe; 10 in South Central States; 5 in Central States, California University of Pennsylvania, and South Eastern Chapters respectively; 1 in Hawaii and Texas Chapters respectively; and 16 in the Greater Western Chapter), there are approximately 11% of the members who are currently serving the association community. Some of the respondents may have also served as executives or board members in the past five years. That association executives and/or board members are more supportive of fellow member's research is also notable. In addition, the instances of respondents skipping this question may have also contributed to the distribution pattern of the executives.

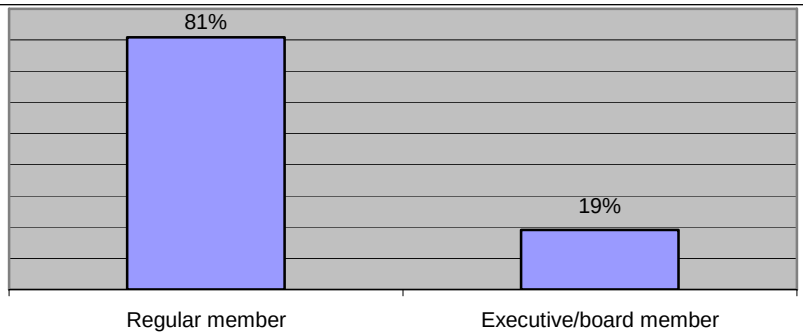


Figure 4-5. Current Position in TTRA-International and/or Its Chapters (n=186)

Notably, respondents to this survey simultaneously hold membership in other tourism research and professional associations (Figure 4-6). Due to the demographic/geographic nature of the sample, many respondents are also members of North America-based professional associations such as the Travel Industry Associations of America and Canada (TIA, and TIAC), as well as education and research-oriented associations such as the Council of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE) and the International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators (ISTTE). Mainstream research associations in tourism (e.g., AIEST, CAUTHE, APTA, and the prestigious IAST) are also represented in varying degree because of the number of survey respondents from academic/educational institutions.

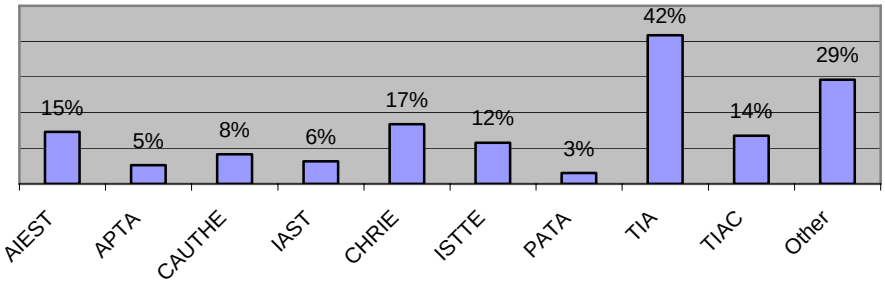


Figure 4-6. Member of Other Major Tourism/Professional Associations (n=186)

In addition, as is also true of the membership of TTRA-International, the sample is a highly multidisciplinary group of tourism researchers and/or professionals with diverse backgrounds of training (Figure 4-7).

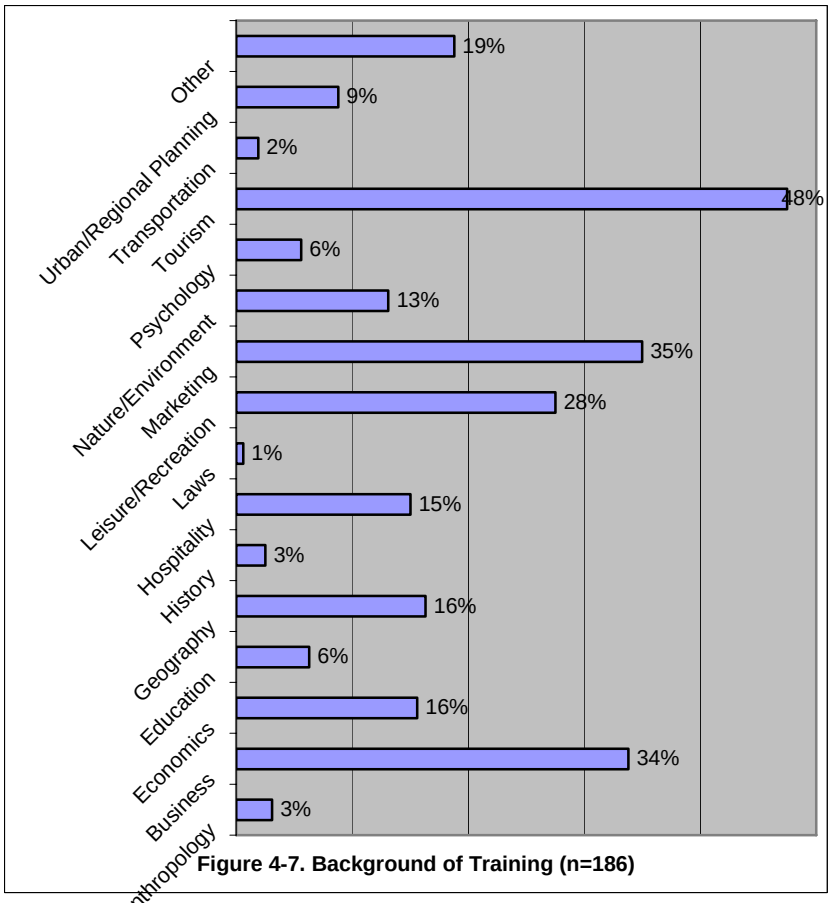


Figure 4-7. Background of Training (n=186)

Of the reported specializations, tourism, business and marketing are most often seen among the respondents. Such a background of training of the respondents is not a surprise for an applied research community like TTRA, which positions itself as an association of tourism research and marketing professionals. Due to the multi-faceted and multidisciplinary nature of travel and tourism, a variety of other fields/disciplines are also recorded, including recreation and leisure studies, economics, geography, hospitality, natural resources and environmental studies, urban and regional planning, and some humanities-related specialized areas. It is of interest to examine research communications and researcher networking among a group of association members as diverse as this sample.

Moreover, as can be seen from Figure 4-8, this sample consists of respondents who have been TTRA members for a varying number of years. The reported length of experience with the association ranges from a couple of years (18%), to more than 20 years (8%). Most of the survey respondents have been TTRA members for more than three years. The reported length of affiliation with the case study association adds a perspective to the demographic characteristics of the sample; it serves as a context for the examination and discussion of research communications and researcher networking among members in this community.

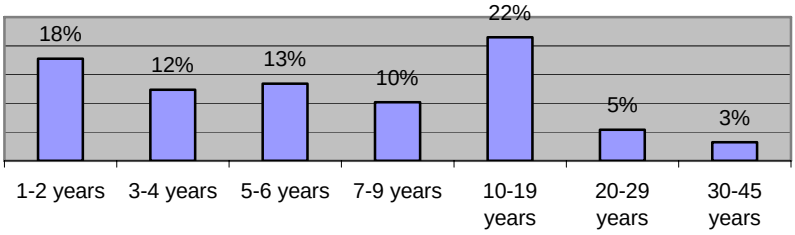


Figure 4-8. Number of Years Being a TTRA Member (n=186)

To sum up the above demographic characteristics, respondents to this survey form a highly representative sample of the TTRA member population. This confirms the advantage of using membership list as a sampling frame, as it contains all the members of the study population in which each has an equal chance of being selected in the resultant sample (Babbie, 1986, p.155). The respondents selected for this research represent a diverse group of tourism researchers and marketing professionals typical of TTRA membership. They represent both regular and executive members from different categories and with varied years of affiliation with the association. Their background of

training is diverse, so are the jobs or occupations they are currently engaged in. In the meantime, many of the respondents are also active members of other professional associations. Albeit in varying degrees, the sample represents affiliations from each active chapter, and resides or works in different countries or world regions.

4.2 Research Communication among TTRA Members

The first part of the survey solicits information about research communication of the TTRA members; data analysis is guided by four sets of hypotheses. These prepositional statements are tested, through examining potential differences, with an intent to elucidate the role of respondents' occupations (academics versus practitioners), chapter affiliations, and other demographic attributes in shaping communication behaviour and motivation. The correlations between research communication and association conference participation are also described.

4.2.1 Academics and Practitioners

Differences between academics and practitioners in research communication are addressed in the first set of hypotheses:

> *$H_{1\text{-}4}$ There are no significant differences between academic and practitioner members in using research communication channels; in rating the usefulness of TTRA-endorsed media; in perceiving factors that influence research communication, information exchange and/or media choice; and in research communication behaviours and motivations.*

Based on their jobs and occupations, the survey respondents were grouped into two distinct categories of academics and practitioners. The former constitutes a large sub-group in the sample, primarily composed of members from educational/research institutions, including student members. The latter consists of members from destination marketing organizations, CVBs, government tourism agencies, research companies, and various sectors of the tourism industries. A series of t-tests are conducted to compare the mean of the two subgroups in a variety of research communication attributes.

First, according to their intended audience and nature of media, the various research communication channels are categorized into academic channels (e.g., journals, books, and conference proceedings), non-academic channels (e.g., magazines, newspapers, bulletins, workshops, training sessions, and industry committees), and web-based channels (e.g., internet postings, websites,

blogs, emails, and listservs). In terms of using these channels for professional communication, the two groups are found to be significantly different from each other in the audience-related aspects of communication media (Table 4-2).

Table 4-2. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Using Research Communication Channels

Channels by members	Frequency of use[a]			t	p
	N	Mean	SD		
Academic channels (e.g., journals, books, conference proceedings)					
Academics……..	69	2.93	.75	**6.774**	**<.001**[***]
Practitioners……	99	2.15	.73		
Non-academic channels (e.g., magazines, newspapers, bulletins, workshops, training sessions, industry committees)					
Academics……	66	2.05	.59	**-2.972**	**.003**[**]
Practitioners……	98	2.33	.59		
Web-based channels (e.g., internet postings, websites, blogs, emails, listservs)					
Academics……	69	2.67	.82	.290	.772
Practitioners……	101	2.63	.85		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.
[***] statistically significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).
[**] statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).

Not surprisingly, academics have a significantly higher frequency of using academic channels (t=6.774, p<.001), while the practitioner group more often use the non-academic channels (t=-2.972, p=.003). In item-specific mean comparisons, it is found that academic members use scholarly journals and books (e.g., anthologies, chapters) significantly more frequently (t=7.759, p<.001 and t=6.661, p<.001 respectively), while practitioner respondents have reported a significantly higher use of newsletters and bulletins (t=-2.955, p=.004), trade magazines and newspapers (t=-1.886, p=.061) and workshops and training sessions (t=-1.717, p=.088). However, both groups are not significantly different in using web-based channels (t=.290, p=.772), which are all reportedly often used. Therefore, the null hypothesis about academics and practitioners in using research communication channels is partially rejected. While they differ in using academic versus practitioner channels, they are not distinct in using information technology as a facilitation of professional communication.

Second, the respondents were also asked about their frequency in using TTRA-endorsed channels for research communication. In the same vein, these TTRA-endorsed communications are also grouped, according to their nature and intended audience, into academic and non-academic channels.

The former includes *Journal of Travel Research*, *eReview of Tourism Research*, TTRA conference proceedings, *Tourism/Hospitality Research Handbook*, *Handbook of Accountability Research*, and tourism research agenda; the latter consists of items such as association newsletters, websites, and membership/supplier directories (Table 4-3).

Table 4-3. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Using TTRA-endorsed Research Communication Channels

TTRA-endorsed channels by members	Frequency of use[a]			t	p
	N	Mean	SD		
Academic channels (e.g., JTR, eRTR, conference proceedings, Tourism/Hospitality Research Handbook, Handbook of Accountability Research, tourism research agenda)					
Academics……..	66	1.91	.55	**2.994**	**.003**[**]
Practitioners……	94	1.65	.53		
Non-academic channels (e.g., newsletters, websites, member/supplier directory)					
Academics……	68	1.81	.63	-1.424	.156
Practitioners……	98	1.95	.62		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.
[**] statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).

It is found that while academics and practitioners are significantly different in using academic communications (t=2.994, p=.003), neither group has used these association communications very often. Notably, academic respondents have a relatively higher frequency of using the academic channels; practitioner members consult the non-academic ones a bit more frequently. In item-specific mean comparisons, it is found that the frequency of academics' consulting *Journal of Travel Research* (t=6.015, p<.001) and TTRA conference proceedings (t=2.029, p=.044) is significantly higher than that by practitioner members. On the contrary, practitioner respondents have used supplier directories significantly more frequently than the academics (t=-2.335, p=.021). The null hypothesis about members' uses of association communications is also partially rejected.

Third, survey respondents were asked to rate the importance of a variety of factors in influencing their research communication and media choice decisions. Based on an exploratory factor analysis, these communication decision and media choice items fall into three factors: the audience-oriented factor, the media-oriented factor, and publishing-related factors. These dimensions of communication decisions have in turn served as the direction for the creation of three composite measures through computing the mean of three sets of variables perceived as influencing research communications

among the association members in terms of whether the variables are related to audience issues, choice of media, or publishing issues.

Potential differences between academics and practitioners with respect to the factors that influence research communication, information exchange and/or media choice are examined through independent sample t-tests (Table 4-4). It is found that differences between the two groups are significant in the audience-oriented factor (t=2.679, p=.008), but not statistically significant for the other two factors. Academic members attach a significantly higher level of importance on factors such as whether a selected medium reaches a large/international audience (t=5.326, p<.001) and whether a medium used for publishing their research will be consumed by the same/similar interest groups (t=2.083, p=.039) and/or by the intended readers(t=2.761, p=.006). Media-oriented factors such as reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a medium are perceived by both groups as very important; publishing-related factors such as timeliness or long-time lag, familiarity with editors for publishing research, and presentation styles do not appear to have much influence on research communication for both academic and practitioner respondents.

Table 4-4. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Perceiving Factors that Influence Research Communication and Media Choice

Influencing factors by members	Level of importance[a]			t	p
	N	Mean	SD		
Audience-oriented factor (e.g., large/international audience, same interest groups, intended readers within tourism)					
Academics……	59	3.25	.49	**2.679**	**.008**[**]
Practitioners……	77	3.00	.56		
Media-oriented factor (e.g., reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a medium)					
Academics……	60	3.60	.44	.763	.447
Practitioners……	90	3.53	.45		
Publishing-related factor (e.g., time lag or timeliness, familiarity with editors, presentation style)					
Academics……	59	2.76	.52	-.124	.901
Practitioners……	82	2.77	.57		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
[**] statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).

Next, in order to compare academic and practitioner respondents in their levels of agreement with the 20 behavioural/motivational items about research communication (see survey question 4), an

exploratory factor analysis was undertaken for the purpose of reducing these variables into a limited number of groups which share common characteristics. Five factors were extracted through a principal component (with varimax rotation) method. These factors were saved for subsequent analyses to compare the mean between the two sub-groups with respect to differences in research communication behaviours and motivations (Table 4-5).

Table 4-5. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Research Communication Behaviour and Motivations

Communication behaviour/motivations by members	Level of agreement[a]			t	p
	N	Mean	SD		
Tendency/preference in using TTRA media					
Academics……	70	2.90	.56	**3.187**	**.002**[**]
Practitioners……	98	2.60	.53		
Motivation of going to TTRA conferences					
Academics……	68	2.36	.74	**2.459**	**.015**[*]
Practitioners……	84	2.07	.71		
Purpose/motivation of research communication					
Academics……	52	3.14	.36	**2.153**	**.034**[*]
Practitioners……	34	2.97	.36		
Behaviour in publishing/using tourism research					
Academics……	69	2.86	.52	.154	.878
Practitioners……	100	2.85	.50		
Tourism research collaboration					
Academics……	69	3.06	.52	.810	.419
Practitioners……	98	2.99	.53		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[**] statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).
[*] statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

Based on test statistics in Table 4-5, academics have a significantly higher level of agreement than practitioners with respect to using TTRA media (t=3.187, p=.002), going to TTRA conferences (t=2.459, p=.015), and having a clear purpose of research communication (t=2.153, p=.034). Specifically, through variable-/item-based mean comparisons, it is found that academics are significantly different from practitioners in attaching importance to submitting research to TTRA-associated media (t=3.776, p<.001). Compared to practitioners, academics highly agree that they publish research for the purposes of tenure/promotion (t=3.677, p<.001) and for a sense of achievement (t=3.064, p=.003); they also agree that reading research is essential for competent practice and policy (t=3.166, p=.002). On the contrary, practitioners are significantly different from academics in attaching value to reading research. For instance, they agree that they learn more from personal experience than from reading research reports (t=-2.040, p=.043). Nonetheless, both groups

are not significantly different in viewing research collaborations (t=.810, p=.419). Once again, results from this analysis fail to fully reject the null hypothesis.

4.2.2 Chapter Affiliations

Guided by the study objectives, this research also intends to examine the differences among members in different chapters with respect to their perceptions of and behaviours in research communication. The purpose of this is to have a perspective on understanding whether and how members' affiliation with chapters (or the association's chapter structure) facilitates or deters research communication. The next set of hypotheses are used to guide the data analysis:

> *$H_{5\text{-}8}$ There are no significant differences among members in different chapters in using research communication channels; in rating the usefulness of TTRA-endorsed media; in perceiving factors that influence research communication, information exchange and media choice; and in research communication behaviours and motivations.*

Operationally, due to the limited number of responses from four US-based chapters, a composite measure was created through re-grouping sample respondents from the originally nine chapters into six chapters: Canada, Europe, Greater Western, South Eastern, Central States, and other US-based chapters. In other words, the four small chapters (i.e., California University of Pennsylvania, Hawaii, South Central, and Texas) were recoded into one undifferentiated group. Thus, although they are in different regions of the United States, they are similar in that they are all small chapters. This recoding has resulted in a reasonable size for each of the sub-groups for mean comparisons with respect to their perceptions, behaviour and motivation of professional communication.

First, in terms of using research communication channels (Table 4-6), results from the analysis of variance seem to support the null hypothesis. No statistically significant differences are found among the respondents from different chapters. It also appears, from the mean comparison, that the respondents do not have a high frequency of using research communication channels, regardless of chapters and types of communications (e.g., academic versus practitioner-oriented channels).

Table 4-6. Differences among Members by Chapter in Using Communication Channels

Research Communication Channels	Chapter	Frequency of use[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Academic channels (e.g., journals, books, conference proceedings)	Canada	46	2.51	.82		
	South Eastern	27	2.56	.80		
	Greater Western	22	2.45	.88		
	Central States	17	2.41	.92	.409	.842
	Other US chapters	14	2.24	.74		

	Europe	12	2.64	.86		
Non-academic channels	Canada	45	2.24	.58		
(e.g., magazines,	South Eastern	28	2.28	.66		
newspapers, bulletins,	Greater Western	22	2.31	.49		
workshops, training	Central States	16	2.06	.73	.430	.826
sessions, industry	Other US chapters	14	2.21	.80		
committees)	Europe	12	2.38	.64		
Web-based channels	Canada	48	2.57	.84		
(e.g., internet postings,	South Eastern	28	2.82	.94		
websites, blogs, emails,	Greater Western	22	2.73	.83		
listservs)	Central States	18	2.64	.78	.723	.607
	Other US chapters	14	2.36	.69		
	Europe	12	2.75	.84		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.

Second, with respect to using TTRA-endorsed communication channels (Table 4-7), no significant differences are found either among the respondents by chapters. The ANOVA results support the acceptance of the null hypothesis; chapter affiliation does not appear as a factor to influence the frequency of using association communications. As suggested by the mean comparison, TTRA-endorsed communication channels are not sufficiently used in the membership community, ranging with an average of use from "rarely/never" to "sometimes".

Table 4-7. Differences among Members by Chapter in Using TTRA-endorsed Research Communication Channels

TTRA-endorsed Channels	Chapter	Frequency of use[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Academic channels	Canada	46	1.83	.57		
(e.g., JTR, eRTR, conference	South Eastern	28	1.84	.60		
proceedings, Tourism/Hospitality	Greater Western	20	1.65	.57		
Research Handbook, Handbook	Central States	17	1.67	.42	.653	.659
of Accountability Research,	Other US chapters	14	1.68	.60		
tourism research agenda)	Europe	12	1.88	.49		
Non-academic channels	Canada	47	1.95	.63		
(e.g., newsletters, websites,	South Eastern	28	2.03	.66		
member/supplier directory)	Greater Western	21	2.06	.59		
	Central States	17	1.63	.59	1.061	.384
	Other US chapters	14	1.96	.65		
	Europe	12	1.92	.73		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.

Third, with respect to survey respondents' perceptions of factors in influencing their research communication and media choice decisions (Table 4-8), the hypothesis is partially rejected. Respondents are not significantly different by chapter affiliations in perceiving/rating the audience-oriented factors; they view media coverage (e.g., whether a medium or publication reaches a large/international or an intended audience) unanimously as important (F=.486, p=.786). In the same

way, respondents in this sample are not differentiated in terms of publishing factors (e.g., time lag or timeliness, familiarity with editors as a help to publish research, and presentation styles) in influencing communication decisions and media use (F=1.509, p=.192). Nonetheless, significant differences are found to be present among members in these chapters in terms of media-oriented factors (F=3.735, p=.003).

Significant mean differences are found between the chapter respondents in perceiving the reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a medium as influencing factors in their research communication and media choice decisions. Specifically, respondents from the Europe Chapter are distinct from five other groups in rating the importance of these media-oriented factors. Scheffe's post hoc tests suggest that respondents from this chapter form a meaningful subset distinct from respondents in other chapters (subset for alpha=.05; p=.06). While reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a publication are perceived as "very important" to all the respondents, members from four chapters (Canada, South Eastern, Greater Western, and Central States) give particularly higher importance ratings on these media factors in their research communication decisions.

Table 4-8. Differences among Members by Chapter in Perceiving Factors that Influence Research Communication and Media Choice

Influencing factors	Chapter	Level of importance[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Audience-oriented factor (e.g., large/international audience, same interest groups, intended readers within tourism)	Canada	39	3.09	.52	.486	.786
	South Eastern	23	3.13	.49		
	Greater Western	16	3.19	.48		
	Central States	14	3.07	.50		
	Other US chapters	12	2.94	.56		
	Europe	9	3.24	.49		
Media-oriented factor (e.g., reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a medium)	Canada	44	3.56	.35	**3.735**	**.003**[**]
	South Eastern	24	3.67	.29		
	Greater Western	21	3.69	.33		
	Central States	15	3.58	.39		
	Other US chapters	13	3.44	.60		
	Europe	10	3.13	.43		
Publishing-related factor (e.g., time lag or timeliness, familiarity with editors, presentation style)	Canada	41	2.76	.52	1.509	.192
	South Eastern	22	2.84	.52		
	Greater Western	19	2.92	.38		
	Central States	14	2.89	.39		
	Other US chapters	12	2.48	.49		
	Europe	11	2.89	.60		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.

[**] mean difference statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).

Next, based on the prior principal component analysis, the same factors pertinent to respondents' research communication behaviour and motivation are used for an analysis of variance to examine potential differences among members in different chapters (Table 4-9).

Table 4-9. Differences among Members by Chapter in Research Communication Behaviour and Motivation

Communication behaviour and motivations	Chapter	Level of agreement[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Tendency/preference in using TTRA media	Canada	47	2.75	.52	.420	.833
	South Eastern	27	2.73	.57		
	Greater Western	21	2.90	.66		
	Central States	18	2.72	.45		
	Other US chapters	15	2.66	.46		
	Europe	12	2.79	.56		
Motivations of going to TTRA conferences	Canada	47	2.24	.68	.464	.802
	South Eastern	23	2.29	.77		
	Greater Western	20	2.09	.86		
	Central States	17	2.08	.69		
	Other US chapters	12	2.24	.87		
	Europe	12	2.42	.55		
Purposes of research communication	Canada	48	3.26	.52	**1.907**	**.097***
	South Eastern	28	3.29	.35		
	Greater Western	21	3.52	.42		
	Central States	18	3.08	.70		
	Other US chapters	14	3.14	.44		
	Europe	12	3.10	.66		
Behaviour in publishing/using tourism research	Canada	48	2.73	.47	1.083	.372
	South Eastern	28	2.93	.35		
	Greater Western	21	2.93	.64		
	Central States	18	2.79	.44		
	Other US chapters	14	2.93	.49		
	Europe	12	2.95	.68		
Tourism research collaboration	Canada	48	2.97	.51	**2.064**	**.073***
	South Eastern	28	3.19	.50		
	Greater Western	20	3.07	.56		
	Central States	18	2.82	.50		
	Other US chapters	14	3.02	.36		
	Europe	12	3.31	.46		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
*statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

According to the above ANOVA results, respondents from these chapters are not significantly different from one another in their tendency or preference in using TTRA media (F=.420, p=.833), with their rating close to "agreeing" on such tendency/preference items as submitting their research to and/or reading TTRA media. Nor are the respondents significantly different by chapters in terms of conference-going motivations (F=.464, p=.802); nonetheless, they have an overall lower level of

agreement on factors that influence members' conference-going. It is hard to tell from this sample which factor (e.g., cost and/or location of a conference, border-crossing concerns, closer relationship in a chapter community, or quality of a conference program) has more or less of a role to play in members' conference-going behaviour. The respondents are also undifferentiated by chapter affiliation in their behaviour in publishing and/or using tourism research (F=1.083, p=.872).

On the other hand, the test statistics seem to suggest that respondents are significantly different by chapters in whether they have a clear purpose of research communication (F=1.907, p=.097) and in tourism research collaborations (F=2.064, p=.073). In both cases, respondents from these chapter groupings have a relatively higher level of agreement on having a purpose of research communication and on tourism research collaborations. These findings are consistent with a previous result on the differences between academics and practitioners in research communication behaviour.

Despite these overall differences, multiple comparisons from the post hoc tests are not suggestive of any significant between-chapter differences. Nonetheless, the results could still be meaningful in partially rejecting the null hypothesis, as it was noted that significant differences from an initial analysis of variance could sometimes be interpreted as a collective difference significantly occurring among the groups, while none of the sub-groups are statistically different enough from one another (Diekhoff, 1992).

4.2.3 Research Communication by Other Demographic Attributes

In addition to occupations and chapter affiliations, a number of other demographic attributes are also used to examine potential differences among the respondents with respect to research communication. These attributes encompass gender, career stage, membership characteristics (e.g., regular versus board/executive members), countries/regions of residence, and disciplinary backgrounds and levels of education. Analyses of these variables are guided by the following hypotheses:

> *$H_{9\text{-}36}$ There are no significant differences between/among the respondents by demographic attributes such as gender, age, membership categories, countries/regions of residence, and disciplinary backgrounds and levels of education, in using research communication channels; in rating the usefulness of TTRA-endorsed media; in perceiving factors that influence research communication, information exchange and media choice; and in research communication behaviours and motivations.*

Gender

With respect to gender as an attribute in explaining the respondents' perceptions and/or behaviours in research communication, the null hypothesis about using research communication channels in general is not rejected. T-test statistics indicate that there are no significant differences by gender in using either the academic or the practitioner-oriented channels. Nor are the respondents statistically different in utilizing the electronic methods (e.g., emails, listservs, internet postings, websites, or personal blogs) to communicate or acquire research information.

Nonetheless, in terms of using TTRA-endorsed channels for research communication, gender appears to have a role to play in the utilization of some communication media (Table 4-10). For instance, while the respondents do not appear significantly different by gender in using association media such as *Journal of Travel Research*, e-*Review of Tourism Research*, membership directory, *Tourism and Hospitality Research Handbook*, *Handbook of Accountability Research*, and tourism research agenda, they are found to be significantly different in using TTRA conference proceedings (t=-2.261, p=.025), association newsletters (t=-1.790, p=.075), association websites (t=-2.668, p=.008), and research supplier directory (t=-2.193, p=.030). While the mean difference indicates that these association channels are not sufficiently used, it is interesting to note that female respondents reported a relatively higher frequency of using all of the four media. Therefore, the null hypothesis about using the association-endorsed media is partially rejected.

Table 4-10. Gender Differences in Using TTRA-endorsed Communication Channels

TTRA-endorsed Channels	Gender	Frequency of use[a]			t	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Conference proceedings (Chapter or TTRA-International)	Male	77	1.97	.89	**-2.261**	**.025**[*]
	Female	76	2.30	.91		
Newsletters (Chapter or TTRA-International)	Male	78	1.95	.82	**-1.790**	**.075**[*]
	Female	76	2.18	.81		
Websites (Chapter or TTRA-International)	Male	79	1.87	.84	**-2.668**	**.008**[**]
	Female	75	2.24	.87		
Research suppliers directory	Male	79	1.39	.63	**-2.193**	**.030**[*]
	Female	76	1.63	.73		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.
[**] statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).
[*] statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

With respect to respondents' perceptions of factors in influencing research communication and media choice decisions, t-test statistics support the rejection of the null hypothesis. No significant differences are found between the gender groups in their perceptions of audience-, media-, and/or

publishing-related characteristics as factors in influencing professional communication. Consequently, gender does not appear to have any effect on understanding the respondents' research communication behaviour and motivation. There are no significant gender differences in their tendency/preference in using TTRA media, in their motivation of going to association conferences, in having clear purposes for research communication, in the respondents' behaviour in publishing/using tourism research, and in tourism research collaboration in the member community. Therefore, this null hypothesis is also accepted.

Career Stage

Career stages of the respondents such as age are also hypothesized as an influencing variable in the respondents' perceptions, motivations, and/or behaviour with respect to research communication. For the sake of analysis, the age variable, formerly of eight groups, was recoded into three age groups to better reflect the respondents' career stages, i.e., early career stage (ages 19-39), mid-career stage (ages 40-59), and late career stage (ages 60+). A series of analyses of variance in the respondents' communication perceptions and behaviour by these career stages were undertaken, with statistically significant results summarized in Table 4-11. According to test statistics, this set of null hypotheses about research communication by age groups could be partially rejected.

Table 4-11. Differences by Career Stage in Research Communication

Aspects of communication perceptions and behaviour	Age Groups	Scale of rating[a, b, c]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Using research communication media (Web-based channels)[a]	Ages 19-39	52	2.81	.89	**2.875**	**.059***
	Ages 40-59	88	2.48	.76		
	Ages 60+	16	2.78	.93		
Using TTRA-endorsed media (Non-academic channels)[a]	Ages 19-39	52	1.75	.53	**2.495**	**.088***
	Ages 40-59	86	1.99	.71		
	Ages 60+	14	1.98	.50		
Factors in communication and media choice decisions (Media-oriented factor)[b]	Ages 19-39	45	3.66	.33	**2.799**	**.064***
	Ages 40-59	80	3.51	.43		
	Ages 60+	13	3.38	.57		
Behavior and motivation (Motivations of going to TTRA conferences)[c]	Ages 19-39	44	2.13	.74	**3.872**	**.023***
	Ages 40-59	83	2.35	.75		
	Ages 60+	15	1.83	.52		

[a] The frequencies of using "Research communication media (web-based channels)" and using "TTRA-endorsed media(non-academic channels)" are both measured on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.

[b] The perceptions of factors that influence research communication and media choice decisions are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.

[c] The levels of agreement on communication behaviour and motivation items are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.

*statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

Specifically, in rating the frequency of using research communication media in general, respondents are not significantly different by career stage in using either academic or practitioner-oriented channels; however they do appear to be significantly (albeit collectively) different in using web-based channels (F=2.875, p=.059) such as internet postings, websites, blogs, emails, and listservs. Respondents in each career stage appear to have often used these electronic communications, with no between-group differences identifiable from the post hoc tests.

Moreover, in terms of using TTRA-endorsed channels, no significant differences are found among the respondents in different career stages in using the academic-oriented media of the TTRA-endorsed publications. Nonetheless, they are found to be significantly different in using the non-academic genres (F=2.495, p=.086). In both cases, consistent with previous findings, TTRA-endorsed media appear to have been insufficiently consulted by the respondents regardless of career stages, with an average frequency of use between "rarely/never" to "sometimes". While no between-group differences are detected in the post hoc tests, respondents in their mid and late careers appear to have more use of non-academic media than the early career group. Results from this analysis seem consistent with a previous set of findings about insufficient utilization of TTRA-endorsed media in the membership community.

Furthermore, regarding perceptions of factors that influence communication and media choice decisions, the respondents are undifferentiated by career stages in their importance rating of audience-oriented and publishing-related factors (F=.709, p=.494 and F=.854, p=.428 respectively). Nevertheless, statistical differences are found in their ratings of media-oriented factor (F=2.799, p=.064). The respondents have collectively rated issues such as reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a medium, as "very important" in shaping their professional communication choices.

Finally, in view of communication behaviour by career stages, the ANOVA results point to a significant difference among these age groups in their motivations of going to association conferences (F=3.872, p=.023). By mean difference in their agreement ratings, respondents in this sample are not distinct by career stages in their tendency/preference in using TTRA media, in having purposes for their research communication, in publishing and/or using tourism research information, and in research collaborations.

Membership Categories

The impact of membership categories on the respondents' perceptions and behaviour with respect to research communication is also examined in this analysis. To test this set of null hypotheses, the respondents were grouped, according to their reported categories or status, into regular versus executive members (including board members and officers in both TTRA International and local chapters). A series of mean comparisons were undertaken with respect to the perceptions and behaviour of the two groups in research communication (Table 4-12).

Table 4-12. Differences between Regular and Executive/Board Members in Research Communication Perceptions and Behaviour

Aspects of communication perceptions and behaviour	Member	Scale of rating[a, b]			t	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Using research communication media (Non-academic channels)[a]	Regular	122	2.19	.59	**-1.711**	**.089***
	Executive	27	2.41	.68		
Using TTRA-endorsed media (Non-academic channels)[a]	Regular	125	1.87	.64	**-2.020**	**.045***
	Executive	26	2.14	.58		
Behavior and motivation (Motivations of going to TTRA conferences)[b]	Regular	113	2.27	.73	**1.996**	**.048***
	Executive	28	1.96	.79		

[a] The frequencies of using "Research communication media (non-academic channels)" and using "TTRA-endorsed media(non-academic channels)" are both measured on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.
[b] The levels of agreement on communication behaviour and motivation items are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
* statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

To begin with, regular and executive members are not significantly different in using either general academic channels or TTRA-endorsed academic channels. Both groups reported a relatively higher frequency of using general (non-association specific) academic media than TTRA-endorsed (association specific) media. Neither are they significantly different in using electronic communications for research. Nonetheless, significant differences between regular and executive members are found to exist in their using general non-academic channels (t=-1.711, p=.089) and specific TTRA-endorsed non-academic channels (t=-2.020, p=.045). In both cases, executive members have reported a relatively higher frequency of using these non-academic channels than the regular respondents, which might be explained by the responsibilities or duties of the respondents as association executives. With respect to the importance rating of factors that influence communication decisions and media choice, executives and regular members are not significantly different; they both regard audience- and media-oriented factors as "very important" in influencing research communication. Nor are significant differences found between the two groups by behavioural/motivational factors such as tendency and preference in using TTRA media, having a

clear purpose of research communication, publishing and/or using tourism research, and tourism research collaborations. Both executives and regular members agree that these factors explain their behaviour and/or motivation in professional communication. Nevertheless, on another behavioural factor—"the motivation of going to TTRA conferences", statistically significant differences (t=1.996, p=.048) are detected between regular and executive respondents in this survey. The mean comparison suggests that regular members are less motivated than executive respondents in their association-conference-going behaviour, which may also be related to the organizational commitments or responsibilities of the executive respondents. This set of null hypotheses is partially rejected on the basis of the above results.

Countries/Regions of Residence

In the research proposal, geographical attributes such as members' countries/regions of residence are also hypothesized as having an impact on the respondents' perceptions of and/or behaviour in their research communication. Based on frequency distributions by respondents' countries/regions of residence, the regional distribution variable was recoded in order to re-group the sample into three major regions: US, Canada and other regions. The next series of analyses of variance aim at testing the hypotheses about the respondents' communication perceptions and behavior in relation to their regions of residence (Table 4-13).

Table 4-13. Differences among Members by Region of Residence in Research Communication Perceptions and Behaviour

Aspects of communication perceptions and behaviour	Region	Scale of rating[a, b]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Factors in communication and media choice decisions (Media-oriented factor)[a]	US	82	3.61	.43	**4.575**	**.012**[*]
	Canada	42	3.57	.36		
	Other	30	3.33	.53		
Behaviour and motivation (Purpose of research communication)[b]	US	92	3.28	.51	**3.097**	**.048**[*]
	Canada	46	3.24	.51		
	Other	38	3.03	.56		
Behaviour and motivation (Publishing/using tourism research)[b]	US	92	2.91	.52	**2.371**	**.096**[*]
	Canada	46	2.72	.48		
	Other	38	2.89	.46		

[a] The perceptions of factors that influence research communication and media choice decisions (The media-oriented factor) are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
[b] Communication behaviour and motivation factors (Purpose of research communication, and Publishing/using tourism research) are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[*] statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

In terms of media use for research, there are no significant differences among respondents from the three broadly defined regions in utilizing academic and non-academic channels. Nor are they different in using TTRA-endorsed (academic and non-academic) media. Consistent to previous analyses, the respondents, regardless of regional distributions, appear to use general (non-association specific) research communication media slightly more often than they consult TTRA-associated communications.

Nonetheless, significant differences by regional distribution of the respondents seem to exist in two aspects of their communication perceptions and/or behaviour. First, respondents are significantly different by region in rating media characteristics (e.g., reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a medium) as "very important" in influencing their research communication and media choice ($F=4.575$, $p=.012$). Among them, respondents from the United States and Canada give slightly higher ratings of importance on these media attributes (Mean=3.61, SD=.43 and Mean=3.57, SD=.36 respectively), while respondents from other countries/regions attach slightly lower level of importance to such media attributes(Mean=3.33, SD=.53). According to Scheffe's post hoc test, the between-group differences are significant enough to suggest that respondents from the US and Canada and those from other world regions form two distinct groups.

Second, with respect to the five behavioural/motivational factors, while the respondents are undifferentiated by region in three dimensions (i.e., tendency/preference in using TTRA media, motivation of going to TTRA conferences, and tourism research collaborations), they are found to be significantly different from each other in having a clear purpose of research communication ($F=3.097$, $p=.048$) and in their publishing and using tourism research ($F=2.371$, $p=.096$). Specifically, through mean comparisons, respondents from the three regions have a collectively higher level of agreement on the value of "having purposes for research communication" than on "publishing and/or using tourism research". Despite such collective difference, no distinct groups are formed in the post hoc tests. Based on the above test statistics, the null hypotheses on research communication by regional distribution attributes are partially rejected.

Education and Disciplinary Backgrounds

The study has also looked at the potential impacts of educational and disciplinary preparations of the respondents on the perceptions of and/or behaviour in their research communication. One rationale behind such differentiations is to examine the potential effects of 1) highly research-oriented graduate

education (versus non-research-oriented educational preparation) and 2) broadly tourism-related training (versus backgrounds of training from other fields), on research communication perceptions and behaviour. Therefore, to test this set of null hypotheses, a couple for preparatory analyses were undertaken to create a composite demographic measure through recoding the education and background-of-training variables in the original survey. First, based on the reported levels of education of the respondents, a new variable with two groups was derived through recoding the sample into those with research-oriented graduate education and those without such preparations. Second, based on the multidisciplinary training backgrounds of the respondents, another new variable with two broad categories was created after recoding their reported backgrounds into those with training broadly in tourism, hospitality, and recreation and leisure studies; and those with training from other fields (e.g., agriculture, anthropology, sociology, business, economics, education, geography, history, laws, marketing, nature and environment, psychology, language and communication, transportation, and urban and regional planning). These form the basis for the generation of the composite demographic measure through combining the respondents' educational and disciplinary preparations. As a result, the four groups in this composite demographic measure are labelled as 1) tourism without graduate preparation, 2) tourism with graduate preparation, 3) other fields without graduate preparation, and 4) other fields with graduate preparation. Significant differences among these groups in various dimensions of research communication are summarized in Table 4-14.

Table 4-14. Differences in Research Communication Behaviour and Motivation by Educational/Disciplinary Preparations

Behaviour/ motivation	Education and discipline/field	Scale of rating[a, b]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Academic communication channels[a]	Tourism without graduate degree	10	1.77	.55	**8.200**	**<.001**[***]
	Tourism with graduate degree	53	2.81	.74		
	Other fields without graduate degree	25	2.07	.75		
	Other fields with graduate degree	64	2.50	.85		
Non-academic communication channels[a]	Tourism without graduate degree	10	2.53	.66	**3.241**	**.024**[*]
	Tourism with graduate degree	51	2.21	.64		
	Other fields without graduate degree	26	2.42	.62		
	Other fields with graduate degree	63	2.07	.52		
TTRA-endorsed (academic) media[a]	Tourism without graduate degree	11	1.42	.44	**3.090**	**.029**[*]
	Tourism with graduate degree	50	1.92	.61		
	Other fields without graduate degree	26	1.69	.57		
	Other fields with graduate degree	62	1.74	.47		
Tendency/ preference in using TTRA media[b]	Tourism without graduate degree	10	2.45	.56	**2.418**	**.069**[*]
	Tourism with graduate degree	53	2.88	.55		
	Other fields without graduate degree	27	2.62	.59		
	Other fields with graduate degree	64	2.72	.55		

	Tourism without graduate degree	11	3.61	.33	**2.328**	**.077***
Purpose of research communication[b]	Tourism with graduate degree	53	3.18	.60		
	Other fields without graduate degree	26	3.32	.44		
	Other fields with graduate degree	65	3.22	.50		

[a] The frequencies of using "Academic communication channels", "Non-academic communication channels" and "TTRA-endorsed (academic) media" are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.

[b] Behaviour and motivation factors (Tendency/preference in using TTRA media, and Purpose of research communication) are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.

*** statistically significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).

* statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

Specifically, survey respondents are significantly different in using academic (F=8.200, p<.001) and non-academic channels (F=3.241, p=.024). Generally, respondents with graduate training, regardless of tourism or non-tourism fields, are more likely to use academic communication channels. On the other hand, respondents without such research-oriented training, regardless of tourism or non-tourism, tend to use non-academic media more often. Scheffe's post hoc tests suggest that the sample appears to form two distinct sub-groups by whether they have received graduate training in the career preparation. Interestingly, disciplinary fields do not appear to have any effects in differentiating the respondents. The skills and preparations in doing and consuming research, inherited from graduate studies, appear to have a bearing on the respondents' frequency of using the research media. Nonetheless, given the large number of respondents with graduate training, this finding could be typical of members in a research association.

Similarly, regarding the use of TTRA-endorsed media, the same pattern holds true. Significant differences are found to exist among the four groups (F=3.090, p=.029). The between-group difference suggests that respondents with research training, regardless of fields, have a higher frequency of using academic communications, while those without tend to consult practitioner-oriented media more often. Post hoc tests also indicate that respondents fall into two distinct groups in research communication perceptions and behaviour by whether they have received research-oriented graduate training. Nonetheless, in other aspects pertinent to using communication media (e.g., in using non-academic channels, web-based means of communication, and TTRA-endorsed non-academic media), respondents are not significantly different by training. Neither are they different in rating the audience-oriented, media-oriented, and publishing-related factors in influencing their communication and media choice.

Finally, with respect to communication behaviour and motivations, significant differences exist among the four groups in their tendency/preference of using TTRA media (F=2.418, p=.069) and in

having clear purposes of/for research communication (F=2.328, p=.077). Nonetheless, despite such collective differences, distinct groupings are not formed in the post hoc tests.

4.2.4 Correlations between Research Communication and Conference Participation

As a perspective on the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community, it is assumed that members' participation in association conferences has a bearing on professional communications in the association community. Accordingly, respondents were asked to report the number of TTRA (both International and chapter) conferences they had attended in the past five years prior to this survey. Responses to this query are used as a ratio measure of the respondents' participation in association conferences to test the following hypothesis.

H_{37} There is no correlation between research communication and conference participation in the TTRA member community.

To understand the existence of the hypothesized relationships and their directions and potential strength, bivariate correlation and regression analyses are used respectively to examine the potential relationships between conference participation and communication behaviour or motivations. According to Pearson's Product-Moment correlations (Table 4-15), positive bearings are found between "motivation of going to TTRA conferences" and "tendency/preference in using TTRA media"(r=.329, p<.001), "purpose of research communication" and "participation in TTRA conferences"(r=.199, p=.009), and "motivation of going to TTRA conferences" and "behaviour in publishing and using tourism research"(r=.264, p<.001). Negative correlations are found between "motivation of going to TTRA conferences" and "tourism research collaboration" (r=-.253, p<.001).

Table 4-15. Correlations between Research Communication and Participation in TTRA Conferences[a, b, c]

	Participation in TTRA conferences	Tendency/ preference in using TTRA media	Motivation of going to TTRA conferences	Purpose of research communication	Behaviour in publishing/ using research
Tendency/pre-ference in using TTRA media	-.068 (.373) 173				
Motivation of going to TTRA conferences	-.150 (.061) 156	**.329***** **(<.001)** **156**			
Purpose of research communication	**.199**** **(.009)** **174**	**.185*** **(.014)** **174**	.029 (.721) 157		
Behaviour in publishing/ using research	-.063 (.412) 174	**.240***** **(<.001)** **174**	**.264***** **(<.001)** **157**	**.225**** **(.003)** **176**	

Research collaboration	-.026 (.736) 172	.113 (.141) 172	**-.253***** **(<.001)** **156**	.079 (.299) 174	**-.204**** **(.007)** **174**

[a] Participation in TTRA conferences is based on a ratio measure where higher scores reflect more conferences attended in the last five years.

[b] Research communication is measured on a 4-point scale on behavioural/motivational items where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.

[c] Correlations (*r*) are reported above, with probability (*p*) in the middle in parentheses, and number of respondents (*n*) at the bottom.

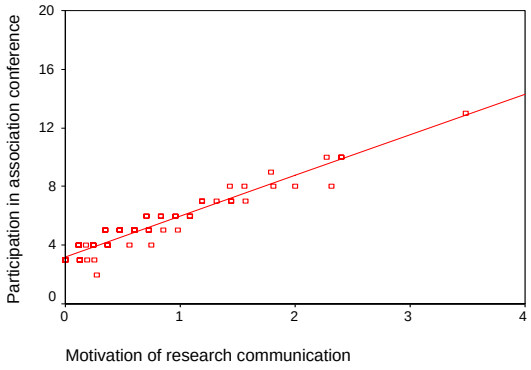
***Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

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

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

To some extent, it can be inferred that the higher the respondents agree on having a motivation of going to TTRA conferences, the more likely they will consult the association's media. In the same vein, the higher the respondents agree on having a clear purpose of research communication, the more likely they will participate in association conferences; and, in return, the more motivated the respondents are in association conference going, the higher their levels of agreement on behavioural attributes or tendencies in publishing and using tourism research. Conversely, in terms of negative correlations, it appears that the more involved they are in tourism research collaborations, the less motivated they become in association conference going. This could be explained as an intervening factor in convention participation by association members (Oppermann & Chon, 1997). Very often, while research collaborations and participation in conferences are similar or related events in terms of (or for the purpose of) research communication, they generate conflicts in the schedule and/or agenda in the respondents' communication decisions, especially for members in an applied research community.

A subsequent regression analysis confirms the correlations between motivation of research communication and participation in association conferences (Figure 4-9). Both the regression model ($F=7.07$, $p=.009$) and the regression co-efficient ($t= 2.66$, $p=.009$) are significant in explaining about 4% of the variance. The null hypothesis about research communication and conference participation in TTRA member community is rejected. Alternatively, it is found that, in many ways, research communications are positively related to members' participation in conferences. The more motivated they are in research communication, the more likely they will attend association conferences.



(r=.199; R^2=.039; B=1.05; SEE_y=2.77)

Figure 4-9. Relationships between Motivation in Research Communication and Participation in Association Conferences

4.3 Researcher Networking among TTRA Members

The second part of the survey asks respondents about their perceptions of and behaviour in researcher networking in the TTRA association community; data analysis is guided by four parallel sets of hypotheses. Like the previous section, these assumptions are scrutinized through testing potential differences between and/or among the respondents in terms of occupations (academics vs. practitioners), chapter affiliations, and other demographic attributes in affecting member networks or networking in the association community. The relationships between research networking and conference participation are described through correlation and regression analyses.

4.3.1 Academics and Practitioners

The differences between academics and practitioners in research networking are addressed in the first set of hypotheses:

> *$H_{38\text{-}39}$ There are no significant differences between academic and practitioner members in perceiving TTRA as influencing factors for networking; and in their research networking attitudes, behaviours and motivations.*

Based on respondents' jobs and/or occupations, the sample was divided into two distinct groups of academics (primarily of members from educational/research institutions) and practitioners (e.g., members from destination marketing organizations, CVBs, government tourism agencies, research companies, and various sectors of the tourism industries). Attributes of the two groups in networking perceptions and behaviour are examined through mean comparisons from t-test statistics.

To begin with, according to the nature and commonality (or shared characteristics) derived from an exploratory factor analysis, the various research networks included in the survey are categorized into 1) academic networks, which encompasses tourism academics; publishers and editors; students and teachers; research associations; research project teams or task forces; librarians, knowledge brokers, and information managers; and conferences, congresses and seminars; 2) practitioner networks (including special interest groups, collaborative/community groups, tourism businesses, business partners and clients, government agencies and CVBs, destination marketing organizations, and research associates and consultants); and 3) web-based networks (e.g., electronic mailing list or listservs). In their perceptions of the role of TTRA in facilitating the formation of and/or access to these networks, the two groups are not significantly different in rating the association as a facilitator of academic networks (t=1.191, p=.235) and web-based networks (t=-.682, p=.496). Both academics and practitioners unanimously agree that TTRA plays an important role in fostering the formation of scholarly networks and in facilitating access to electronic (virtual) professional networks. However, they are significantly different in viewing the role of TTRA in forming practitioner networks (t=-2.096, p=.038). In their importance ratings, non-academic members tend to think the formations of and/or access to practitioner networks are more likely attributable to the capacity of the association (Table 4-16).

Table 4-16. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Rating the Importance of TTRA in the Formation of and/or Access to Professional Networks

Professional networks by members	Level of importance[a]			t	p
	N	Mean	SD		
Academic networks (e.g., research associations; research project teams or task forces; tourism academics; publishers and editors; librarians, knowledge brokers, and information managers; students and teachers; and conferences, congresses and seminars)					
Academics…….	69	2.90	.60	1.191	.235
Practitioners……	98	2.78	.62		
Practitioner networks (e.g., special interest groups; collaborative/community groups; tourism businesses, business partners and clients; government agencies and CVBs; destination marketing organizations; and research associates and consultants)					
Academics……..	68	2.78	.63	**-2.096**	**.038***
Practitioners……	98	2.99	.63		
Electronic mailing lists and listservs					
Academics……..	67	2.64	.81	-.682	.496
Practitioners……	94	2.73	.87		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
*Statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

In item-specific mean comparisons, the two groups are significantly different in four aspects. Specifically, practitioners view the association as an important facilitator in forming professional

networks for members from government tourism agencies and CVBs (t=-1.725, p=.086), destination marketing organizations (t=-2.354, p=.020), research companies or research associates (t=-1.887, p=.061), and tourism businesses or partnership organizations (t=-2.212, p=.029). To some extent, given the number of TTRA members from the industries and government agencies, such a perception is not a surprise. The null hypothesis about the role of TTRA in facilitating research networks is therefore partially rejected.

Next, to examine potential differences between academics and practitioners in networking attitudes, behaviours and motivations, behavioural/motivational items in the survey were subject to a principal component analysis for the extraction of dimensions that share common characteristics. Some of these negatively worded items were first reverse-coded for consistency in rating prior to the factor analysis. Broadly, four factors are derived and summarized in Table 4-17.

Table 4-17. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Networking Attitudes, Behaviours, and Motivations

Networking attitudes/behaviours/motivations by members	Level of agreement[a]			t	p
	N	Mean	SD		
Passive in networking (e.g., unwillingness in maintaining member contacts; perceiving member contacts as unhelpful to professional/research work; conferences resulting in weak, loose, and short contacts; reluctance in making member contacts because of location; limited interactions among academics, government officers and business practitioners; and tendency to maintain contacts outside the association)					
Academics……..	70	2.12	.50	**-1.739**	**.084***
Practitioners……	103	2.27	.59		
Active in networking (e.g., receive benefits from member contacts; view networking with members as helpful in publishing research; view networking as more important than presenting research when going to TTRA conferences; maintain closer/stronger contacts within smaller groups of shared interests and/or similar personality traits)					
Academics……	70	2.74	.44	-1.214	.227
Practitioners……..	103	2.82	.45		
Time/situation-oriented networking (e.g., when one needs help from, or has something to offer/share with, other members)					
Academics……..	70	2.86	.60	.388	.699
Practitioners……	102	2.83	.49		
People-oriented networking (e.g., tendency or preference in getting to know new people, industry leaders, senior/distinguished researchers, keynote speakers, conference sponsors, and association executives during TTRA conferences)					
Academics…….	70	2.89	.48	-.166	.868
Practitioners……..	103	2.90	.43		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
*Statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

While academics and practitioners have consensus on active networking attributes (t=-1.214, p=.227), situation-oriented networking (t=.388, p=.699), and people-oriented networking (t=-.166, p=.868), the two groups differ significantly in viewing those negative or passive networking attributes (t=-1.739, p=.084). Specifically, practitioners have a higher level of agreement on the value of member contacts for professional work performance (t=-1.805, p=.073); they also tend to believe that member contacts are longer or stronger than most people would assume (t=-1.649, p=.100). On the basis of these results, the null hypothesis about networking attitudes, behaviour and motivation in the association community is also partially rejected.

4.3.2 Chapter Affiliations

One of the research questions addresses whether and how the chapter structure of TTRA facilitates or deters researcher networking in the membership community. This is done through examining the differences among members from different chapters with respect to their perceptions of and behaviours in professional networking. Data analysis is guided by the following set of hypotheses:

> *$H_{40\text{-}41}$ There are no significant differences among members in different chapters in perceiving TTRA as an influencing factor for networking; and in their research networking attitudes, behaviours and motivations.*

Because there are only a limited number of responses from four US-based chapters, a re-grouping of the sample was undertaken to generate a composite measure for this analysis. Basically, as noted earlier, the four small chapters were recoded into one group, so that the nine chapters in the original survey were reduced to six groupings: Canada, Europe, Greater Western, South Eastern, Central States, and other US-based chapters. This recoding has resulted in a reasonable size for each of the sub-groups for mean comparisons with respect to their perceptions, behaviour and motivation of professional networking.

Based on ANOVA test statistics in Table 4-18, no significant differences are found among members by chapters in rating the importance of TTRA in facilitating professional networking (F=1.689, p=.1414). With the exception of the composite chapter of "Other US States" (Mean=2.47, SD=.67), five of the original chapters almost unanimously rate TTRA as an important facilitator of research networks in the association community. Neither are respondents significantly different by chapter in rating the importance of TTRA in helping members remain connected electronically (F=1.251, p=.289).

Table 4-18. Differences among Members by Chapter in Rating the Importance of TTRA in the Formation of and/or Access to Professional Networks

Professional networks	Chapter	Level of importance[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Academic networks (e.g., research associations; research project teams or task forces; tourism academics; publishers and editors; librarians, knowledge brokers, and information managers; students and teachers; and conferences, congresses and seminars)	Canada	48	2.79	.59	1.689	.1414
	South Eastern	28	2.94	.49		
	Greater Western	21	2.98	.71		
	Central States	18	2.93	.46		
	Other US chapters	14	2.47	.67		
	Europe	12	2.91	.67		
Practitioner networks (e.g., special interest groups; collaborative/community groups; tourism businesses, business partners and clients; government agencies and CVBs; destination marketing organizations; and research associates and consultants)	Canada	48	2.86	.55	**2.023**	**.079***
	South Eastern	28	3.00	.55		
	Greater Western	21	3.07	.61		
	Central States	18	3.16	.34		
	Other US chapters	13	2.57	.83		
	Europe	12	2.86	.69		
Electronic mailing list and listservs	Canada	47	2.57	.88	1.251	.289
	South Eastern	28	2.82	.77		
	Greater Western	20	2.70	.80		
	Central States	17	2.88	.60		
	Other US chapters	13	2.46	.88		
	Europe	12	3.08	.90		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
*statistically significant at <.10 level.

On the other hand, the respondents are significantly different by chapter affiliation (F=2.023, p=.079) in rating the importance of TTRA in helping the formation of and access to practitioner networks. The mean comparisons between the chapters suggest that there exists some disagreement among the respondents in their importance rating. The three big US-based chapters (Central States, Greater Western, and South Eastern) tend to perceive TTRA as playing an important role in establishing practitioner networks, while other chapters (Canada, Europe, and other US-based chapters) attach slightly less importance to the association. Nonetheless, such variations appear to be a reflection of collective differences, as the second-stage multiple comparisons through post hoc tests did not yield any distinct groupings, which could be interpreted as collective difference significantly occurring among these chapter groupings, but none of them is different enough from the other (Diekhoff, 1992). Moreover, with respect to respondents' attitudes, behaviours and motivations towards research networking, no significant differences are found by chapters in the four extracted dimensions (Table 4-19).

Table 4-19. Differences among Members by Chapter in Attitudes, Behaviours, and Motivations towards Research Networking

Attitudes, behaviours, and motivations towards networking	Chapter	Level of agreement[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		

Passive in networking (e.g., unwillingness in maintaining member contacts; perceiving member contacts as unhelpful to professional work; conferences resulting in weak, loose, and short contacts; reluctance in making member contacts because of location; limited interactions among academics, government officers and business practitioners; and tendency to maintain contacts outside the association)	Canada	48	2.12	.57		
	South Eastern	28	2.10	.42		
	Greater Western	22	2.05	.56		
	Central States	18	2.25	.47		
	Other US states	15	2.22	.49	1.357	.244
	Europe	12	2.48	.66		
Active in networking (e.g., receive benefits from member contacts; view networking with members as helpful in publishing research; view networking as more important than presenting research when going to TTRA conferences; maintain closer/stronger contacts within smaller groups of shared interests and/or personality traits)	Canada	48	2.75	.44		
	South Eastern	28	2.87	.39		
	Greater Western	22	2.84	.42		
	Central States	18	2.75	.31		
	Other US states	15	2.77	.62	.344	.885
	Europe	12	2.83	.59		
Time/situation-oriented networking (e.g., when one needs help from, or has something to offer/share with, other members)	Canada	48	2.80	.65		
	South Eastern	28	2.80	.56		
	Greater Western	21	2.91	.37		
	Central States	18	2.78	.40	1.054	.388
	Other US states	15	2.78	.43		
	Europe	12	3.14	.39		
People-oriented networking (e.g., tendency or preference in getting to know new people, industry leaders, senior/distinguished researchers, keynote speakers, conference sponsors, and association executives during TTRA conferences)	Canada	48	2.86	.44		
	South Eastern	28	2.91	.44		
	Greater Western	22	2.98	.29		
	Central States	18	2.89	.32	.509	.769
	Other US states	15	2.96	.53		
	Europe	12	2.78	.42		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.

Comparatively, mean comparisons by chapters suggest that respondents have a relatively higher level of consensus on research networking being time/situation-oriented (that is, when one needs help from, or has something to share with, other members) or being driven by meeting or getting to know new people (regardless of industry leaders, senior/distinguished researchers, keynote speakers, and/or conference sponsors). In addition, respondents, regardless of chapter groupings, appear to have a relatively higher level of consensus on those active networking attributes than on the passive/negative ones. Nonetheless, it should be noted that it could be human nature to tend to rate more positively on the good (e.g., receiving benefits from member contacts) and more negatively on the bad (e.g., perceiving member contacts as unhelpful to professional work).

4.3.3 Researcher Networking by Other Demographic Attributes

Like the first part of the survey, in addition to occupations and chapter affiliations, demographic attributes such as gender, career stage, membership characteristics (e.g., regular versus board/executive members), countries/regions of residence, and disciplinary backgrounds and levels of education are also used to examine potential differences among the respondents with respect to research networking. Data analyses are guided by the following parallel set of hypotheses:

$H_{42\text{-}55}$ There are no significant differences between/among the respondents by demographic attributes such as gender, age, membership categories, countries/regions of residence, and disciplinary backgrounds and levels of education, in perceiving TTRA as influencing factors for networking; and in their research networking attitudes, behaviours and motivations.

Gender

With respect to gender as an attribute in understanding researcher networking in the association community, the null hypothesis about respondents' perceptions of the role of TTRA in facilitating the formation of and access to professional networks is partially rejected. T-test statistics indicate that there are statistically significant differences between the gender groups in the importance ratings on a number of professional networks (Table 4-20).

Table 4-20. Gender Differences in Rating the Importance of TTRA in the Formation of and/or Access to Professional Networks

Professional networks	Gender	Level of importance[a]			t	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Electronic mailing lists/listservs in the tourism field	Male	77	2.53	.87	**-2.179**	**.031**[*]
	Female	75	2.83	.79		
Special interest groups in the tourism field	Male	77	2.66	.79	**-1.871**	**.063**[*]
	Female	71	2.92	.86		
Research project teams or task forces in tourism	Male	76	2.57	.87	**-2.966**	**.004**[**]
	Female	74	2.99	.87		
Collaborative, community-based knowledge networks in tourism	Male	72	2.64	.91	**-2.592**	**.011**[*]
	Female	73	3.00	.76		
Destination marketing organizations	Male	74	2.82	.93	**-2.097**	**.038**[*]
	Female	74	3.12	.79		
Conferences, congresses and/or seminars in travel and tourism	Male	78	2.92	.85	**-2.190**	**.030**[*]
	Female	73	3.21	.73		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
[**] statistically significant at <.01 level(2-tailed).
[*] statistically significant at <.10 level(2-tailed).

For instance, the respondents differ by gender in rating the role of TTRA in forming/accessing professional networks such as listservs (t=-2.179, p=.031), special interest groups in tourism (t=-1.871, p=.063), project teams/task forces (t=-2.966, p=.004), community knowledge networks (t=-2.592, p=.011), destination marketing organizations (t=-2.097, p=.038), and conferences/congresses/seminars (t=-2.190, p=.030). In each of these instances, female respondents tend to see TTRA as playing more of a role than males perceive in fostering such networks. Nonetheless, both groups are undifferentiated and rate TTRA as an important facilitator in forming and/or accessing professional networks such as tourism academics (t=-.115, p=.908), government

tourism agencies and CVBs (t=-1.210, p=.228), and research companies/research associates/consultants (t=.497, p=.620). These perceptions might be a reflection of the major compositions of association members.

Additionally, in view of potential gender differences in the respondents' attitudes, behaviour and motivations towards researcher networking (Table 4-21), no common factors were extracted in a preliminary principal component analysis. The respondents are not significantly different by gender in many of the behavioural/motivational items about research networking in the association community. Nevertheless, females tend to have a significantly higher level of agreement on the interest of getting to know new people (t=-2.022, p=.045) and meeting industry leaders (t=-1.736, p=.085) through attending TTRA conferences. Both groups are also significantly different in viewing networking with editors for the purpose of publishing research (t=-2.226, p=.028). Based on the above results, the null hypothesis about research networking by gender is partially rejected.

Table 4-21. Gender Differences in Respondents' Attitudes, Behaviours and Motivations towards Research Networking

Attitudes, behaviours, and motivations towards networking	Gender	Level of agreement[a]			t	p
		N	*Mean*	*SD*		
Networking with editors will help me publish my research.	Male	63	2.35	.79	**-2.226**	**.028***
	Female	60	2.67	.80		
I am interested in getting to know new people at TTRA conferences.	Male	81	3.20	.66	**-2.022**	**.045***
	Female	77	3.40	.61		
I am interested in getting to know industry leaders at TTRA conferences.	Male	80	3.05	.74	**-1.736**	**.085***
	Female	76	3.24	.59		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
*statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

Career Stage

As described earlier, for the sake of analysis, the eight age groups in the original survey were recoded to reflect three different career stages of the respondents: early career stage (ages 19-39), mid-career stage (ages 40-59), and late career stage (ages 60+). Analyses of variance are used to elucidate significant differences among members by career stages with respect to their research networking in the membership community. In terms of rating the importance of TTRA in facilitating the formation of and/or access to professional networks, ANOVA results suggest that none of the groups significantly differs from each other in recognizing the association's role in fostering academic and practitioner networks (F=.483, p=.618 and F=1.312, p=.272 respectively); respondents in different career stages unanimously attach importance to the association. Neither are they significantly different in acknowledging TTRA's role in facilitating electronic/web-based networks (F=.462,

p=.631); in general, the respondents have a relatively lower level of consensus on the perceived importance of the association in forming virtual networks.

With respect to attitudes, behaviours, and motivations towards professional networking, no significant differences exist among members in different career stages. The respondents have an undifferentiated and relatively higher level of consensus on "time/situation-oriented networking" (F=1.972, p=.143), e.g., getting involved in member networking when one needs help from, or has something to share with, other members; and on "people-oriented networking" (F=1.980, p=.142), e.g., in their stated tendency or preference in getting to know new people, industry leaders, senior/distinguished researchers, keynote speakers, conference sponsors, and association executives during TTRA conferences. They are not different either in their attitudes (passive and proactive) towards professional networking (F=1.684, p=.189 and F=.128, p=.880 respectively); yet their levels of agreement are relatively lower than on the two previous dimensions. On this basis, the hypothesis about career stages in research networking is accepted; more evidences are needed to justify this underlying assumption.

Membership Categories

The impact of membership categories on the respondents' perceptions and behaviour with respect to professional networking is also examined in this analysis. To test this set of null hypotheses, the respondents were coded into regular versus executive members (including board members and officers in both TTRA International and local chapters). T-test statistics are used to examine any potential differences between the two groups (Table 4-22).

Table 4-22. Differences between Regular and Executive Members in Research Networking Perceptions and Behaviour

Perception and behavioural dimensions	Member	Scale of rating[a, b]			t	p
		N	*Mean*	*SD*		
Practitioner networks[a]	Regular	126	2.86	.63	**-1.850**	**.066**[*]
	Executive	29	3.10	.58		
Passive/negative attitudes towards networking[b]	Regular	126	2.22	.54	**3.657**	**<.001**[***]
	Executive	30	1.84	.38		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
[b] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[***] statistically significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).
[*] statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

Specifically, regular and executive respondents are not different in rating the role of TTRA in facilitating academic and electronic networks (t=1.118, p=.265 and t=.551, p=.582 respectively); they have highly agreed, based on mean comparisons, on the importance of the association as a facilitator

of networking. They are not different either in terms of positive attitudes towards networking (t=-1.093, p=.276), time/situation-oriented networking (t=-.232, p=.817), and people-oriented networking (t=.509, p=.612). The mean comparisons in the rating of these dimensions suggest that their levels of consensus are relatively high, close to "important". On the opposite side, statistically significant differences are found in their rating of TTRA as a facilitator of "practitioner networks" (t=-1.850, p=.066), in which case the executive respondents see TTRA as playing a more important role than regular members. In addition, they also significantly differ in reaching a consensus on "passive/negative attitudes towards professional networking"(t=3.657, p<.001). In this instance, regular members agree more strongly on the negative/passive aspects of networking than the executives. The null hypothesis about research networking by membership categories is partially rejected.

Countries/Regions of Residence

Same as in the previous section, countries/regions of residence are hypothesized as having an impact on the respondents' perceptions of and/or behaviour in professional networking. Consistent with the previous recoding, geographical distributions of the sample are re-grouped into three major regions: US, Canada and other regions. Analyses of variance are used to test the hypotheses about the respondents' networking perceptions and behavior in relation to their regions of residence (Table 4-23).

Table 4-23. Differences among Members by Region of Residence in Research Networking Perceptions and Behaviour

Perception and behavioural dimensions	Region	Scale of rating[a, b]			F	p
		N	*Mean*	*SD*		
Electronic mailing lists and/or listservs[a]	US	88	2.69	.82	**2.433**	**.091**[*]
	Canada	45	2.56	.87		
	Other	34	2.97	.83		
Passive/negative attitudes towards networking[b]	US	92	2.12	.50	**10.224**	**<.001**[***]
	Canada	47	2.14	.59		
	Other	41	2.56	.57		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
[b] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[***]statistically significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).
[*]statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

Specifically, respondents are not significantly differentiated by regions of residence in their importance ratings of the association as a facilitator of both academic and practitioner networks (F=.218, p=.804 and F=.382, p=.683 respectively); they all view TTRA as important (close to 3) in performing such functions, yet, according to mean difference between the groups, none of them is

different enough from each other to form distinct groups. However, respondents are significantly different by region in viewing the role of TTRA in fostering electronic networks (F=2.433, p=.091); those from outside North America view the association as performing a significantly more important role than Canadian and US members. Scheffe's post hoc tests suggest that two distinct groups—members in US and Canada versus respondents from other world regions—are resultant from these multiple comparisons.

With respect to networking attitudes, behaviour and motivations, no significant differences are found among respondents from these regions in holding "positive attitudes towards professional networking" (F=.291, p=.748), and in weighting "time/situation-oriented networking"(F=1.546, p=.216) and "people-oriented networking" (F=.048, p=.954), respectively. They all highly agree with these behavioural/motivational dimensions about research networking. On the other hand, they are significantly different in viewing or perceiving the dimensions related to "passive/negative attitudes towards networking" (F=10.224, p=<.001). In this instance, respondents from other world regions agree more strongly on passive networking attributes than their North American (US and Canadian) counterparts, with two distinct groups resultant from Scheffe's post hoc mean difference tests. Based on these observations, the null hypothesis about research networking by country/region of residence is partially rejected.

Education and Disciplinary Backgrounds

As noted before, the study intends to examine the potential impacts of educational and disciplinary backgrounds of the respondents on the perceptions of and/or behaviour in their research networking in the membership community. The same scheme of recoding is used to elucidate the potential effects of 1) highly research-oriented graduate education (vs. non-research-oriented educational preparation) and 2) broadly tourism-related training (vs. backgrounds of training from other fields), on networking perceptions and behaviour. A composite measure was created through recoding the education and background-of-training variables in the original survey. First, the sample was regrouped into those with research-oriented graduate education versus those without such preparations. Second, the reported backgrounds of training of the respondents were also classified into two broad categories: those with training in tourism, hospitality, and recreation and leisure studies; and those with training from other fields (e.g., agriculture, anthropology, sociology, business, economics, education, geography, history, laws, marketing, nature and environment, psychology, language and communication, transportation, and urban and regional planning). These form the basis for the

generation of the composite demographic measure through combining the respondents' educational and disciplinary preparations. Accordingly, the resultant groups in the new composite demographic measure are labelled as 1) tourism without graduate preparation, 2) tourism with graduate preparation, 3) other fields without graduate preparation, and 4) other fields with graduate preparation. Differences among these groups in networking perceptions are summarized in Table 4-24.

Table 4-24. Differences by Educational/Disciplinary Preparations in the Perceptions of TTRA as a Facilitator of Research Networks

Perceptions	Education and discipline/field	Scale of rating[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Academic networks	Tourism without graduate degree	11	2.86	.57	**3.137**	**.027***
	Tourism with graduate degree	53	3.03	.66		
	Other fields without graduate degree	27	2.71	.54		
	Other fields with graduate degree	64	2.71	.58		
Practitioner networks	Tourism without graduate degree	11	3.24	.41	**3.086**	**.029***
	Tourism with graduate degree	53	2.93	.66		
	Other fields without graduate degree	26	3.05	.47		
	Other fields with graduate degree	64	2.74	.65		

[a] The perceptions of TTRA as a facilitator of networks are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
*statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

First, in terms of the perceptions of TTRA in facilitating professional networks, the respondents are not significantly different by training in perceiving the association's role in forming or accessing electronic networks in tourism (F=.037, p=.991); the importance of the association in fostering electronic networks is perceived as moderate. Nonetheless, respondents among these groups significantly differ in perceiving the role of TTRA in fostering academic and practitioner networks (F=3.137, p=.027 and F=3.086, p=.029 respectively). While, in both dimensions, they perceive the association's role as important, these sub-groups are not sufficiently different from one another in forming distinct groups.

Second, with respect to attitudes, motivation and behaviour in professional networking, no significant differences are found among these groups. Collectively, they have a high level of consensus on professional networking driven by specific circumstances or situations such as seeking help from the membership community (F=2.076, p=.106); they also have moderate consensus on networking motivations such as meeting new people or getting to know keynote speakers, distinguished researchers, industry leaders, and/or conference sponsors (F=1.184, p=.318). With respect to attitudes, their consensus on positive/proactive networking (F=.662, p=.577) is comparatively higher than on negative/passive networking (F=.238, p=.869). Therefore, the

hypothesis about perceptions and behaviour in professional networking by educational/training attributes is partially rejected.

4.3.4 Correlations between Researcher Networking and Conference Participation

As an additional perspective on the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community, it is hypothesized that professional networking in the association community is correlated with members' participation in association conferences. Accordingly, in the survey, respondents were solicited about the number of TTRA (both International and chapter) conferences they had attended in the past five years. With this variable in ratio measure, the following hypothesis is tested.

H_{56} There is no correlation between researcher networking and association conference participation in the TTRA membership community.

Bivariate correlation and regression analyses are used to examine the direction and strength of such relationships (if there are any). Correlation statistics suggest that participation in TTRA conferences is negatively associated with members' passive attitudes towards networking (r= -.363, p<.001); in other words, the more passive the respondents' attitudes, the less frequently they will participate in association conferences (Table 4-25). Positively, active attitudes are strongly associated with time/situation-oriented networking (r=.432, p<.001) and people-oriented networking (r=.395, p=.001), so is the correlation between meeting new people and seeking assistance from the membership community (r=.336, p<.001).

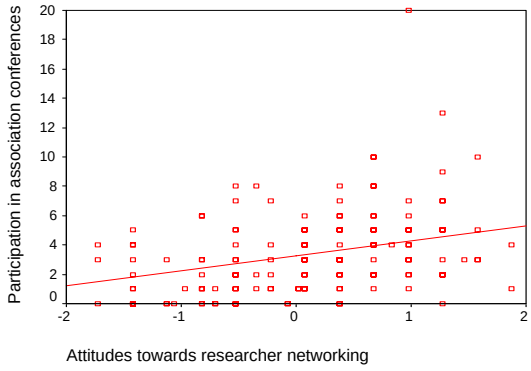
Table 4-25. Correlations between Researcher Networking and Participation in TTRA Conferences[a,b,c]

	Participation in TTRA conferences	Passive networking	Active networking	Time/situation-oriented networking
Passive networking	**-.363**[**] **(<.001)** **175**			
Active networking	.065 (.395) 175	-.079 (.291) 180		
Time/situation-oriented networking	-.026 (.734) 174	-.053 (.485) 179	**.432**[**] **(<.001)** **179**	
People-oriented networking	-.123 (.105) 175	.027 (.715) 180	**.395**[**] **(<.001)** **180**	**.336**[**] **(<.001)** **179**

[a] Participation in TTRA conferences is based on a ratio measure where higher scores reflect more conferences attended in the last five years.
[b] Researcher networking is measured on a 4-point scale on behavioural/motivational items where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.

[c] Correlations (*r*) are reported above, with probability (*p*) in the middle in parentheses, and number of respondents (*n*) at the bottom.
[**] Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In view of the significant correlations between attitudes and conference attendance, a regression analysis was undertaken, through reverse coding of some negative attitudinal items, to confirm the relationships between passivity in researcher networking and participation in association conferences. Both the regression model (F= 26.28, p<.001) and the regression coefficient (t=8.95, p<.001) are highly significant in explaining about 13.2% of the variance. The null hypothesis is rejected. Alternatively, it is found that attitudes towards researcher networking are positively related to members' participation in conferences. The higher their levels of agreement with pro-active networking attributes, the more likely they will attend association conferences (Figure 4-10).



(r=.363; R^2=.132; B=7.33; SEE_y=2.63)

Figure 4-10. Relationships between Attitudes towards Researcher Networking and Participation in Association Conferences

4.4 Capacity of TTRA as an Applied Tourism Research Community

In the third part of the survey, the respondents were asked, through two questions, to report on their perceptions of and consensus on the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community. The first question lists a series of activities, conferences/events, and/or educational/professional development programs the association has been actively engaged in; the respondents were asked to rate, on a four-point scale, their perceived level of usefulness of these activities/events/programs in the capacity-building of the association community. In the second question, respondents' consensus is solicited through a series of statements on their perceptions of the association as a community and/or their willingness to participate in community service provisions. Data analysis is guided by another set of hypotheses. Like the two previous sections, these

assumptions are scrutinized through testing potential differences between/among the respondents by their occupations and chapter affiliations in affecting their perceptions of community capacity and willingness in providing community service. The relationships between community capacity and conference participation, and between community capacity and length of membership affiliation, are described through correlation and regression analyses.

4.4.1 Academics and Practitioners

The differences between academics and practitioners in their perceptions of the association capacity are addressed in this hypothesis:

> *H_{57} There are no significant differences between academics and practitioners in perceiving issues (or the usefulness of activities/events/programs) in the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community.*

Academics and practitioners appear to be highly consistent (or significantly undifferentiated) in rating the usefulness of TTRA's events/activities for the association's capacity-building (Table 4-26). It can be inferred from the mean comparison that all the included activities or events are perceived as "useful" and/or close to "very useful" in building the capacity of TTRA as an applied research community. Significant differences appear to exist in two aspects related to association conferences, e.g., conference networking (t=1.791, p=.075) and conference location (t=2.147, p=.033). In both cases—conference networking (Mean=3.71, SD=.54) and conference venue (Mean=3.34, SD=.66), academics rate these aspects as more useful than practitioners in keeping TTRA members together.

Table 4-26. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in Perceiving the Usefulness of Events, Activities and Programs in Building Association Capacity

Events, Activities and Programs of TTRA	Members	Scale of rating[a]			t	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Timely updates of member activities in newsletters	Academics	69	3.10	.69	1.217	.225
	Practitioners	100	2.96	.78		
Keynote or plenary sessions at conferences	Academics	70	3.01	.71	-.683	.496
	Practitioners	95	3.09	.77		
Concurrent sessions of association conferences	Academics	69	3.16	.66	.996	.321
	Practitioners	96	3.05	.70		
Academic/practitioner roundtables at conferences	Academics	70	3.26	.74	.892	.374
	Practitioners	97	3.14	.85		
Pre-/post-conference tours, or case study tours	Academics	67	3.00	.85	.930	.354
	Practitioners	93	2.87	.88		
Social events (dancing, banquets, hospitality suites)	Academics	69	3.35	.74	1.007	.315
	Practitioners	100	3.23	.75		

Conference programs in meeting members' interest	Academics	68	3.51	.61	.780	.436
	Practitioners	100	3.44	.61		
Educational/professional development programs	Academics	68	3.06	.84	-.212	.833
	Practitioners	93	3.09	.78		
Networking during conferences	Academics	70	3.71	.54	**1.791**	**.075***
	Practitioners	99	3.55	.64		
Date/time of a conference	Academics	69	3.22	.70	.879	.381
	Practitioners	96	3.11	.77		
Location/venue of a conference	Academics	68	3.34	.66	**2.147**	**.033***
	Practitioners	97	3.10	.71		
Potential costs of attending a conference	Academics	65	3.20	.79	.651	.516
	Practitioners	88	3.11	.82		
Making available membership directories	Academics	68	3.34	.75	.241	.810
	Practitioners	97	3.31	.77		
Being included in mailing lists/listservs	Academics	70	3.31	.67	1.467	.144
	Practitioners	100	3.16	.68		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all useful, 2=not very useful, 3=useful, and 4=very useful.
*statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

The respondents are not different by occupations in terms of community perception and community service attributes (Table 4-27). There appears to be a significantly undifferentiated and consistently moderate level of consensus on three statements: "I wish someday to become an executive/board member of TTRA", "I have served or wish to continue serving TTRA as an executive member", and "When something happens to TTRA, I'll do my best to help". This could be a reflection of a lack of enthusiasm or willingness among TTRA members in providing community service. Arguably, given the nature of TTRA being a non-profit organization with heavy reliance on volunteers for community service, the availability of time and money for such endeavors may also appear as factors in the association's capacity building. With these exceptions, consensus between academics and practitioners appears to be high and consistent on all other dimensions related to community perception and capacity-building. Both academics and practitioners strongly agree that they are proud of their membership, they both experience a sense of community while attending TTRA conferences, and they are both optimistic in a further expansion of the membership community. With these observations, the null hypothesis about the perceptions of association capacity by academic versus practitioner members is not rejected.

Table 4-27. Differences between Academics and Practitioners in their Perceptions of TTRA as a Community and their Willingness to Provide Community Services

Community perceptions and community services	Members	Level of agreement[a]			t	p
		N	Mean	SD		
I am proud to be a TTRA member.	Academics	65	3.31	.66	-.239	.811
	Practitioners	100	3.33	.53		
I feel at home while attending TTRA conferences.	Academics	62	3.26	.79	.462	.645

	Practitioners	88	3.20	.63		
I am willing to work as a volunteer for TTRA.	Academics	67	3.00	.72	.272	.786
	Practitioners	97	3.03	.71		
I know the mission and vision of the association.	Academics	65	2.85	.80	-1.270	.206
	Practitioners	96	3.00	.73		
TTRA's mission and vision statements are realistic and appropriate.	Academics	51	3.24	.62	.070	.944
	Practitioners	79	3.23	.58		
In case of unjustified criticisms of TTRA, I am ready to defend it.	Academics	57	2.98	.83	-1.513	.133
	Practitioners	86	3.16	.59		
I am willing to participate in business meetings.	Academics	64	3.06	.66	-1.141	.256
	Practitioners	99	3.18	.64		
I encourage others to become/renew TTRA membership.	Academics	62	3.06	.72	-.815	.416
	Practitioners	96	3.16	.67		
When something happens to TTRA, I'll do my best to help.	Academics	48	2.85	.74	-.573	.568
	Practitioners	64	2.94	.77		
I wish someday to become an executive/board member of TTRA.	Academics	59	2.42	.83	-1.643	.103
	Practitioners	80	2.66	.86		
I have served or wish to continue serving TTRA as an executive member.	Academics	31	2.58	1.03	-1.271	.208
	Practitioners	47	2.87	.97		
TTRA will expand and grow in the years to come.	Academics	59	3.10	.58	-1.116	.266
	Practitioners	89	3.22	.70		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.

4.4.2 Chapter Affiliations

Using the same recoding scheme as noted before, potential differences among members by chapter affiliations are examined through the following hypothesis with respect to their perceptions of association capacity and community service:

> *H_{58} There are no significant differences between members in different chapters in perceiving issues (or the usefulness of activities/events/programs) in the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community.*

First, based on an initial exploratory factor analysis, the 14 items pertaining to association's activities, events and/or programs in the survey were recoded into two broad categories: the conference-related dimensions versus non-conference-related aspects (Table 4-28). According to ANOVA test statistics, respondents are not significantly different by chapter affiliations. They unanimously perceive conference- and non-conference-related dimensions as "useful" in keeping TTRA members together (F=.320, p=.900 and F=.471, p=.797 respectively). Mean comparisons suggest that respondents generally view both association conferences and other activities or programs of equal importance in association capacity-building, regardless of chapter affiliations.

Table 4-28. Differences among Members by Chapter in Perceiving the Usefulness of Events, Activities and Programs in Building Association Capacity

Events, Activities and Programs of TTRA	Chapter	Scale of rating[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Conference-related events, activities and programs (e.g., keynote/plenary sessions, concurrent sessions, academic/practitioner roundtables, pre-/post-conference or case study tours, social events, program content, networking, and time, location, and potential cost in attending a conference)	Canada	48	3.19	.47	.320	.900
	South Eastern	28	3.24	.31		
	Greater Western	22	3.27	.26		
	Central States	18	3.23	.31		
	Other US States	15	3.31	.54		
	Europe	12	3.17	.46		
Non-conference-related events, activities and programs (e.g., member activities in newsletters, educational/professional development programs, making available membership directories, being included in mailing list/listservs)	Canada	48	3.16	.57	.471	.797
	South Eastern	28	3.21	.47		
	Greater Western	22	3.26	.43		
	Central States	18	3.07	.50		
	Other US States	15	3.27	.77		
	Europe	12	3.06	.57		

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all useful, 2=not very useful, 3=useful, and 4=very useful.

Second, in the same way, the 12 statements pertinent to community perception and service in the survey were also recoded, through computing the mean of these variables, into two composite measures: "perceptions of TTRA as a community" and "willingness to provide community service" (Table 4-29). As can be seen from the test statistics, respondents are not differentiated by chapter affiliations in their perceptions of TTRA as a community (F=.776, p=.568) and their willingness to provide community service (F=1.700, p=.138). Comparatively, in terms of mean comparisons, these respondents, regardless of chapter affiliations, have a higher consensus on community perceptions than on community service. For example, they are proud of their membership, feel at home while attending association conferences, and express a tendency to encourage others to join the same association. Nonetheless, consensus on their enthusiasm and/or willingness to engage in community service provision is not as high. Based on these results, the above hypothesis about community perception and community service by chapter structures is also accepted.

Table 4-29. Differences among Members by Chapter in their Perceptions of TTRA as a Community and their Willingness to Provide Community Services

Community perceptions and community services	Chapter	Level of agreement[a]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Perceptions of TTRA as a community (e.g., proud to be a member, encourage others to become members, feel at home while attending conferences, know its mission and vision, defend and justify its position, anticipating expansion and growth)	Canada	47	3.18	.53	.776	.568
	South Eastern	27	3.09	.45		
	Greater Western	22	3.15	.39		
	Central States	18	3.07	.45		
	Other US States	15	3.05	.26		
	Europe	12	2.90	.71		
Willingness to provide community service (e.g., willingness to work as a volunteer, willingness to participate in association's business meetings, having served or wish to be able to serve the	Canada	47	3.04	.63	1.700	.138
	South Eastern	27	2.88	.65		
	Greater Western	22	2.92	.82		
	Central States	18	2.93	.52		
	Other US States	15	2.53	.59		

association community)	Europe	12	2.68	.71

[a] based on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.

4.4.3 Correlations between Association Capacity and Conference Participation

The following hypothesis postulates an assumption of relationships between association conference participation and capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community. As noted earlier, respondents were asked to report the number of TTRA (both International and chapter) conferences they had attended in five years. Bivariate correlation and regression analyses are used for this analysis.

H_{59} There is no correlation between association capacity and association conference attendance in the TTRA member community.

As illustrated in Table 4-30, Pearson correlations suggest that participation in TTRA conferences is strongly and positively correlated with perceptions of the association as a community (r=.376, p<.001) and community service (r=.363, p<.001). In comparison, survey respondents have indicated an even stronger, positive correlation between community perception and community service (r=.631, p<.001) than the previous dimensions.

Table 4-30. Correlations between Participation in TTRA Conferences and Association Capacity[a, b, c]

	Participation in TTRA conferences	Perceptions of TTRA as a community
Perceptions of TTRA as a community	**.376**[***] **(<.001)** **171**	
Community service	**.363**[***] **(<.001)** **171**	**.631**[***] **(<.001)** **176**

[a] Participation in TTRA conferences is based on a ratio measure where higher scores reflect more conferences attended in the last five years.
[b] Association capacity is measured on a 4-point scale on behavioural/perceptual items where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[c]Correlations (*r*) are reported above, with probability (*p*) in the middle in parentheses, and number of respondents (*n*) at the bottom.
[***]Correlation is significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).

As these capacity attributes (i.e., perceptions of TTRA as a community and community service) are strongly and positively correlated with association conference attendance, a multiple regression analysis was undertaken, with a stepwise method, to confirm the significance of these correlations (Table 4-31). The two regression models are both statistically significant to support such correlations. In a stepwise analysis, the first regression predictor—perception of TTRA as a community—is able to

explain 14.1% of the variance, with the second predictor—community service—explaining 16.8% of the remaining variance.

Table 4-31. Multiple Regression of Participation in TTRA Conferences and Association Capacity

Stepwise predictors	*r*	R^2	*Standardized coefficients (β)*	*SEE*
Perception of TTRA as a community[1]	.376	.141	.376	2.62
Community service[2]	.410	.168	.245	2.59

[1] Regression model significance (F=27.77, p<.001); regression coefficient significance (t=5.27, p<.001).
[2] Regression model significance (F=16.98, p<.001); regression coefficient significance (t=2.72, p=.007).

On the basis of the above correlation and regression results, the null hypothesis is rejected. Alternatively, it is found that members' participation in association conferences is positively and strongly related to the capacity of TTRA as an applied tourism research community. The more conferences they attend, the more likely they will perceive their association as an applied research community.

4.4.4 Correlations between Association Capacity and Length of Membership Affiliation

Additionally, in the survey, respondents were asked to report their affiliation with TTRA in a cumulative number of membership years. Data solicited through this question result in another ratio-scale variable to reflect the respondents' length of TTRA membership. This is used to examine the proposed relationship between association capacity and length of membership affiliation through the following hypothesis:

> *H_{60} There is no correlation between association capacity and length of affiliation in the TTRA member community*.

According to Pearson's correlations (Table 4-32), length of membership affiliation is positively, albeit not as strongly, correlated with perceptions of the association as a community (r=.202, p=.012) and community service (r=.173, p=.033). In other words, more evidences are needed to justify the assumption that the longer a respondent is affiliated with TTRA as a member, the greater the sense of the association community she or he feels.

Table 4-32. Correlations between Association Capacity and Length of Affiliation in the TTRA Member Community[a, b, c]

	Length of affiliation	Perceptions of TTRA as a community
Perceptions of TTRA as a community	**.202**[*] **(.012)** **153**	
Community service	**.173**[*] **(.033)** **153**	**.631**[***] **(<.001)** **176**

[a] Length of affiliation with TTRA is based on a ratio measure where higher scores reflect longer cumulative years of membership affiliations.
[b] Association capacity is measured on a 4-point scale on behavioural/perceptual items where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[c]Correlations (*r*) are reported above, with probability (*p*) in the middle in parentheses, and number of respondents (*n*) at the bottom.
[***]Correlation is significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).
[*]Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Similarly, the significance of these correlations was tested through the following analysis. As capacity attributes (i.e., perceptions of TTRA as a community and community service) are positively correlated, albeit in varying degree, with length of affiliation, a multiple regression analysis was undertaken to confirm the correlations between these dimensions (Table 4-33). While the two regression models and regression coefficients are statistically significant to support the above correlations, the two stepwise predictors have a slightly lower capacity in explaining the amount of variance, with the first predictor—perception of TTRA as a community—explaining 4.1% of the variance and the second—community service—explaining 4.4% of the remaining variance.

Table 4-33. Multiple Regression of Length of Affiliation and Association Capacity

Stepwise predictors	*r*	R^2	*Standardized coefficients (β)*	*SEE*
Perception of TTRA as a community[1]	.202	.041	.202	8.14
Community service[2]	.211	.044	.154	8.15

[1] Regression model significance (F=6.42, p=.012); regression coefficient significance (t=2.54, p=.012).
[2] Regression model significance (F=3.48, p=.033); regression coefficient significance (t=1.52, p=.132).

Accordingly, these correlation and regression results support the rejection of the null hypothesis. Alternatively, it is found that the capacity of TTRA as an applied tourism research community is positively, albeit not very strongly, related to members' years of affiliation. To some extent, it suggests that the capacity of the association community may be related to more complicated issues or dimensions rather than simply correlated with apparent variables such as length of membership affiliations.

4.5 Typologies in Research Communication, Networking and Association Capacity

This section reports results on the potential clustering of the respondents by a number of extracted dimensions or factors pertaining to research communication, networking and capacity of the association community. Grouping techniques such as factor-cluster analyses are used for the generation of typologies or distinct groups based on the respondents' ratings, on a four-point scale, of the perceptual/behavioural/motivational attributes in communication, networking and association capacity-building. Operationally, while this part of the analysis is not guided by any hypotheses, principal component analyses are first used to extract meaningful factors in relation to communication, networking and association capacity. The extracted factors are then saved as criterion variables for further cluster analyses. The purpose of these analyses is to identify relatively homogeneous groups of respondents who share similar profiles on the derived factors. A series of factor-cluster analyses were undertaken on the interval measure variables (primarily survey questions 1-4 and 7-10). While the respondents cluster poorly or weakly on some factors extracted from these questions, they cluster strongly or more meaningfully on several other dimensions.

4.5.1 Clusters by Media Use in Research Communication

The respondents' media use behaviour was subject to a factor-cluster analysis to examine whether the sample falls into distinct typologies based on how and where they acquire professional information. To begin with, the reported frequencies of the respondents utilizing various information sources in their research communication were factor-analyzed (Table 4-34). Four dimensions of information sources—academic publications, online sources, trade publications, and word-of-mouth—are extracted, which cumulatively explains about 72.3% of the total variance in the respondents' information acquisition or media use. As indicated by the factor loadings, these factors are valid measures of the information sources, which are strongly associated with the underlying dimensions.

Table 4-34. Factor Analysis of Media Use in Research Communication (N=186)

Research communication media: Factors and items	Factor loading	Eigenvalue	Variance explained (%)
Factor 1: Academic Publications		2.579	28.652
Research journals	.911		
Books(e.g., authored texts, edited books, chapters, anthologies)	.894		
Conference/congress/seminar presentations or proceedings	.551		
Factor 2: Online Sources		1.801	20.014
Emails, listservs and electronic mailing lists	.887		
Internet postings, personal blogs or websites	.713		

Factor 3: Trade Publications		1.087	12.081
Trade magazines and newspapers	.930		
Newsletters and bulletins of associations	.662		
Factor 4: Word-of-Mouth		1.043	11.584
Workshops, training sessions	.890		
Professional, industry, government committees	.552		
Total variance explained (%)			72.331

These factors are then used as criterion variables for a hierarchical cluster analysis. A total of 168 respondents out of the original 186 in the sample have valid scores on these variables for the proposed analysis. Iterative steps are taken, in which two respondents (or two groups of respondents) are combined each time to minimize the total amount of variance introduced in the hierarchical clustering. In other words, two "individuals or groups" that are most alike on all of the extracted media-use factors are combined in each iterative stage. As a rule of thumb, clustering coefficients in the last 30 stages in the agglomeration schedule are used for a skree plot to examine incremental change (increase) in the introduced variance in the final stages of combining groups; percentage change in these coefficients is often used to help determine an optimal cluster solution. Based on parsimony—the minimum number of clusters that best represent relatively homogeneous subgroups and are of reasonable size, a four-cluster solution is adopted for further confirmatory or verification analyses (Figure 4-11).

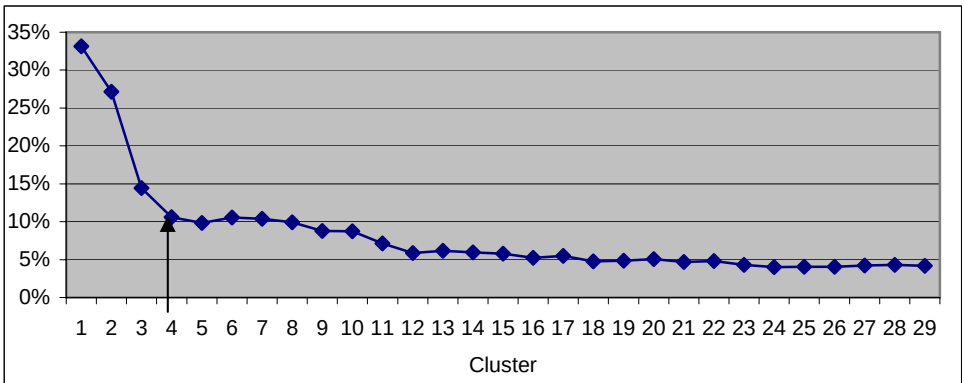


Figure 4-11. Skree Diagram: Clusters by Percentage Change in Agglomeration Coefficients (WGSS) on Media Use in Research Communication

The standardized mean scores on the four extracted factors for each of the clusters are examined in order to characterize the four clusters (or groups) of the respondents. Figure 4-12 illustrates the nature of each cluster according to the factors that describe the respondents' media use and/or information sources. By plotting the mean of standardized factor scores on the clusters (Mean=0.0, SD=1.0 for the study sample), it is possible to tell from the bar chart on which information sources

each cluster of the respondents rates positively or negatively in the frequency of media use for their research communication. For example, cluster 1 appears to have positive weightings on academic publications and online sources, with negative ratings on trade publications and word-of-mouth sources. Respondents in this cluster may be typical of a group of "pure academic members" who acquire research information primarily from scholarly publications and secondarily from the internet or web-based sources; they may consciously or unconsciously disregard industry/trade publications and other "informal" sources.

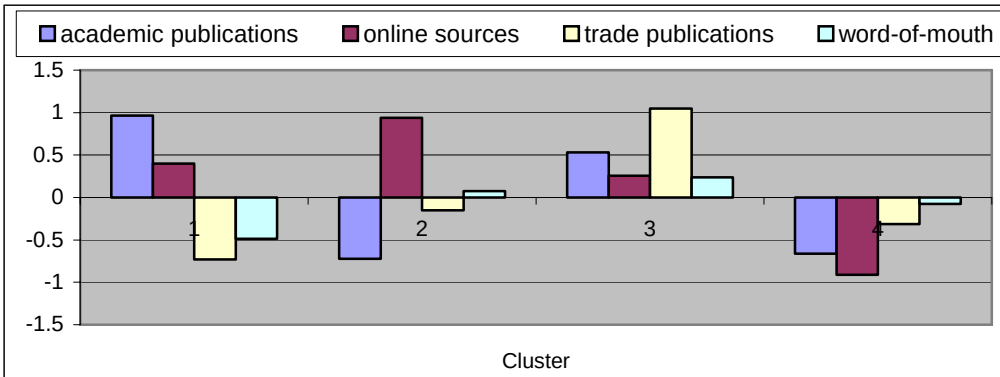


Figure 4-12. Clusters by Standardized Factor Mean Scores on Media Use in Research Communication

The second cluster is characterized by highly positive rating and heavy reliance on web-based sources. In fact, cyber space appears to be the only information source for these "heavy web users"; they seem to disregard academic publications, nor do they acquire much information from trade publications and other informal sources. The third cluster seems to be a "something-of-everything" group, who may be typical of members in an applied research community. They have a high rating on industry/trade publications; in the meantime, respondents in this cluster also give positive ratings on academic, internet, and other informal sources. In contrast, the fourth cluster appears to be the most negative of all in their rating of media use. They disregard all of the information sources. In particular, this "non-user" group appears to have the least consultation of web-based and academic sources.

Further, demographic profiles of the respondents are cross-tabulated to reveal who in the membership community constitutes these clusters. According to Chi-square statistics, these typologies are not significantly identifiable by membership status or positions in the association (X^2=3.486; df=3; p=.323); nor are they distinct by gender (X^2=.889; df=3; p=.828), chapter

affiliations (X^2=6.876; df=6; p=.332), career stages (X^2 =5.445; df=6; p=.488), regions of residence (X^2=8.561; df=6; p=.200), and educational/disciplinary backgrounds (X^2=5.823; df=3; p=.121). Nonetheless, the four clusters are characterized in two aspects by demographic attributes. First, in terms of occupational characteristics (Table 4-35), within-group comparisons suggest that users of pure academic sources are primarily composed of academic members themselves. There is a fairly equal number of both academics and practitioners in the association community that consult various types of information sources. Heavy web-users are largely represented by practitioners. So is the non-user group more often associated with practitioners. The distinction of these clusters by occupational characteristics are statistically significant (X^2=40.290; df=3; p<.001).

Table 4-35. Differences among Communication/Media-Use Clusters by Occupational Characteristics

Occupation	*Communication/media-use clusters*[a]			
	Pure academic	*Heavy web-user*	*Something-of-everything*	*Non-user*
Academics	30 (45.5%)	6 (9.1%)	19 (28.8%)	11 (16.7%)
Practitioners	7 (7.4%)	36 (37.9%)	23 (24.2%)	29 (30.5%)
Total	37 (23.0%)	42 (26.1%)	42 (26.1%)	40 (24.8%)

[a]Row percentage shown in parentheses
(X^2=40.290; df=3; p<.001)

Additionally, in terms of education, respondents with research-oriented training (e.g., with graduate degrees) are more likely than expected to cluster with the "pure academic" and "something-of-everything" groups. Those with insufficient research training constitute higher-than-expected counts in the "heavy web-user" and "non-user" clusters. Cross-tabulation of these results is also statistically significant (X^2=12.182; df=3; p=.007).

With the determination of the optimal number of clusters on media use in research communication, and consequently the derivation of a nominal variable which identifies the corresponding cluster that a respondent belongs to, a number of subsequent analyses are undertaken to verify how these clusters differ on other measures of research communication and to what extent they are justified as distinct groups. For example, these clusters are compared to see whether they are significantly different from one another in using TTRA-endorsed media, in rating the factors that influence their media choice decisions, and in perceiving their behaviour and motivation with respect to research communication. ANOVA tests confirm that these clusters are significantly different from one another to form distinct groups in a number of dimensions (Table 4-36).

Table 4-36. Differences among Media-use Clusters in Other Research Communication Measures

Other research communication measure	Media-use clusters	Scale of rating[a, b, c]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
TTRA-endorsed media (academic)[a]	Academic source & web	35	1.95	.47	**14.03**	**<.001**[***]
	Web only	41	1.65	.48		
	Something-of-everything	45	2.00	.59		
	Non-user	39	1.35	.43		
TTRA-endorsed media (non-academic)[a]	Academic source & web	36	1.88	.67	**3.53**	**.016**[*]
	Web only	42	1.89	.62		
	Something-of-everything	45	2.04	.64		
	Non-user	42	1.62	.50		
Factors that influence media choice decisions (Audience-oriented factors)[b]	Academic source & web	31	3.37	.40	**5.67**	**<.001**[***]
	Web only	35	3.12	.43		
	Something-of-everything	39	3.05	.49		
	Non-user	27	2.83	.70		
Behaviour and motivation (Tendency/preference in using TTRA media)[c]	Academic source & web	37	2.95	.48	**9.13**	**<.001**[***]
	Web only	42	2.65	.43		
	Something-of-everything	45	2.86	.52		
	Non-user	39	2.37	.67		
Behaviour and motivation (Motivation of going to TTRA conferences)[c]	Academic source & web	36	2.54	.71	**5.00**	**.002**[**]
	Web only	38	2.00	.71		
	Something-of-everything	39	2.34	.76		
	Non-user	36	2.02	.64		
Behaviour and motivation (Tourism research collaboration)[c]	Academic source & web	37	2.79	.56	**3.22**	**.024**[*]
	Web only	41	3.12	.49		
	Something-of-everything	44	3.06	.49		
	Non-user	41	3.09	.55		

[a] The frequencies of using "TTRA-endorsed media (academic and non-academic)" are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.
[b] Factors that influence media choice decisions (Audience-oriented factors) are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
[c] Communication behaviour and motivation (Tendency/preference in using TTRA media, Motivation of going to TTRA conferences, and Tourism research collaboration) are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[***] statistically significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).
[**] statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).
[*] statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

First, the four clusters are significantly different from one another in using TTRA-endorsed media (F=14.03, p<.001 and F=3.53, p=.016 respectively for academic and non-academic publications). Despite the relatively lower frequency of using association media, the mean comparison among these groups serves as a precise indication of the media use behaviour of these clusters. In terms of using TTRA-endorsed media, Scheffe's post hoc tests indicate that "the pure academic cluster" and "the web only cluster" form two distinct groups (p=.068) while the "something-of-everything cluster" and "the non-user cluster" are also distinct by themselves (p=.098).

Second, the four clusters are significantly different in terms of rating the importance of audience-oriented factors in influencing their media choice decisions ($F=5.67$, $p<.001$). It is interesting to note that the "non-user cluster" has the lowest mean among the four groups. In this measure of research communication, the four media-use clusters also form distinct groups ($p=.088$) in the post hoc tests.

Third, in research communication behaviour and motivation, significant differences among the clusters are found in three dimensions: their tendency/preference in using TTRA media ($F=9.13$, $p<.001$), their motivation of going to TTRA conferences ($F=5.00$, $p=.002$), and tourism research collaborations ($F=3.22$, $p=.024$). In the first two instances, the "web only" and the "non-user" clusters tend to have lower mean scores than the other two groups. In tourism research collaboration, however, the two clusters that positively use information sources appear to have lower mean scores in their consensus on communication behaviour and motivation (Mean=2.79, SD=.56 and Mean=3.06, SD=.49 respectively), which might be explained by their frequent access to professional information that would otherwise be acquired through research collaborations. In these three dimensions on communication behaviour and motivations, Scheffe's post hoc tests indicate that the four clusters form significantly distinct groups ($p=.096$, $p=.098$, and $p=.090$ respectively). Based on these verification tests, it seems that these clusters of information sources—"academic source & web", "web only", "something-of-everything", and "non-user" are valid descriptors of distinct typologies of media use among the respondents.

4.5.2 Clusters by Perceptions of Association Networks

In addition, with respect to research networks or networking, the respondents' perceptions of TTRA in facilitating professional networks are also used for a factor-cluster analysis. The purpose of this is to explore whether the sample falls into distinct clusters by their rating of the role of TTRA, on a 4-point scale of importance, in facilitating the formation of and/or access to member networks. Operationally, a principal component analysis, with varimax rotation, is undertaken for survey question 7, which outlines the various research networks in the association community (Table 4-37). Two factors—the academic and the practitioner networks—are extracted; the factor structure jointly explains about 56.2% of the variance in the respondents' perceptions of TTRA as a network facilitator. The relatively high factor loadings of the variables under each factor indicate the degree of commonality or shared characteristics of these items with the underlying dimensions.

Table 4-37. Factor Analysis of the Perceptions of TTRA as a Network Facilitator in the Association Community (N=186)

Professional Networks: Factors and Items	Factor loading	Eigenvalue	Variance explained(%)
Factor 1: Practitioner Network		6.763	45.809
Destination marketing organizations	.825		
Government tourism agencies and CVBs	.783		
Travel industry/tourism business practitioners	.723		
Business partners/clients	.681		
Research companies/research associates/consultants	.652		
Community tourism or knowledge networks	.612		
Research project teams or task forces in tourism	.602		
Electronic mailing lists/listservs in the tourism field	.567		
Professional/research associations in the tourism field	.556		
Factor 2: Academic Network		1.663	11.084
Tourism academics	.790		
Students and teachers (or apprentices and mentors)	.789		
Librarians/information managers/knowledge brokers	.705		
Special interest groups in the tourism field	.634		
Conferences, congresses and/or seminars in travel and tourism	.583		
Media/publishers/editors	.565		
Professional/research associations in the tourism field	.556		
Total variance explained (%)			56.173

Notably, the practitioner networks in the TTRA community are characterized by entities such as DMOs, CVBs and government tourism offices, industry/business practitioners, research associates or analysts, community tourism or knowledge networks, task forces, electronic groups/listservs, and professional associations. On the academic side, network constituents are academics from educational/research institutions such as teachers and students, librarians, research interest groups, publishers and editors, and research associations and conferences.

The two factors derived from the above principal component analysis were saved as composite measures and used as criterion variables. About 128 respondents in the sample have valid scores on these variables for the proposed cluster analysis. Same as before, the hierarchical clustering method is used, in which two "respondents or groups" that are most alike on the two extracted factors are combined in each iterative stage. According to the skree diagram in Figure 4-13 and based on parsimony, a three-cluster solution appears to be the optimal representation of relatively homogeneous subgroups in the perceptions of TTRA as facilitators of academic and practitioner networks in the membership community.

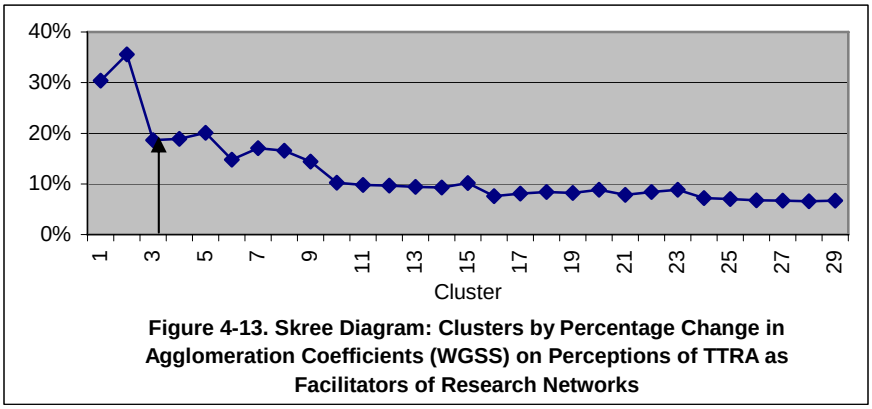


Figure 4-13. Skree Diagram: Clusters by Percentage Change in Agglomeration Coefficients (WGSS) on Perceptions of TTRA as Facilitators of Research Networks

The standardized mean score on the network factors for the three clusters are examined in order to describe these groups, that is, a scrutiny of the extent to which a cluster is homogeneous to a factor. The cluster-by-factor mean plot (Figure 4-14) illustrates the nature of each clustering according to the two factors that describe the perceptions of the association as a facilitator of member networks, as rated by the survey respondents.

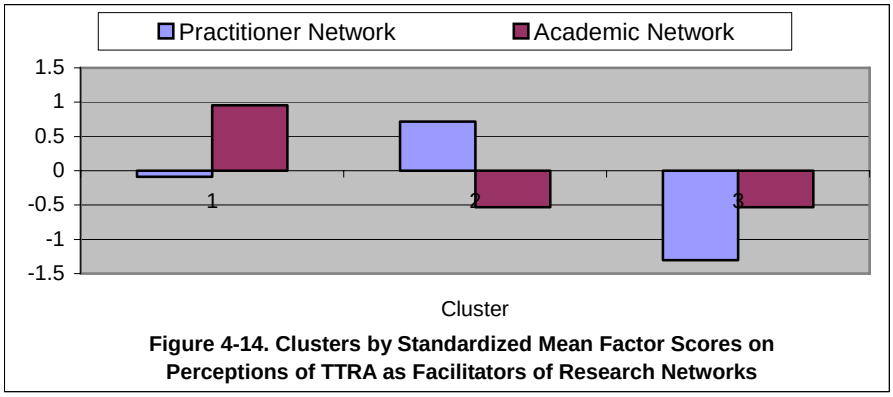


Figure 4-14. Clusters by Standardized Mean Factor Scores on Perceptions of TTRA as Facilitators of Research Networks

It is possible to tell, from the above bar chart, what type of networks—academics or practitioners—each of the three clusters of respondents perceive TTRA as a facilitator of. For example, cluster 1 appears to have positive perceptions of the association as fostering academic networks, with minimum negative perceptions of TTRA as useful for the forming of practitioner networks. On the contrary, the second cluster sees the association as a facilitator of practitioner networks; negatively and in much the same weight, members in this cluster also view the association as a deterrent to the formation of academic networks. The third cluster perceive TTRA as having little, if any, impact on the formation of and/or access to professional networks, regardless academics

or practitioners. Based on these characteristics in their positive and negative ratings on the association's role in facilitating professional networks, the respondents display distinct tendency or traits in their perceptions. Accordingly, for lack of better terms, the first cluster can be seen as a "pro-academic perception group", and the second a "pro-practitioner perception group". The third is a perceptually "indifferent group" who see TTRA as contributing little to professional networking in the association community.

Cross-tabulations of demographic profiles of the respondents suggest that the three network-perception clusters are not distinct by gender (X^2=2.261; df=2; p=.323), chapter affiliations (X^2=4.223; df=4; p=.377), career stages (X^2 =5.457; df=4; p=.244), and regions of residence (X^2=3.362; df=4; p=.499). Nonetheless, these typologies can be demographically described in terms of occupational differences, membership status or positions, whether a respondent has undergone research-oriented preparations, as well as by their educational or disciplinary backgrounds.

Take occupation as an example (X^2=14.271; df=2; p<.001). Notably, the observed instances of academic members clustering with the "pro-academic" group are higher than expected; so is the higher proportion of non-academic members identifiable with the "pro-practitioner" group. In the meantime, the "indifferent" group is more likely represented by academics than by practitioner members (Table 4-38).

Table 4-38. Differences among Network Perception Clusters by Occupational Characteristics

Occupation	*Network perception clusters*[a]		
	Pro-academic	*Pro-practitioner*	*Indifferent*
Academics	25 (49.0%)	12 (23.5%)	14 (27.5%)
Practitioners	17 (25.4%)	39 (58.2%)	11 (16.4%)
Total	42 (35.6%)	51 (43.2%)	25 (21.2%)

[a]Row percentage shown in parentheses
(X^2=14.271; df=2; p<.001)

By membership positions (X^2=6.093; df=2; p=.048), regular members are more pro-academic in network perceptions; so are the executives or board members more "pro-practitioners" in their perceiving of TTRA as a facilitator of research networks. Furthermore, the observed counts of regular members in the "indifferent" cluster are slightly higher than expected. Turning to research-oriented preparations (X^2=9.827; df=2; p=.007), respondents with graduate degrees are more often seen in the "pro-academic" cluster; so are those without such preparations more likely found in the "pro-practitioner" group; and the "indifferent group" is characterized by a significantly higher number of responses with graduate training. Finally, by educational or disciplinary backgrounds (X^2=5.016;

df=2; p=.081), tourism people (those broadly defined as having training in a field such as tourism, hospitality, recreation and leisure studies, etc.) are more likely pro-academic; respondents with training from a non-tourism field are more often associated with the "pro-practitioner" cluster. Respondents with training from outside are also more likely to fall into the "indifferent" cluster.

With the adoption of a three-cluster solution on members' perceptions of TTRA as a facilitator or deterrent of professional networking, the resultant nominal measure which is derived from the above cluster analysis is used in the subsequent verification analyses. The purpose of these undertakings is to confirm whether and to what extent the identified clusters represent relatively homogeneous sub-groups in other related measures. For example, the three clusters are compared to see whether they are significantly different from one another in using research communication channels or media, in their research communication behaviour and motivation, in professional networking attitudes, and in their perceptions of community capacity. ANOVA test statistics confirm that these clusters are significantly different from one another to form distinct groups in the following dimensions (Table 4-39).

Table 4-39. Differences among Network Perception Clusters in Other Measures of Research Communication, Networking and Association Capacity

Other measures	Network perception clusters	Scale of rating [a, b, c]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Research communication channels (non-academic)[a]	Pro-academic	40	2.37	.55	**2.77**	**.070**[*]
	Pro-practitioner	51	2.24	.62		
	Indifferent	26	2.03	.50		
TTRA-endorsed media (academic)[a]	Pro-academic	39	1.92	.63	**3.23**	**.043**[*]
	Pro-practitioner	52	1.83	.54		
	Indifferent	24	1.56	.43		
TTRA-endorsed media (non-academic)[a]	Pro-academic	42	1.90	.60	**4.82**	**.010**[*]
	Pro-practitioner	51	2.08	.75		
	Indifferent	25	1.59	.50		
Communication behaviour (preference in using TTRA media)[b]	Pro-academic	42	2.87	.58	**2.75**	**.068**[*]
	Pro-practitioner	52	2.77	.55		
	Indifferent	28	2.54	.60		
Communication behaviour (publishing/using research)[b]	Pro-academic	42	2.78	.47	**7.62**	**<.001**[***]
	Pro-practitioner	52	2.84	.49		
	Indifferent	28	2.08	.51		
Networking attitudes/ behaviour (positive)[b]	Pro-academic	44	2.81	.33	**6.01**	**.003**[**]
	Pro-practitioner	53	2.90	.46		
	Indifferent	28	2.52	.62		
Networking attitudes/ behaviour (time/situation-oriented)[b]	Pro-academic	44	2.97	.41	**7.94**	**<.001**[***]
	Pro-practitioner	52	2.91	.49		
	Indifferent	28	2.47	.74		
Networking attitudes/ behaviour (people-oriented)[b]	Pro-academic	44	2.94	.39	**2.35**	**.099**[*]
	Pro-practitioner	53	2.89	.48		
	Indifferent	26	2.70	.52		

Association capacity (perception of TTRA as a community)[b]	Pro-academic	44	3.15	.52	**5.68**	**.004****
	Pro-practitioner	51	3.17	.48		
	Indifferent	24	2.78	.50		
Association capacity (community service provision)[b]	Pro-academic	44	3.01	.60	**5.32**	**.006****
	Pro-practitioner	51	3.04	.63		
	Indifferent	24	2.59	.51		
Association capacity (conference related activities, events/programs)[c]	Pro-academic	44	3.23	.34	**2.61**	**.078***
	Pro-practitioner	52	3.25	.44		
	Indifferent	26	3.03	.52		

[a] Media use frequencies are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=rarely/never, 2=sometimes, 3=often, and 4=very frequently.
[b] Behavioural, attitudinal and perceptional variables on research communication, networking and association capacity are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree, and 4=strongly agree.
[c] The ratings of activities, events and programs in association capacity-building are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all useful, 2=not very useful, 3=useful, and 4=very useful.
***statistically significant at <.001 level (2-tailed).
**statistically significant at <.01 level (2-tailed).
*statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

First, with respect to using media for research communication, the three clusters are significantly different from one another in the frequencies of consulting general non-academic channels (F=2.77, p=.070). While the pro-academic and pro-practitioner groups have a relatively higher level of use, the indifferent cluster has the lowest level of utilizing this source. The three clusters also significantly differ in using TTRA-endorsed media, regardless of academic-oriented communications (F=3.23, p=.047) or practitioner-oriented ones (F=.4.82, p=.010). Consistently, through mean comparison, the indifferent cluster is distinct by being the lowest among these groupings in utilizing association media.

Second, in terms of communication behaviours, the three clusters—pro-academic, pro-practitioner, and indifferent—are significantly differentiated by their tendency or preference in using TTRA media (F=2.75, p=.068) and their behaviour in publishing or using tourism research (F=7.62, p<.001). By distinction, respondents in the "indifferent" group again receive the lowest mean in their tendency/preference in using association media (Mean=2.54, SD=.60) and in publishing or using tourism research information (Mean=2.08, SD=.51). In particular, Scheffe's post hoc tests indicate that the three clusters form distinct groups by their tendency/preference in using association media (p<.05) and their behaviour in publishing/using tourism research (p<.05).

Third, with regard to networking attitudes and behaviour, the pro-practitioner cluster is most active among the three in networking attitudes (Mean=2.90, SD=.46), while the pro-academic group has the highest level of consensus among the three clusters on time/situation-oriented networking (Mean=2.97, SD=.41) and people-centred networking (Mean=2.94, SD=.39). Interestingly, the

"indifferent" cluster is again the lowest in terms of mean comparison in their networking attitudes and behaviour. On dimensions such as proactive networking attitudes (F=6.01, p=.003), situation-oriented networking behaviour (F=7.94, p<.001), and people-oriented networking (F=2.35, p=.099), the observed differences among the clusters are statistically significant in forming distinct groups.

Finally, by perceptions of association capacity, significant differences are found among the clusters in perceiving TTRA as a community (F=5.68, p=.004), in providing community service (F=5.32, p=.006), and in viewing conference-related activities, events, or programs as useful in keeping TTRA members together (F=2.61, p=.078). In the three instances, the pro-academic and pro-practitioner clusters have a higher level of consensus than the "indifferent group", who are again consistent with their "low" perception ratings as a distinct group. With these verifications, the three-cluster solution—"the pro-academic group", "the pro-practitioner group", and "the indifferent group"—appears to have captured the respondents' perceptions of TTRA as a facilitator of member networks.

4.5.3 Clusters by Perceptions of Association Capacity

Moreover, factor-cluster analyses are undertaken on the perceptions of association capacity. Specifically, the respondents' levels of agreement with the capacity-building variables (survey question 10) are examined with an aim of exploring potentially homogeneous groups. A preliminary principal component analysis suggests that two factors can be extracted based on the respondents' ratings on these association capacity variables: Perception of TTRA as a community, and provision of community service (Table 4-40). Notably, the former is characterized by mere perceptions (or a feeling) of a sense of community, while the latter is distinct by voluntary actions or willingness to provide community service. As can be seen, the factor structure cumulatively explains about 60.5% of the variance in the respondents' consensus on TTRA as a community. The relatively high factor loadings for the item statements indicate the degree of commonality of these variables with the extracted underlying dimensions.

Table 4-40. Factor Analysis of the Perceptions of Association Capacity (N=186)

Association Capacity: Factors and Items	Factor loading	Eigenvalue	Variance explained (%)
Factor 1: Perceiving TTRA as a community		5.779	48.155
I feel at home while attending TTRA conferences.	.887		
I am proud to be a TTRA member.	.882		
TTRA will expand and grow in the years to come.	.742		
TTRA's mission and vision statements are realistic and appropriate.	.707		

I know the mission and vision of the association.	.607		
I encourage others to become/renew TTRA membership.	.549		
Factor 2: Willingness in providing community service		1.717	14.304
I am willing to work as a volunteer for TTRA.	.864		
I am willing to participate in association business meetings or decisions.	.807		
When something negative happens to TTRA, I always do my best to help solve the problem.	.748		
In case of any unjustified criticisms of the association, I am ready to defend it.	.622		
I have served and wish to continue serving the association as an executive/board member.	.600		
I wish someday to become an executive/board member of the association.	.586		
Total variance explained (%)			62.460

The two factors derived from the above principal component analysis were saved as composite measures and used as criterion variables. About 74 respondents in the sample have valid scores on these variables for the proposed cluster analysis. The hierarchical clustering method is used, in which two "respondents or groups" that are most alike on the two factors are combined in the iterative stages. The skree plot of clustering coefficients in the last 30 stages is shown in Figure 4-15. According to percentage change in the co-efficients, it does not appear to have a clear quantitative breaking point. Nonetheless, because of the small number of respondents (n=74) having valid scores for this clustering exercise, a parsimonious solution with three clusters is adopted to guarantee a reasonable size of respondents in each sub-group. More importantly, as can be seen from the subsequent descriptions, this three-cluster solution appears to be consistent with the previous two cluster analyses in understanding typologies of members with respect to research communication and professional networking.

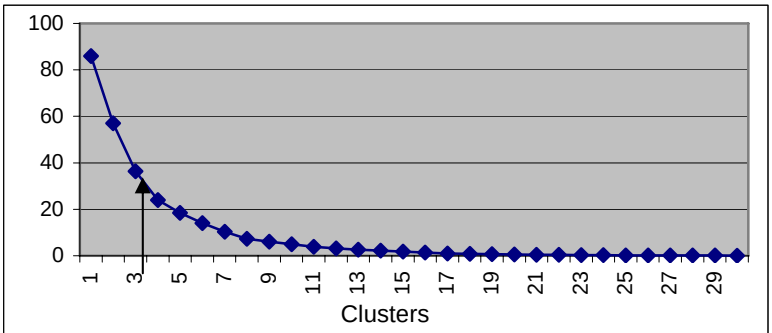


Figure 4-15. Skree Diagram: Clusters by Agglomeration Coefficients on Perceptions of Association Capacity

The mean scores on the association capacity factors—perceiving TTRA as a community and providing community services—for the three clusters are examined in order to characterize each cluster, that is, the extent to which a cluster is homogeneous to a factor. The cluster-by-factor mean plot (Figure 4-16) illustrates the nature of each cluster according to the two factors that describe association capacities perceived or rated by the respondents.

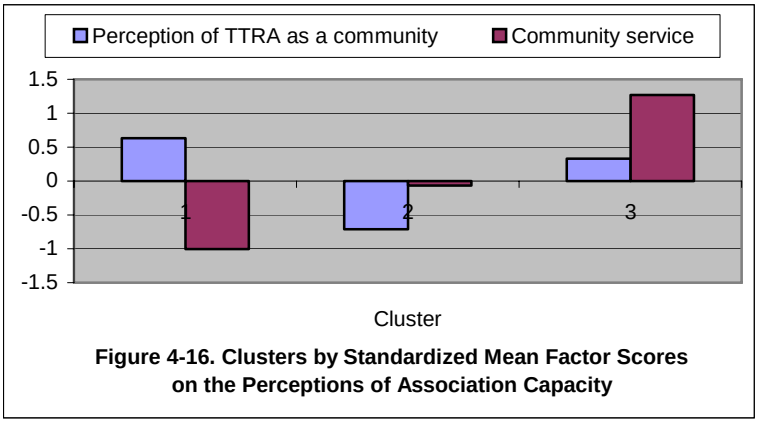


Figure 4-16. Clusters by Standardized Mean Factor Scores on the Perceptions of Association Capacity

This diagram of standardized mean plots shows on which factor(s) each of the three clusters rate positively or negatively on their perceptions of association capacity. For example, cluster 1 seems to have positive ratings on what they feel as a sense of community, and very negative ratings on how they act in capacity-building or their ability/willingness in providing community service. The characteristics of this group are in contrast with those of cluster 3, who appear to rate positively on both perceiving TTRA as a community and willingness in providing community service. By comparison, members in cluster 3 view actions or reactions as more important than perceptions or words in community capacity-building. In other words, they perceive "what they do or what they can do" as more important than "what they feel" in TTRA's capacity-building. In between these two typologies, cluster 2 appears to be "an indifferent group" in association capacity issues and have negative ratings on both factors. For the sake of description or classification, the first cluster somehow bears resemblance to the behaviour of a "friendly passive or a perceiver" group, who are typically characterized by merely perceiving, feeling, and/or talking about community capacity, rather than taking actions in association capacity-building. On the contrary, the third cluster appears to be an "active builder" group, characterized by their willingness, availability or ability, and voluntary actions in community service provision.

Similarly, demographic profiles of the respondents are also examined through cross-tabulations. Due to the small number of valid cases for this cluster analysis, significant differences among the three association-capacity clusters are only detected in terms of membership position or status (X^2=11.041; df=2; p=.004). The friendly passive "perceivers" are more often regular members than association executives or board members; so is the "indifferent" cluster following the same pattern—more regular members than executives. However, active "builders" are strongly and highly significantly associated with executives or board members.

These clustering results are verified through a number of subsequent analyses of variance on other related measures on association capacity (Table 4-41). For example, these clusters are compared to see whether they are significantly different in forming distinct groups in terms of rating the usefulness of TTRA's activities/events/programs in keeping the member community together, in rating the role of TTRA as a facilitator of professional networks, and in attending association conferences.

Table 4-41. Differences among Clusters in Other Measures of Association Capacity

Other measures	Clusters	Scale of rating [a, b, c]			F	p
		N	Mean	SD		
Non-conference related TTRA activities, events and/or programs[a]	Perceiver	24	3.25	.68	**2.62**	**.090***
	Indifferent	34	2.91	.56		
	Active builder	16	3.35	.39		
TTRA as a facilitator of academic member networks[b]	Perceiver	23	2.98	.65	**2.72**	**.078***
	Indifferent	34	2.52	.50		
	Active builder	15	2.67	.49		
TTRA as a facilitator of electronic member networks[b]	Perceiver	22	2.50	.80	**2.46**	**.099***
	Indifferent	34	2.44	.86		
	Active builder	15	3.09	.70		
Attendance of TTRA (International and chapter) *conferences in the past 5 years* [c]	Perceiver	24	3.36	1.95	**4.99**	**.012***
	Indifferent	33	3.41	2.18		
	Active builder	15	6.09	3.27		

[a] The roles of non-conference related TTRA activities, events and programs in association capacity-building are measured on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all useful, 2=not very useful, 3=useful, and 4=very useful.
[b] TTRA as a facilitator of academic and electronic member networks is measured on a 4-point scale where 1=not at all important, 2=not very important, 3=important, and 4=very important.
[c] The respondents' attendance of TTRA (International and/or chapter) conferences is measured on a ratio scale where larger numbers indicate higher frequencies of conference attendance.
*statistically significant at <.10 level (2-tailed).

First, according to the above ANOVA results, the "perceiver", "indifferent" and "builder" groups are significantly different in rating non-conference-related activities/events/programs (e.g., the roles of educational/professional development programs, timely updates of member activities in the associations' newsletters, making available membership directories, and whether one is included in

membership listservs) in building the capacity of TTRA as a community (F=2.62, p=.090). Both the "builder" and "perceiver" clusters place higher ratings on these dimensions for capacity building than the indifferent group.

Second, these clusters are also significantly different in rating the importance of TTRA in the formation of and/or access to academic networks (F=2.72, p=.078) and electronic networks (F=2.46, p=.099). Relatively, the builder group has the highest mean in rating the role of the association in facilitating access to electronic networks, with the perceiver cluster standing in the second place, and the indifferent group receiving the relatively lowest mean rating. The mean difference among the clusters in perceiving TTRA as a facilitator of network formation is statistically significant.

Third, differences among the three clusters in attending TTRA (International and chapter) conferences are also statistically significant (F=4.99, p=.012). With respect to participating in association conferences, it is found that, among these clusters, the builder group has the highest frequency of attendance than the other two groups, with a mean of attending 6.1 TTRA conferences during the five years prior to this survey.

Compared to the two previous cluster analyses, the number of respondents qualified for this clustering is proportionally lower, which is partly due to some respondents skipping this capacity-building question in the survey. The relatively smaller sub-sample for this cluster analysis should be noted as a limitation of its results. Nonetheless, it is interesting to see, in the frequency distributions and mean comparisons, that the "indifferent" cluster consistently represents the largest group with the lowest mean among the three clusters across all the reported dimensions. On the other hand, the "builder" is consistently the smallest group, with the highest mean, among the three clusters across these association capacity dimensions. Despite the limited number of respondents included in this analysis, the results appear to have justified the three-cluster solution on membership perceptions in the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied research community.

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter reports on the results of the survey of "TTRA as an applied tourism research community". The first section of the chapter outlines demographic profiles of the respondents in comparison with the membership population. Frequency distributions suggest that the sample is highly representative of the study population.

The second section deals with research communication of the respondents. The analyses are guided by four sets of hypotheses, which also serve as a structuring frame for organizing the result

presentation. It is found that academics and practitioners are distinct groups bearing significant differences in the perceptions, behaviour and motivations with respect to research communication in the membership community. While chapter structure appears to play less of a role, research communications among the respondents are also influenced by other factors such as career stages, membership status (e.g., regular members versus executives) in the association community, and educational preparation or training for research production and consumption. It is also found that research communications among the respondents are positively correlated with their participation in and/or attendance of association conferences.

Results about researcher networking among the respondents are reported in the third section. This part of the description is also organized around the four sets of guiding hypotheses. The results suggest that differences in occupations and chapter affiliations appear to have less of a part to play in professional networking among the respondents. Nonetheless, networking seems to have a bearing on the role of membership status, her/his disciplinary preparations, and even gender. In addition, the null hypothesis about participation in association conferences and professional networking is also rejected. In other words, attitudes towards networking are positively related to members' participation in association conferences.

The fourth section reports on the respondents' perceptions of TTRA as an applied tourism research community. The analyses and results are guided by and organized around four sets of hypotheses. Regardless of academics/practitioners and chapter affiliations, the respondents perceive current activities, events and/or programs as useful in the association's capacity-building. The respondents are also undifferentiated in their relatively high consensus on the dimensions of TTRA as a community. Results from this sample indicate that the capacity of an association is correlated both with members' participation in (or attendance of) association conferences and their length of membership affiliations.

In the next section of this chapter, results of three factor-cluster analyses are reported. While this part of the analysis is not guided by any postulated assumptions, the presentation concentrates on the clustering of the respondents into homogeneous subgroups by their perceptions of and/or behaviour in research communication, professional networking, and association capacity-building. The results suggest that respondents in this survey cluster meaningfully and distinctively by their media use in research communication and by their perceptions of association networks and association capacity.

The results reported in this chapter serve as departures for discussions on scientific community in general, and on TTRA as an applied tourism research community in particular. In the next chapter,

these results are also discussed in comparison with (or in the context of) previous survey reports on TTRA-International and/or its chapters.

Chapter 5
Discussion

This chapter discusses the theoretical and practical implications of the results in relation to the literature pertaining to scientific community, tourism research communication and knowledge use, and the planning and development of professional associations. The thesis's research questions serve as a guiding framework, around which discussions are organized. Accordingly, the chapter focuses on the factors or issues that affect research communication and researcher networking among TTRA members. The contributions of research communication and networking to (and their implications for) capacity-building of the association community are reflected in the context of prior knowledge. Arguably, these discussions are potentially useful for a better understanding of TTRA as an applied tourism research community.

5.1 Research Communication among TTRA Members

In the scientific community literature, the communication of research information is conceptualized not only as an outcome but also a process that involves a variety of issues or factors (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Patton, 1997; Rich, 1997). Typically, such communications are viewed as interactions among research producers and users in a social system. As Garvey and Griffith (1967) noted, central to such a system are a multitude of outlets or information channels that can be characterized in terms of formal or informal and planned or unplanned communications. In a synthesized discussion, Fothergill (2000) outlines issues such as culture, institutions, links and interaction as major factors affecting the process of research communication in the scientific community. As a case study of TTRA, this thesis addresses the following research questions that pertain to research communication in the membership community:

> *What are the factors that facilitate or deter professional/research communications among TTRA members? How does TTRA's chapter structure facilitate or deter members' research communications in the building of the association as an applied tourism research community?*

As the results suggest, there are a number of factors that exert a varying degree of impacts on research communications in the membership community. While some attributes do not appear to have any effect on professional communication of the respondents (e.g., gender, country/region of

residence, and chapter affiliations), others tend to play a role in some aspects of research communication (e.g., career stage, membership categories, and educational preparations of the respondents). Moreover, factors such as occupations appear to have a significantly stronger impact on research communication than other attributes. Findings about research communication among survey respondents in the TTRA community lend to discussions on the two community theory with respect to cultural and functional differences between academics and practitioners in producing and consuming research, in the levels of research information use, in perceiving the role of association conferences in fostering research communications among the members, and in viewing the chapter structure of the association for enabling or deterring research communications in the membership community.

5.1.1 Academics and Practitioners in Research Communication

With respect to research communications between academics and practitioners, results of this study are consistent with prior discussions on these groups as two distinct communities, residing in different "cultures", driven by distinct values and motivations, and consequently showing varied behaviours in their consultation of information sources and media choice decisions (Fothergill, 2000; Jafari, 2005; Vaugeois, et al., 2005). In support of these observations, findings from this research appear to have pointed to a limited connection between academic and practitioner members in terms of using research information and media choice behaviour in professional communication. For example, this study finds that academics have a significantly higher frequency of using academic sources such as journals, books, and conference proceedings, while practitioners more often use non-academic channels such as magazines, newspapers, bulletins, workshops and training sessions. Regarding the use of TTRA-endorsed information sources, such distinctions between academic and practitioner members are also present. Notably, academic respondents report a significantly higher frequency of using the association journal (*Journal of Travel Research*) and TTRA conference proceedings, while practitioner respondents have used sources such as supplier directories and bulletins far more often than the academic peers. This finding is in support of a recent assessment of the role of tourism and hospitality journals in knowledge transfer across two association communities (Frechtling, 2004). As this author noted on the readership of academic journals by areas of responsibility or occupations of a sample from TTRA and the Travel Industry Association of America, respondents affiliated with educational, training and research institutions have reported a far

higher frequency of reading scholarly journals than participants from the marketing, sales, and management domains.

Nonetheless, despite differences in the sources or types of information consulted, academics and practitioners in this study are identical in using web-based technology as a means of information acquisition. They have both reported a high frequency of using channels such as internet postings, websites, blogs, emails, and/or listservs. To a large extent, this confirms prior findings in regard to the use of information technology as a facilitator or enabler of professional communication. For example, with respect to business management and operations, Sheldon (1997) has pointed out that tourism is one of the largest users of information and communication technologies. Similarly, Buhalis (1999) notes the importance of getting the right information to the right person at the right time for effective management and marketing of tourism products and destinations. On the academic side, such a reliance on information technology is equally apparent as more and more research media have become accessible online, and electronic dissemination has become an extremely important source for academic researchers.

Arguably, while the use of information technologies for the enhancement of professional performance is one thing, the application of such technologies as a means to the end of more or better interactions between academics and practitioners is quite another matter. Nonetheless, researchers have alluded to the potential of using information technologies to improve the infrastructure and techniques, through which effective research communication can be established between academics and practitioners (Vaugeois, et al., 2005). In fact, a number of plenary sessions and academic roundtables from previous TTRA conferences have also identified the tactics of communication between researchers and information users as an area needing greater research attention (Blakeman, 2005; Reid & Smith, 1998; Smith & Taylor, 1994). In view of these observations, it seems reasonable to suggest that the technical aspect of dissemination or uptake, which is shared by both groups in the information era, could serve as a common vehicle for professional communication. Practically, applied research associations can create listservs, electronic bulletins, and discussion forums, which include, as intended audience, both academics and practitioners from the membership community to facilitate potential interactions. More importantly, the variety of messages and content should be welcomed and/or encouraged through these shared platforms.

In their *Science* article on professional communication as a social system in a scientific community, Garvey and Griffith (1967, pp.1013-1014) elaborated on the circulation of pre-prints and

"formalizing the informal" (e.g., official publications of association conference proceedings) as innovative strategies of publication lags and credibility respectively in the 1960s. While these have now become common practice and may even appear outdated from today's perspective, it might be interesting to probe on the role of technology in the innovation of research communication at this information age. Potentially, in an applied research community which is characterized by a (the) responsiveness of the academia to the needs and practices of the industry and government, the use of web-based technology to create shared communication platforms for academics, practitioners, and policy-makers to acquire and exchange information will be of ultimate importance. This is especially true when informal communications (e.g., listservs, web postings, personal blogs, instant messengers) are getting more popular amongst members in a research community. As Xiao and Smith (2007) noted, with respect to tourism knowledge, research information in this field is communicated through a variety of media, including print, audio-visual, web-based or electronic channels, as well as word-of-mouth. In reality, these uptakes and disseminations can be characterized as academic versus non-academic in terms of sources; primary versus secondary by originality of data collection (*e.g.,* published documents versus primary datasets); internal versus external in terms of organization and communication contexts; informal versus formal by tacit-explicit divisions (*e.g.,* oral or experience-based expertise versus written documents); and online versus in-print by means of communication format.

In this study, it is also found that academic and practitioner respondents are significantly different in perceiving factors that influence their research communication and media choice decisions. For example, academic members attach a significantly higher level of importance on audience-oriented factors such as whether a selected medium reaches a large international audience, and whether a medium used for publishing their research will be consumed by the same/similar interest groups or its intended readers. In addition, both groups perceive media-oriented factors such as reputation, visibility, credibility, subject coverage, usefulness of information, and language of a medium as very important in their communication or media choice decisions. Nonetheless, publishing-related factors such as timeliness or time lag, familiarity with editors for publishing research, and presentation styles do not appear to have any effect on professional communication or consumption of research information by academics and practitioners.

These findings are reflected in varying degree in previous studies on scientific communication (Agrawal, 2001). As the field is multidisciplinary and its research communication facilitated by

advanced technology, the observation of the myriad and competing nature of research communication channels is not surprising. In tourism studies, as noted by Dartnall and Store (1990), there are scores of academic journals; dozens of professional, research, educational, and/or scientific associations with annual conference proceedings, formal association publications, and newsletters and bulletins; and countless books and edited collections from a large number of publishers. As is alluded to in the scientific community literature, research communications can be characterized by varied forms with distinct readership. For academics, formal communications are typically represented by traditional vehicles such as journals, books and conference proceedings, and often associated with the norms of scholarly research in a scientific community (Merton, 1957). In varied terms, these encompass factors such as recognition and reputation, visibility and credibility, as well as originality of the research. In the increasingly louder call for evidence-based practice, formal professional communications for the practitioners, albeit from a different perspective or in adapted forms, are likely to be geared to a similar set of factors or norms.

5.1.2 The Two-Community Theory in Research Communication

Arguably, some of the findings from this study add to previous discussions or perspectives on the two-community theory, a theorizing used to depict the low level of instrumental use of research knowledge by practitioners in the scientific communication literature (Caplan, 1979; Caplan, Morrison & Stambaugh, 1975; Dunn, 1980; Fothergill, 2000; Weiss, 1979; Wingens, 1990). These authors, through such a conceptual framework, suggest that knowledge producers (usually academics) and research users (e.g., practitioners and policy makers) reside in two culturally and functionally different worlds. Both have different mandates, priorities and consequently use distinct criteria for assessing the meaning, quality, and usefulness of information. They consult different communication media or information sources; follow different rules; and face restrictions or challenges distinct to their own communities.

Results of this study appear to suggest that the notion of two communities also holds as an adequate or appropriate explanation of research communication among members in the TTRA community. Academic and practitioner respondents in this survey are found to be significantly different in distinct aspects in their motivations and behaviour of research communication. For example, academics have a high degree of consensus on the need for publishing research for tenure and promotion, and a sense of achievement; they also agree that reading research is essential for competent practice and policy. On the contrary, the practitioner respondents attach little value on

academic sources; they tend to believe they have learned more from personal experience than from reading research reports.

Nonetheless, in the discussions on research communications or knowledge transfer in tourism, similar findings were uncovered by other authors. Limited interactions between academics and practitioners in tourism and recreation were highlighted in previous research (Donovan-Neale & Mannell, 1983; Frechtling, 2004; Jordan & Roland, 1999; Vaugeois, et al., 2005). Knowledge generated by academics is often perceived as needlessly complicated or overly sophisticated because industry people prefer easy-to-use tools or quick answers (Ritchie & Ritchie, 2002). Further, as Ryan (2001) notes, the "just-give-me-the-answer" attitude of the practitioners is likely both the causes and consequences of the gap in the research communication process.

Likewise, as a result of these barriers and partly due to the rapid growth of tourism research, academics have expressed a concern about the lack of balance between the production and utilization of its research information. As noted by Ritchie and Ritchie (2002), "a great deal of research is being conducted in tourism, but is inefficiently used and rarely exploited to its full potential" (p.451). Such a concern is reiterated by Page (2005) who suggests that "if only 25% of the current tourism outputs were produced, our knowledge base in the subject would not be adversely affected" (p.665). Indeed, Trinet postings in early 2006 on "ecotourism reality check" and a Travel Industry Association executive's requests of published research on tourist experiences, travel behaviour, and market segmentation (all extensively researched topics by the academics), suggest – in frustration – the existence of two communities that have little awareness of each other in terms of knowledge production and use. Nonetheless, academics and practitioners in this study have both reached a high level of consensus and attached great importance to tourism research collaborations. Interestingly, as an alternative of effective communication in the applied tourism research community, such a consensus serves as an echo to the potential of developing collaborative tourism research programs as facilitators as academic-practitioner communications (Beesley, 2004a, 2004b, 2005).

5.1.3 Research Communication and Media Use Typologies

More generally, the use of research information by tourism marketing professionals can take a variety of forms in correspondence to (or as examples of) the various articulations of conceptual, instrumental, strategic, and process use in the utilization literature (Anderson, Ciarlo & Brodie, 1981; Beyer & Trice, 1982; Caplan, 1979; Dunn, 1980; Menon & Varadarajan, 1992; Patton, 1997; Weiss,

1979, 1980). In a destination marketing context, as is noted by Xiao and Smith (2007) in a knowledge use discussion, background information or general knowledge about the history, sociocultural, economic, political, and demographic aspects of a potential tourist market can often be put to conceptual use to develop marketing plans. Behavioral/psychographic information from surveys about how potential tourists from a target market choose hotels, purchase air tickets, use travel agencies, or spend time and money during their vacations can be instrumentally used by tour operators and destination service providers to create competitive packages, or by destination marketers to develop and implement segmentation strategies. Evidence about the potential of an emerging market can be used to adjust marketing priorities or justify operational plans. Process knowledge is useful for updating strategic marketing plans and/or guiding long-term decisions and policy formulations.

As noted in the previous discussion, information and knowledge useful to tourism marketing professionals can be retrieved from various sources or types of media. In this case study of TTRA members, based on the nature and types of information sources—academic publications, online sources, trade publications, and word-of-mouth— the respondents' information acquisition and media use behaviours can be seen as representing a number of distinct strategies. For example, a group of academic members who acquire research information primarily from scholarly publications form a homogeneous cluster in contrast to a practitioner group who tend to consciously or unconsciously disregard academic sources and consult almost exclusively industry or trade publications and other "informal" sources in their research communication. The over-reliance on (or excessive use of) the internet has somehow formed a typology of media use in the association community, which is typical of the information age. Interestingly, in this study, there also appears to be a cluster of members who disregard all the information sources. Nonetheless, in this survey, there is not enough evidence to define who these "non-users" are in terms of professional or demographic attributes. While the above clusters do not exactly correspond to previous typologies of researchers, some of the identified groups bear notable resemblance to the role typologies such as "highly involved leaders", "productive isolates", and "non-productive isolates" that Hagstrom (1965, pp. 44-47) articulated of researchers participating in their scientific communities.

Notwithstanding, prior research has also noted constraints such as uncertainty and change as factors that prohibit participation in research communication. For example, Meis (2004, p.20) described contemporary tourism research as "an evolving enterprise", as the use of research information in tourism is closely related to the degree of uncertainty caused by terrorist events, health

shocks, environmental change, and/or technological advances, within which understanding and knowledge of tourism and the travel industry are produced. Ryan (2001) has noted to a similar effect on practitioners' use of tourism research information: "because this is a rapidly changing industry where so many companies are small in size, the norm is generally reactive rather than proactive. Given significant changes in market places over small time periods, need the industry be concerned with research? There isn't enough time for a decision to be proven wrong, and if it was, then the next year it is a new market" (p.93). Additionally, Carson and Adams (2004) reported, in their examination of how visitor information centres manage knowledge, that "there were substantial constraints on their capacity to develop and implement a strategic knowledge management agenda internally" (p.15). Arguably, uncertainties and constraints as such could have contributed to the formation of research communication and media use typologies in an applied research community such as an association of tourism research and marketing professionals.

5.1.4 Association Conferences as Research Communication

Association conferences offer a large range of opportunities for research communication in a scientific community (Garvey & Griffith, 1967). In the field of tourism and hospitality, the essential role of association conferences in facilitating research communications within and beyond the membership community has been acknowledged in the evaluation reports of some annual events (CAUTHE, 2005). With respect to TTRA conferences, a recent evaluation suggests that these association events constitute a significant portion of tourism research communication (Park & Meng, 2004). In a summary of findings from a TTRA Canada survey, Ennamorato (2003) also noted that annual conferences are what members valued most in their involvement with the association. Based on this observation, it is argued that organizational and management efforts that aim at enhancing the capacity of association conferences to educate and to facilitate research communication and networking would be of benefits to a broad range of membership.

By the same token, results of this study confirm previous findings on the importance of association conferences for professional communication. It is found that research communications are related, in many ways, to members' participation in conferences. The more motivated they are in research communication, the more likely they will attend association conferences. Specifically, in this study, significant and positive correlations are found between "motivation of going to TTRA conferences" and "tendency/preference in using TTRA media" ($r = .329$, $p < .001$), "purpose of research communication" and "participation in TTRA conferences" ($r = .199$, $p = .009$), and

"motivation of going to TTRA conferences" and "behaviour in publishing and using tourism research" ($r = .264$, $p < .001$). In speculation, it is possible to argue that there is a cause-and-effect relationship between such perceptual/motivational attributes and communication behaviour, which merits future explorations.

In general terms, results of this sample suggest that TTRA members are active participants of association conferences. Of the 152 respondents (82%) who have reported attendance in TTRA-International and/or chapter conferences in the five years prior to this survey, about 54% (101 respondents) attended 1 to 4 conferences, and 23% (43 respondents) attended 5 to 9 times. These frequencies of association conference-going are highly consistent with the pattern reported in another membership survey conducted by the association shortly before this thesis research (TTRA, 2007).

Nonetheless, the motivation of going to association conferences appears to be complex in the membership community. In terms of demographic factors, the respondents' conference-going could be a reflection of career stages. Results of the study suggest that members at early (19-39) and mid career (40-59) stages are more active in going to conferences than those at late career stages (60+). With respect to the physical or planning aspects of a conference as factors that potentially shape membership attendance, there appears to be no consensus among the respondents in this study. Therefore, it is hard to tell precisely from this sample which factor(s) (e.g., cost, location, border-crossing concerns, size of conference, or quality of a program) is a more useful predictor of members' conference-going decisions. To some extent, these results confirm what was reported in the association conference participation literature. As Oppermann and Chon (1997) noted, apart from association conference factors and locational factors, there are intervening opportunities (e.g., competing conferences and vacations), and personal or business factors such as health, family, finance or funding, which are all potentially influencing conference participation decisions.

Nonetheless, these findings add to the perspectives on association event planning and marketing (Arcodia & Reid, 2003; Ayal, 1986; Bhattacharya, 1998). For example, organizers and planners could conduct in-depth need analysis or monitor interest changes among the membership community in order to develop tailor-made programs to maximize the delivery of benefits or value to potential attendees of association conferences. Like educational and professional development programs, association conferences can take up a wide array of sub-themes or subject areas, which are likely to appeal to diverse membership interests and can be delivered through a variety of vehicles including (but not limited to) concurrent, plenary or keynote sessions.

5.1.5 Association Structure and Research Communication

An underlying question of this study is whether the chapter structure or affiliation with a chapter has any effect on research communication amongst the members. There are currently nine active chapters in the TTRA community. Results from this study suggest that chapter affiliation does not affect the respondents' overall research communication, nor does it appear as a factor to influence their use of the association's communication media. As noted earlier, members' use of TTRA-endorsed media is rather limited.

Further, in terms of issues perceived as important in making media choice decisions, the respondents, regardless of chapter affiliations, view media coverage or audience-oriented factors as essential. For example, whether a medium or publication reaches an intended audience. By communication motivation and behaviour, the survey respondents, again regardless of chapter affiliations, have a high degree of consensus on having a clear purpose of research communication and on tourism research collaborations.

In addition, a couple of other factors are found to have played more or less a role in the respondents' research communication. With regard to position or status of a member in the association (irrespective of chapter affiliations), current and/or previous association officers appear to have used association-endorsed communication channels more often than regular members, which is likely attributable to the responsibilities or duties associated with their executive positions. Moreover, respondents with research training, regardless of chapters and field specializations, have a high tendency of using academic sources, while those without appear to use non-academic media more often.

These results could also be useful for association planning or future development of new chapters. Per the association's policy, members can choose to affiliate with one or more chapters. As was noted in the TTRA Strategic Plan 2004-2008 (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004), the chapter structure facilitates research communication through the nurturing of a learning community in which "a nucleus of members has evolved with sufficient interest and critical mass to sustain a local membership chapter, thus allowing members to develop and draw on a wealth of regional-specific tourism knowledge" (p.8).

5.2 Researcher Networks and Networking among TTRA members

Research communications and interactions among members lead to the establishment of various social and knowledge networks in the association community. Prior studies on social organizations refer to social networks broadly as fuzzy-edged social groups or circles, whose members associate in greater density with one another than with members outside a community or social boundary (Kadushin, 1966, 1968). In this study, research associations are seen as such a mechanism or community for the interaction or networking of their members.

Presumably, professional networks in a scientific community can be distinguished by the occupations or commitments of members of the network such as academic and practitioner networks; they may also be formed on the basis of research interests or problem areas (e.g., special interest groups, project/research teams, or task forces). Additionally, networks are both causes and consequences of social or interpersonal relations such as apprenticeship (e.g., graduate students and mentors), joint authorship or co-citation networks, and stakeholders or partnerships in collaborative research programs. Traditionally, notions such as invisible colleges, social contagions, and communities of practice are used in the theorizing of research networks in a scientific community (Crane, 1969, 1972; Levy & Mail, 1993; Marsden, 1998; McGrath & Altman, 1966; Price, 1963; Wenger, 1998). Prior studies also suggest that density and centrality, and clusters and components of networks are likely changing over time as a research community grows or evolves in its social structuring process (Collins, 1974; Mullins, 1972).

Conceptual discussions as such are suggestive of a presupposition that member networks or networking in a research association are likely to contribute to the capacity-building of the association community. Results of this study that pertain to professional networks or networking among TTRA members are discussed around the following research questions:

What are the factors that facilitate or deter the formation of professional/research networks among TTRA members? How does TTRA's chapter structure facilitate or deter member networking in the capacity-building of the association as an applied tourism research community?

5.2.1 Research Associations as Knowledge Networks

The conceptualization of knowledge networks is a recent extension from the sociology of science (or knowledge) into a spectrum of applied research domains. A number of related notions or concepts such as utilization (or knowledge use), community of practice, organizational learning, knowledge mobilization or exchange, and knowledge management have been proposed in this rapidly growing body of literature. It is argued in this study that the process of producing, disseminating and using research knowledge is facilitated by a variety of social organizations, one of which is research associations.

In the praxis of tourism, it can be argued that knowledge networks are characterized by the properties and practices of tourism as a specific field. In other words, knowledge networks of tourism are potentially shaped by the characteristics of the field such as it being a young, multidisciplinary specialty of applied social sciences research, and being a multi-faceted, multi-industry sector of practice. In the context of TTRA, the respondents' perceptions of research networks and the perceived role of the association in the process of networking are scrutinized through a number of demographic and behavioural/motivational attributes that are more or less related to the literature.

A number of demographic factors are found to have played a role in the respondents' perceptions of networks/networking in the association community. First, take gender for example. While perceptions are not distinct by gender in terms of viewing TTRA as an important facilitator in forming/accessing broadly occupation-based networks such as academics, government agencies/CVBs, and research associates/consultants, the results seem to suggest that the role of TTRA as a facilitator of functional/technical/momentary networks (e.g., listservs; special interest groups; project teams or task forces; community knowledge networks; and conferences, congresses or seminars) is more strongly acknowledged by female than male respondents. In view of motivations of and attitudes towards networking through association conferences, it appears that female respondents also tend to have a significantly higher level of consensus on getting to know new members and meeting industry leaders through attending TTRA conferences.

Second, the research finds that member perceptions of association networks/networking are not affected by career stages. Regardless of whether they are in the early, mid or late career stages, the role of TTRA as an important facilitator of academic, practitioner, and virtual or electronic networks is unanimously acknowledged by the respondents. This is consistent with a finding from the recent TTRA-International survey that about 65% of the respondents reported "satisfaction" or "complete satisfaction" with TTRA as a facilitator of networking opportunities (TTRA, 2007). Moreover, in

terms of attitudes, behaviours, and motivations of networking, there is a high degree of consensus among the respondents, irrespective of career stages, on "time/situation-oriented networking" (e.g., getting involved in member networking when one needs help from, or has something to share with, other members) and on "people-oriented networking" (e.g., in their stated tendency or preference in getting to know new people, industry leaders, senior or distinguished researchers, keynote speakers, conference sponsors, and association executives during TTRA conferences).

Third, in respect to membership position in the association community, both regular members and executives perceive TTRA as highly important or useful in fostering academic and electronic networks. Regarding the behavioural/motivational dimensions of networking, they both attach great value to having/developing positive attitudes towards networking, and they also perceive member networking as a strategy of handling situations or as a response to professional needs. While the implications of these findings are open to discussion, such a consensus between executives and regular members on the association's role in facilitating professional networks could somehow mitigate the earlier caution or concern about a potential bias due to the higher frequency of responses from the executives or board members. Nonetheless, unlike the executives or board members, regular members are not inclined to view TTRA as an ideal vehicle for interacting with practitioners. This could be due to a growing perception in the membership community that TTRA is becoming too academic, which is reflected in a couple of recent surveys of the same association (Larsen, 2007; TTRA, 2007). Furthermore, the results suggest that regular members are more likely to develop or hold passive/negative attitudes towards networking in the association community than the executives, which may be attributable, in part, to the commitments or responsibilities of the latter in interacting with other members.

Similarly, survey respondents, irrespective of country/region of residence, perceive TTRA as an important facilitator of academic and practitioner networks. In terms of behaviours and motivations, TTRA members (regardless of residence) appear to have developed or hold positive attitudes towards professional networking; they also perceive networking as a problem-solving strategy, a response to particular needs in their professional work, or as a means of getting to know other peers in the association community. However, international members appear to attach more value on the association as an enabler of electronic networks than members from outside North America. This may relate to prior studies on the distance of ties in social network analysis (to be discussed under the next heading).

Next, perceptions of research networks or networking appear to be related to the respondents' disciplinary backgrounds and educational preparation or training in research. In this study, respondents with graduate training in a more clearly tourism-related field tend to appreciate the role of TTRA in fostering academic networks, while those with training in a tourism-related field but lack of adequate research preparations are more inclined to view the association as an enabler of practitioner networks. To some extent, this is not surprising, given the nature of TTRA as a tourism research association. Despite these differences, respondents in this study (irrespective of disciplinary backgrounds and research preparation) perceive member networking highly consistently as activities or behaviours driven by specific circumstances or situations such as seeking help from the membership community, or driven by social interpersonal motivations such as meeting new people or getting to know keynote speakers, distinguished researchers, industry leaders, and/or conference sponsors.

Referring back to literature, some of these observations, particularly those that pertain to the impacts of educational/disciplinary backgrounds and regions of residence on research networking, are of interest to discussions on an applied scientific community. Prior studies indicate that, from a researcher networking perspective, the structuring of a scientific community can be discussed from the perspective of the evolution of a discipline or specialization. A number of authors have attributed the emergence of networks or social groupings in scientific communities to evolutionary factors such as an increasing (or the increased) state of multi-/inter-disciplinarity brought about by the emergence of shared (or overlapping) problem areas, and the exponential expansion of established/traditional disciplines which lead to a proliferation of sub-fields or specialties (Brooks, 1967; Mullins, 1968; Polanyi, 1962; Price, 1963). Arguably, as the community grows, with more members coming from diverse backgrounds, smaller circles or member networks are likely to be formed on the basis of disciplinary backgrounds or specializations. Additionally, a research association community can be geographically widespread because of its international membership and/or geographical specializations of members' research areas. The member community charted by TTRA with its geographically diverse chapters could be an explanation of the some of regional differences identified in the current study.

5.2.2 The Strength of Ties

Prior research on the social structuring of scientific communities suggests that central to the discussion on research networks are issues such as the strength of ties and density or frequency of

making social contacts or interactions. Conceptually, Granovetter (1973) refers to the strength of an interpersonal tie as "a (probably linear) combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimacy (mutual confiding), and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie" (p.1361). With respect to the strength of social ties in diffusing influences and information, this author argues that emphasis should be laid on the cohesive power of weak ties in transmitting influences over long distances and/or between groups. It is also suggested that where two groups are connected by fewer links over longer distances, these links can be regarded as weak, and that the tracing out of weak ties will define a larger area of the social network than the tracing of strong ones. In other words, weak ties are suggestive of larger networks, whereas strong links correspond to small and tighter circles. Presumably, the strength of ties can be both causes and consequences of the size of a community or network. That is, contacts tend to be weak because of a diverse community. Alternatively, it is also possible to argue that dispersed groups result from the freedom and flexibility implied by weak ties. Whatever the case, these observations are interesting and potentially useful to the discussion of social networking among members in a research community.

In this study, an underlying dimension of positive attitudes and pro-active behaviour towards research networking was extracted from survey items that pertain to the strength of ties, density of interactions, and duration of member contacts in the association community. It was found that both academics and practitioners have developed positive attitudes toward making member contacts or establishing research networks: they both put a high value on active networking with other members in the association; in the meantime, they also believe that networking behaviours are driven by specific situations and social or interpersonal needs such as getting to know people or learning from peers. Nonetheless, unlike academics, practitioners put greater value on networking with other members for better professional work performance; they believe networking with other members in the TTRA community results in long and strong social contacts in their professional networks. Referring back to the literature, these findings appear to confirm prior discussions that weak ties are suggestive of large networks whereas strong links correspond to smaller, tighter and more durable circles, as is the case of academic and practitioner networks in this study.

As reported earlier, with respect to the potential differences between association executives and regular members in perceiving the role of TTRA as a facilitator of networks, respondents do not differ in their perceptions on the basis of membership status. Both association executives and regular members agree that TTRA has strengthened or acted as a facilitator of member networks; they

acknowledge personal situations and social interpersonal needs as important orientations of networking in the membership community. Nevertheless, in their ratings on the statements pertaining to "passive/negative attitudes towards networking", regular members agree more strongly than executives on the formation and existence of weak and sporadic ties in the association community. In view of prior arguments on the strength of ties (Granovetter, 1973), these observations are suggestive of a community bearing identical membership qualities or attributes. As can be inferred from the demographic profiles, TTRA members are primarily composed of professionals from higher educational institutions; governmental agencies, CVBs and DMOs; industry sectors; and research associates or consultant companies. Indeed, as can be seen in a subsequent discussion, the association is often and repeatedly perceived as "too academic" in the membership community. For example, according to the results from a recent survey (TTRA, 2007), about 70% of its respondents agree or strongly agree with "academic" as a descriptor of TTRA-International.

Furthermore, in terms of geographical attributes of membership residence, respondents from the US and Canada are significantly different from those residing in other world regions in perceiving items or dimensions related to "passive/negative attitudes towards networking" ($F = 10.224$, $p < .001$). Specifically, respondents from outside North America agree more strongly on the existence of weak and sporadic networks than North American members. Scheffe's post hoc test supports the conclusion that North American members and members from other world regions form two distinct groups in their perceptions of network strength and distance, and consequently the association's capacity as an applied research community. This finding might be meaningful for association planning and development. Despite its current international coverage and its goal of developing more international chapters (personal communication with association executives), TTRA was originated and is still widely perceived as a North America-based association. For members outside North America, geographical distance does seem to have an effect on their perceptions of member-association contacts and consequently their commitment to its capacity-building.

The above findings and discussions on perceived distance and strength of ties in relation to network size cast light on social or knowledge networks in a scientific community. Granovetter (1973) noted that interactions or contacts between members are more likely to occur in local or small networks than in global and large ones. Consequently, interpersonal information flow or the transmission of ideas in a community is directly proportional to the number of contacts or interactions between/among members in a network, and inversely proportional to the perceived distance or length

of paths of member contacts. In the same vein, Mulkay (1977) has pointed out the importance of small social groupings at a specialty or sub-field level in increasing the density and likelihood of member contacts in a research community. He attributed the formation of small professional networks to factors such as high specialization of research activities; limited resources (e.g., constraints in time, effort and funding) for absorbing, producing and disseminating research; and the tendency of researchers to communicate and network with their own circles or with those who are pursuing similar research problems.

Arguably, from the perspective of membership compositions, professional networking in the TTRA association community is largely characterized by interactions between and/or among members from the academia; government agencies, CVBs and DMOs; industry sectors; research associates and consultants; and associational bodies or entities. As illustrated in Figure 2-3, knowledge networks in such an applied tourism research community are typical of a multitude of sub-networks (or networks at different layers) that are distinct in size, and (despite the facilitation of information technology) characterized by different density, strength, and perceived "distance" of contacts or connections. Presumably, as noted earlier, it is within such complex, interwoven and multi-layered networks that mobilization or leveraging of knowledge is to take place in an applied tourism research community. While data collected for this study do not allow for a definition or quantification of these network dimensions, the results pertinent to researcher networking in the TTRA community appear to support the propositions on tourism knowledge networks (see Heading 2.4.2) as valuable future research avenues for social network analysis (to be discussed further under "Implications and Future Research").

5.2.3 Academics versus Practitioners

As noted earlier, survey respondents were asked about their perceptions of TTRA as a facilitator of research networks, and their behaviour, motivations or attitudes towards networking in the association community. Based on shared dimensions and the nature of interactions, professional circles characteristic of the association community can be broadly categorized into: academic networks (including tourism academics; publishers and editors; students and teachers; research associations; research project teams or task forces; librarians, knowledge brokers, and information managers; and conferences, congresses and seminars); practitioner networks (e.g., collaborative/community groups, tourism businesses, business partners and clients, government agencies and CVBs, destination marketing organizations, and research associates and consultants); and web-based networks, which

are characterized by interaction circles or communication groups facilitated by electronic bulletins or listservs. Results suggest that both academics and practitioners perceive TTRA as an important facilitator of academic networks. This finding confirms the observation that the association is perceived as becoming too academic by its members (Larsen, 2007; TTRA, 2007).

Nonetheless, a moderate role of the association in facilitating non-academic networks is acknowledged by some practitioners. Specifically, practitioner respondents view the association as an important facilitator in forming professional networks for members from government tourism agencies or CVBs, destination marketing organizations, research associates or consultants, and tourism businesses or partnership organizations. In addition, practitioners put higher value on member contacts for the purpose of enhancing professional work performance; they believe more interactions with academics will result in stronger links between the two networks and better or more effective use of research to guide practice.

To some extent, given the considerable number of TTRA members from the industries and government agencies, such a perception is not a surprise. More importantly, interactions between the two sub-communities of academics and practitioners are in line with the mission or goals of TTRA as an applied research association. As the new president of TTRA-International recently acknowledged, the need for and appreciation of research for informed decision-making in the travel and tourism industry have never been greater, and, by virtue of relevance, the association "will continue its dedication to high quality, effective and actionable research as more organizations than ever are turning to research and business intelligence tools and services to help guide their strategic decisions" (Ruf, 2007, p.2).

Findings from this research are in agreement with prior studies on applied research communities. In an article on the evolution of organizational studies, March (2004) noted that members in the research community tend to associate with peers who are similar to themselves. In other words, academics interact more often with peers from educational or research institutions. He said, "scholars associate primarily with others whom they understand well, those who are, by virtue of their familiar knowledge and beliefs, people from whom they can learn relatively little" (March, 2004, p.16). Normatively, in an applied scientific community, such an observation justifies the tendency of academics forming networks of their own, especially when a community is perceived as being dominated by academics.

In a conceptual discussion on the use of tourism knowledge, Xiao and Smith (2007) envisaged a continuum between academics and practitioners and proposed that "the closer a user is to the former,

the more likely s/he will value theoretical richness and methodological sophistication associated with the creation of knowledge, and vice versa" (p.319). In this case study of TTRA, apart from the broad categories of academics and practitioners in the association community, what is distinctive in its membership is a large proportion of research associates and/or consultants. While data from this survey yield no significant correlations with this membership category, the above discussion helps reveal the importance of such an intermediary role in facilitating networks between academics and practitioners, and consequently in leveraging the impacts of travel and tourism research for evidence-based industry practice.

5.2.4 Network Clusters

Networking with professionals is an important part in the motivation of participating in association events or programs, particularly association conferences. As Oppermann and Chon (1997, p.187) noted, the major reasons that members reported of going to association conferences are to communicate research (e.g., presenting their own work and/or listening to speakers who are experts in their field), to interact or network with other professionals, to experience a sense of the scientific community, to learn new skills and keep abreast of latest advances, and to develop new business and professional relationships. Prior studies on networking in a research community also alluded to the formation of clusters based on perceptions, motivations, and attitudes towards member networks or networking (Mullins, 1968, 1972).

In addition to research communication and media-use clusters discussed in the previous section, this study has also examined whether there are homogeneous clusters in terms of membership perceptions of networks and their attitudes towards networking behaviours or activities. It is found that the sample falls into three distinct clusters by their perceptions of TTRA as a facilitator of academic and non-academic networks. For example, among the respondents, there is a cluster of members whose perceptions can be characterized as "pro-academic"; they see TTRA as good networks only for academics. On the contrary, the "pro-practitioner" cluster perceives the association community as good networks largely for practitioner members. Interestingly, the study also identifies a cluster of members who perceive the association as playing little (if any) role in facilitating either academic or practitioner networks. Consistent to the discussions in previous sections in this study and indeed to prior studies in the scientific community literature, the academic and practitioner clusters appear to have formed two distinct sub-communities, where dissemination and transfer of research

from one group for the uptake or use by another will likely remain a constant concern for researchers of applied research communities.

Furthermore, from a membership commitment perspective, the existence of an "indifferent" niche group should have implications for association planning and management. As cautioned by Bhattacharya (1998), indifference to and lack of interest in events or affairs are amongst the hazards of lapsing for paid membership associations. Not surprisingly, as is found in the above analysis, this apathetic cluster is distinct by their infrequent use of association-endorsed media and low participation in association conferences, which could be a reflection of their negative attitudes towards research communication and networking in the association community. Nonetheless, probably due to the nature of TTRA membership as an applied research community, these network clusters do not appear similar to the role typologies developed by Hagstrom (1965, pp.44-47) for the scholarly community of hard science in the mid twentieth century.

5.2.5 Conferences as a Means of Networking

Professional networking is an important function of community events such as association conferences (Oppermann & Chon, 1997). Such an observation appears particularly relevant to conferences of tourism research associations. This is because tourism is a young multidisciplinary field of applied research, in which members are of diverse disciplinary backgrounds and, very often, composed of both academics and practitioners. In addition, this applied research community is understandably large, given its multidisciplinary nature of academic endeavours and its multifaceted coverage of agencies, industries and sectors as research subjects; nonetheless, such a seemingly all-inclusive scope creates the potential and needs for more interactions and networking among its members or sub-groups.

In this case study, the role of association conferences as a facilitator of member networks or networking is a major part of the survey research. As noted previously, results from this sample suggest that members' participation in association conferences is encouraging, with about 82% of the respondents reporting attendance in TTRA-International and/or its chapter conferences in the past five years. Accordingly, planning and organizing conferences constitute an important part of the operational mandate and investment from the association management perspective (Ennamorato, 2003; Larsen, 2007; Ruf, 2007; Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004; TTRA, 2007). Indeed, paging through newsletters and the websites of TTRA-International and its chapters, a variety of networking

events such as conferences, symposiums, seminars and workshops are spotted. As they largely bear distinct themes, have varied regional focus, and are held at different time of the year with varying durations, these conferences are potential platforms in facilitating member networks or networking.

Results from this study confirm the strong and positive correlations between professional networking and participation in association conferences in the membership community. Positively, active attitudes towards conferencing are strongly associated with time/situation-oriented networking ($r = .432$, $p < .001$, for example, when one needs help from or has something to share with other members) and people-oriented networking ($r = .395$, $p < .001$, e.g., a tendency or preference in getting to know new members, industry leaders, distinguished researchers, keynote speakers, conference sponsors, and association executives during TTRA conferences). The respondents also mention meeting new people and seeking assistance from the membership community as benefits of attending conferences ($r = .336$, $p < .001$). On the other hand, results suggest that members' passive attitudes towards networking is negatively correlated with participation in TTRA conferences ($r = -.363$, $p < .001$); in other words, the more passive the members' attitudes toward networking, the less frequently they will participate in association conferences. Arguably, these results and discussions on attitudes towards and associated benefits from conference networking add a perspective on the array of factors dictating membership participation (Oppermann & Chon, 1997), Additionally, in view of the complications and investment in the planning and organization of association conferences, the above discussions reiterate membership participation and inputs in the preparation or making of successful association conferences (Ennamorato, 2003; Larsen, 2007; CAUTHE, 2005).

5.2.6 Chapter Structure and Member Networking

This study also aims at understanding whether and how the chapter structure of TTRA facilitates or deters member networking in the association community. To address this question, the respondents' perceptions, attitudes and behaviour of professional networking are examined from the perspective of different chapters. The results suggest that chapter structure or members' affiliation with a chapter does not appear to have any significant effect on their perceptions of professional networking in the community. Regardless of chapter affiliations, the respondents unanimously agree that TTRA acts as an important facilitator of researcher networking in the association community; they also acknowledge that the association plays an important role in keeping the members connected through electronic media.

With respect to the generic types of networks facilitated by the association (e.g., academic versus practitioner networks), survey respondents are unanimous in viewing TTRA as an enabler of scholarly networks. Nevertheless, chapter affiliations appear to make a difference in members' perceptions of practitioner networks. It is found that respondents from large US-based chapters (e.g., Central States, Greater Western, and South Eastern) tend to perceive TTRA as playing an important role in establishing practitioner networks, while participants from Canada, Europe, and small US-based chapters find it ineffective in facilitating practitioner networks. Arguably, this observation is consistent with prior survey results and reinforces the perceptions of TTRA (or some of its chapters) as being too academic, particularly in membership communities such as the Canada, Europe and small US-based chapters.

By implication, these findings can be potentially useful for association planning and management in their efforts to increase or improve professional networking within and across chapters in this disciplinarily, geographically as well as occupationally diverse membership community. As noted in the recent survey, about 70% of the respondents perceived TTRA-International as a "crossroad" where members encounter or interact with other research peers (TTRA, 2007). An earlier survey in the Canada Chapter also alluded to membership expectations of having the association function as a forum for networking (Ennamorato, 2003). Arguably, the above discussions confirm the importance of incorporating/identifying communication and networking as priorities in its strategic planning (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004).

5.3 The Capacity of TTRA as an Applied Tourism Research Community

As noted in the literature review, capacity may be conceptualized as the leveraging of social and intellectual capital as well as organizational resources to solve problems and improve the well-being of a community (Chaskin, et al., 2001). Such a conceptualization also holds for scientific communities. In the context of this study, the capacity of TTRA as an applied tourism research community is characterized by the interactions and communications of its members, and the formation of various professional networks within the association community. Prior research on scientific communities suggests that communication and networking are different means through which community capacity can be built.

In this case study survey, the respondents were asked to report on their perceptions of and consensus on the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community. The first

question lists a series of activities, conferences/events, and educational/professional development programs in which the association has been actively engaged. The respondents were asked to rate their perceived level of usefulness of these activities, events, and/or programs in building the capacity of the association as a community. In addition, consensus is solicited through a series of statements on their perceptions of the association as a community and their willingness to participate or provide service in the association community.

This part of the discussion focuses on the following research questions:

How do professional/research communications contribute to (or are perceived to have contributed to) the capacity-building and growth of TTRA as an applied tourism research community? How do professional/research networks contribute to (or are perceived to have contributed to) the capacity-building and growth of TTRA as an applied tourism research community?

5.3.1 Capacity-Building of the Association Community

In a similar study on management associations, Crosetto and Salah (1997) highlighted the role of activities, events and programs in building the capacity of association communities. In this case study, two underlying dimensions with respect to research communication and networking are used in the scrutiny of the respondents' perceived usefulness of association activities or events in keeping TTRA members together. The first dimension pertains to the perceived usefulness of association conferences for association capacity-building. It encompasses a variety of items or aspects such as general (e.g., keynote and plenary) and concurrent sessions; academic/practitioner roundtables; pre-/post-conference or case study tours; social events; content of conference programs; conference networking; and time, location, and potential cost in attending association conferences. The second dimension has to do with other related activities or programs of the association, which potentially facilitate communication, networking and consequently capacity-building in the membership community. This includes aspects such as updating member activities in association newsletters, educational/professional development programs, making available membership directories, and being included in association mailing lists/listservs.

It is found that academics and practitioners are unanimous in acknowledging the usefulness of TTRA's events/activities/programs for the association's capacity-building. In particular, academic members see conference networking and conference venue as particularly important factors in

attracting their attendance. The study confirms the role of conferences in building a sense of community for a research association. As can be seen from discussions in the previous sections, the results have pointed to strong and positive correlations between research communication and professional networking with participation in association conferences. In addition, despite some differences in perceiving TTRA as a facilitator of practitioner networks, the chapter structure of the association does not appear to have any impediments to research communication and member networking. Partly, such a perception can be justified by the wide spread use of information technology as an enabler of research communication and membership interactions.

Nonetheless, as noted earlier, the perception of TTRA as being or becoming too academic has implications for the capacity-building of the association community. To some extent, this calls for greater efforts on the part of practitioner membership to engage in research production and consumption, and to be more involved in the management of TTRA. From an association planning and management perspective, such a perception may also be suggestive of a need to monitor the balance of growth (or involvement) of the membership community, and to assure an assorted array of activities/events/programs that target at both academic and practitioner networks with respect to their characteristics of research communication and networking.

5.3.2 The Sense of a Community and Community Service

In the scholarly literature, researchers refer to the sense of a community as "a degree of connectedness" among members and a recognition of, or conformity to, community values and norms (Chaskin, et al., 2001, p.14). In this study, the respondents' perceptions of the association as an applied tourism research community and their willingness to participate in community service provision are scrutinized through a series of statements on capacity-building through TTRA.

According to the results, consensus appears to be high among the study respondents on their perceptions of TTRA as a community. For example, most of the survey respondents agree that they are proud of their membership with this association; they also indicate they have experienced a sense of community while attending TTRA conferences, and are optimistic about the growth of the association. Nonetheless, in terms of service to the association, the level of consensus among survey respondents appears to be moderate, especially on their willingness or capacity to work in a volunteer capacity on association business. Arguably, while a lack of time and/or business travel budget could be part of the reason, this observation is a reflection of a declining enthusiasm or interest in volunteering among TTRA members in providing association community services.

As alluded to in previous discussions, the association's capacity as a community is highly related to the respondents' perceptions of and behaviour (or participation) in research communication and networking. Take network clusters for example. The pro-academic and pro-practitioner groups express a stronger sense of community than the "indifferent cluster"; they are also more willing to provide community service and tend to be more positive in viewing conference-related activities, events, or programs as useful strategies in keeping TTRA members together. In contrast, the "indifferent group" are distinct by their weak perceptions of the association as a community of applied tourism researchers. For association planners and managers, membership retention and the regaining of community interest would prove a challenge, particularly for those members who are indifferent in community participation and capacity-building activities. Nonetheless, judging from the community perception literature, it is not uncommon to see that members tend to be active in perceiving or prescribing what a sense of community is, but reactive or even passive in taking actions to provide community services or participate in its capacity-building activities. This will be discussed next with respect to association capacity clusters.

5.3.3 Association Capacity Clusters

Prior research has noted the connection between members' commitment and participation in the capacity-building of a community. For example, Chaskin, et al. (2001, pp.15-16) suggest there are two essential aspects in such commitments. The first has to do with members viewing themselves as stakeholders for the collective well-being of a community; the second is expressed through a willingness of these members to participate actively in maintaining and improving the community. In the context of this study, the respondents' commitment to the association can be seen through their perceptions of TTRA as an applied tourism research community and their willingness or engagement in providing community service.

In this study, two underlying factors are used to explore homogeneous clustering of the respondents. The community perception dimension is characterized by participants' feelings of TTRA as a community (e.g., whether they feel they are proud to be a member, encourage others to become members, feel at home while attending TTRA conferences, know the association's mission and vision, defend and justify its position, and anticipate future expansion and growth). The community service dimension is distinct by the respondents' willingness, engagement and voluntary actions to provide community service. This encompasses their willingness to work as a volunteer, willingness to

participate in association's business meetings, and their past experience in serving or wish to be able to serve the association community.

The factor-cluster analysis points to three distinct groups among the respondents with respect to their perceptions of TTRA as a community and their willingness to participate or engage in community capacity-building. The well-being of TTRA as a research community depends on the "builder" cluster, a minority group in the membership population. They are the most positive force in the association's capacity-building, as they are characterized by both favourable perceptions of TTRA as a community and their active engagement in community service. One may hope that the "perceiver" cluster represents a potentially useful force for TTRA capacity-building. This group represents the majority in the membership population. Although they are yet to be willing to engage in community service, these members generally have positive feelings of the association as a community. The "indifferent" cluster constitutes a challenge for association managers and planers. In many ways, because of their indifference in association capacity-building, these apathetic members represent the hazards of lapsing that Bhattacharya (1998) identified for customers in a paid-membership context. These findings are consistent with the results from an earlier Canada Chapter survey, in which Ennamorato (2003) reported that members were generally positive but not particularly enthusiastic in their overall impression of the association.

For TTRA planning and management, the clustering of membership by community perception and community service should have implications for the development of more and better packages or programs to enhance the perceived value of membership and to result in greater membership satisfaction. From the perspectives of research communication and professional networking, this study confirms the centrality of services, activities, and programs in enhancing the effectiveness, efficacy and efficiency in the uptake of knowledge in an applied research community (Xiao & Smith, 2007).

5.3.4 Services, Activities and Programs of Research Associations

From the perspective of a research association, Crosetto and Salah (1997, pp. 29-32) have succinctly summarized professional activities as organizing professional development events/programs, providing specialized advice or information, stimulating the exchange of experiences and information among the members, undertaking and publishing research of interest to the professional community, and developing a code of procurement ethics as norms or standards for professionalism or professional practice. In a demand-and-supply context, these are also noted as benefits (or utility

maximization) and association service strategies to enhance satisfaction and henceforth commitment to a paid-membership association (Bhattacharya, 1998; Crosetto & Salah, 1997). Similarly, in the instance of event management associations, Arcodia and Reid (2003) observed that notions such as education; networking and sharing of experiences; communication and keeping abreast of the field; professionalism, standards and ethics; career advancement or professional development; and promotion and positioning are amongst the common goals or objectives in the associations' mission statements. Arguably, many of these missions are fulfilled through activities such as conferences and symposia, seminars and workshops, communications through association publications, and networking or professional development programs.

As noted earlier, TTRA's outreach programs to its membership include both conferences and non-conference professional development activities. The study finds that the respondents are unanimous in perceiving both dimensions (conference and non-conference programs) as "useful" in the capacity-building of the association community. To a large extent, this finding is reiterated by the strong and positive correlations between association capacity and association conference participation. In other words, the respondents' perceptions of TTRA as a community and their willingness (or engagement) in community service provisions are both strongly and positively correlated with association conference attendance. Moreover, with respect to research communication and from the perspective of utility maximization in a paid-membership association (Bhattacharya, 1998), this study finds limited use of TTRA-endorsed media in the membership community. This finding could be meaningful for association planners and executives to adapt or improve communication strategies for better and more effective use of association-endorsed publications. Arguably, from a planning and management perspective, the organizations and deliveries of both conferences and other professional development activities should become an essential part of the association's service strategies for the betterment of research communication and member networking and consequently greater uptakes of knowledge in the membership community.

5.3.5 Membership Commitment and Association Planning

In the organizational science literature, researchers tend to conceive commitment as a multi-dimensional notion with affective, continuance and normative components (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Gundlach, et al., 1995; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). In social network analysis, commitment is also viewed as the strength of the relational ties among members of organizations or associations (Granovetter, 1973; Kim & Frazier, 1997). As noted by Allen and Meyer (1990), organizational

commitment has an impact on membership behaviours such as performance, participation, and turnover or retention in an association community.

While research questions in this study do not address commitments directly, implications of some of its results can be discussed in lights of organizational commitments and association planning. For example, respondents were asked to report their cumulative number of membership years with TTRA. Length of membership affiliation is positively correlated with perceptions of the association as a community and willingness to engage in volunteer service. This finding lends support to the results from the recent TTRA-International survey (TTRA, 2007) that observes that 78% of its membership is continuous, that is, members do not join, quit, and join again. Nonetheless, the regression analysis also suggests that the strength of such correlations appears moderately weak. In other words, more evidence is needed to justify the assumption that the longer a respondent is affiliated with TTRA as a member, the greater the sense of a community she or he feels about the association. To some extent, this may point to other factors or underlying dimensions as determinants of the relationship between commitment (e.g., continuous membership) and association community capacities.

In addition, Morgan and Hunt (1994, p.25) have noted that shared values of members in the beliefs, behaviours, and goals or objectives of an affiliation are direct precursors of organizational commitment and trust, which could in turn influence retention or turnover of organizational members. Allen and Meyer (1990, p.1) refer to this underlying dimension as the affective component in organizational commitment, which encompasses members' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization.

In light of these arguments, this study finds that a large majority (86%) of the survey respondents agree or strongly agree that they know the mission of TTRA, about 70% of the responses agree or strongly agree that the association's mission/vision statements are realistic and appropriate, and over 80% agree they are willing to work as volunteers for the association. To a large extent, the degree of membership commitment found in this case study is consistent with results from previous membership surveys of the same association. For example, from a research communication and networking perspective, the recent TTRA-International survey revealed that the majority of their respondents (more than 70% on average) agreed or strongly agreed that the association has performed a very good role in educational, social and professional endeavours in the membership community (TTRA, 2007). Similarly, in an earlier Canada Chapter survey, Ennamorato (2003) noted a good relationship between TTRA Canada and its members, in which 78% of the respondents rated the

overall value of membership as good, very good, or excellent. With respect to research communication and networking, a large proportion of the respondents from this chapter had high ratings on the organizational performance in terms of providing tourism researchers opportunities to exchange ideas and information (79%), encouraging cooperation between users and producers of research (60%), encouraging professional growth of Canadian tourism researchers (69%), and facilitating dissemination of tourism research results in Canada (67%).

The above findings have implications for planning and management to develop tailor-made association activities, events and programs. As acknowledged in the literature, while commitment has mediating effects on members' engagement or behaviours, it is association's activities, services and programs that remain essential in affecting membership participation, retention, and commitment to an organization (Gruen, et al., 2000). From the perspective of association planning and management, efforts to increase membership commitment and engagement can be achieved through strategic planning of its services, activities and programs. Nevertheless, as noted by prior researchers, developing programs and delivering value to enhance satisfaction and commitment have long remained a challenge with non-profit organizations or in paid-membership context due to 1) the diffusion of missions with multiple and often hard-to-define goals and objectives, 2) multiple constituencies frequently with conflicting goals, and 3) voluntary leadership that changes frequently, and though devoted, often lacks the time, staff and other resources required for activity planning and program development (Ayal, 1986, p.51; Bhattacharya, 1998).

Notably, such arguments are particularly applicable to the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community. Indeed, as acknowledged by the new president, the association is primarily a volunteer organization and would be nothing without the participation or engagement of its members (Ruf, 2007). To some extent, the degree of membership commitment found in this study as well as in other TTRA surveys is an indication of the association's efforts in its capacity-building. In much the same way, the identifications of communications and networking as priorities are in congruence with a capacity-building orientation in the strategic planning of the association as an applied tourism research community (Strategic Planning Task Force, 2004).

5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter presents a discussion of the results of the case study on TTRA as an applied tourism research community. The discussions are developed around the research questions, with theoretical

and practical implications of the study elaborated in relation to prior literature on scientific community, research communication and knowledge networks, and the planning and development of professional associations. Specifically, the first section of the discussion addresses perceived factors in the facilitation of research communications amongst TTRA members. The second part deals with issues in the formation of professional networks and the facilitation of member networking in the association community. The third part of the chapter focuses on the role(s) of research communication and networking in the capacity-building of the association community. As noted in the literature review, while this case study is not an evaluation of TTRA's strategic plan, its theoretical and practical implications potentially cast light on the growth of the association as an applied tourism research community.

Chapter 6
Conclusion

The applied tourism research community is characterized by a large and growing group of research producers and users, some in close touch, others separated along social and cultural boundaries. Research communications and professional networking through interactions or contacts amongst its members can build the capacity as well as create sub-cultures or knowledge networks within the applied research community.

This thesis research focuses on the role of tourism research associations in the social structuring of a cohesive applied research community and, consequently, in the fostering of its growth. Following an embedded single case design, the study uses TTRA as an example of the applied tourism research community. The research examines members' perceptions of the association in the capacity-building of the community through research communications as well as the formation of (or access to) professional and knowledge networks. Primary data collection is fulfilled through an online census of TTRA members. The survey instrument is informed by prior documentary sources and solicits information pertinent to issues or factors that facilitate or deter research communication and networking amongst members in the association community. Membership perceptions of professional communication, networking and capacity of the association community are also incorporated in the survey questions. Results of the study are described and discussed in the contexts of research communications, knowledge networks, scientific community, and research association planning and management. The purpose of this chapter is to summarize major research findings, to address theoretical and practical implications of the study, to present recommendations for association planning and management, and to reflect upon limitations and future research issues.

6.1 Summary of Thesis Research

Guided by research objectives and questions, results from this case study contribute to discussions on communication, networking and association capacity-building amongst members in a tourism research community. First, from the perspective of research communication, a number of social-demographic factors are found to affect media use as well as perceptions of professional communication in the TTRA community. These include members' occupations, career stages, membership categories, and research training. The chapter structure or members' affiliation with a

chapter does not affect their research communications. In particular, the study confirms a distinction between academics and practitioners and lends support to the notion of a two-community theory concerning cultural and functional differences in producing and consuming research. The study also finds that TTRA-endorsed media are of limited use in the membership community for professional communication, which has implications for association planning and management. In addition, it is found that association members form distinct clusters by the frequency and variety of information sources they have consulted for research communication. Specifically, the analysis points to a distinct group of academic members who consults primarily scholarly publications. In contrast, there is a cluster of practitioners who have consciously or unconsciously disregarded academic sources and consulted almost exclusively industry/trade publications in their professional communication. The open access and richness of information from the internet have nurtured the emergence of a distinct group, who are characterized by heavy reliance on web-based sources in their media use. Interestingly, this study also reveals a cluster of non-users who have little or limited use of information regardless of media types or sources. In terms of the association as a facilitator of information exchange and uptake, strong and positive correlations have reiterated the important role of association conferences in fostering research communications in the membership community.

Second, in terms of networks or networking amongst TTRA members, types and extent of member interactions are influenced by their occupations, in particular whether the member is an academic or practitioner. Professional networks are formed on the basis of research interests and expertise; so are the perceptions of research networks and the perceived role of TTRA in facilitating networking affected by gender, career stage, membership positions, and disciplinary and research training. Additionally, the study finds that the strength of ties amongst TTRA members is both cause and consequence of the size of a community or network. TTRA is seen as an important facilitator of scholarly networks, which is in agreement with the observation from previous surveys that the association is perceived as becoming too academic. Furthermore, the study also suggests that the community is characterized by pro-academic and pro-practitioner clusters in terms of members' perceptions of research networks and their attitudes towards networking. The emergence of an indifferent group in the membership community has implications for association planning, organizational commitment, and community capacity-building. In addition, while chapter structure or membership affiliation with a chapter does not have an impact on network perceptions and networking behaviour, the results point to an important facilitator role of TTRA conferences, which

are construed as important community events or functions for research communication, professional networking, and association capacity-building (Oppermann & Chon, 1997).

Third, with respect to association capacity-building, underlying dimensions derived from research communication and professional networking are used to examine members' perceived usefulness of association activities, events and programs in keeping the community together. The study finds that TTRA members clearly see TTRA playing a significant role in the capacity-building of the association as a community of tourism researchers and practitioners. The study also confirms the essential role of conferences in building a sense of community for a research association. In particular, respondents see professional networking and conference venue as particularly important factors in attracting attendance from the membership community. Additionally, there is strong consensus amongst members on their perceptions of TTRA as a community. Most of the respondents feel they are proud of their membership; they have experienced a sense of community while attending TTRA conferences; and they are optimistic in the prospects of the association. Nonetheless, due to time constraints and/or business travel budgets, the enthusiasm and/or willingness to engage in community service provisions are found to be moderately low and declining. Three homogeneous clusters are derived on the basis of community perception and community service provisions. Active builders, characterized by favourable perceptions of TTRA as a community and a spirit of volunteering, constitutes a positive force in the association's capacity-building. Friendly passive perceivers conjure up a potentially useful force in creating a sense of community, while the "indifferent" cluster represents a challenge or barrier to capacity-building in the membership community. Conceptually, these clusters developed on the basis of research communication, networking and association capacity-building are highly consistent in terms of pattern matching in case study analysis.

In addition, this research casts light on organizational commitments and association planning. Results suggest that length of membership affiliation is positively correlated with perceptions of the association as a community and willingness (or engagement) in community service provisions. These findings are in agreement with prior observations that a large majority of its membership are continuous rather than sporadic in their affiliation over the years (TTRA, 2007). Notably, results from the study suggest that members are aware of and have an appreciation for the association's mission statements. These are favourable indications in the capacity-building of TTRA as an applied tourism research community.

6.2 Theoretical and Practical Implications

As can be seen from the discussion chapter, this research has both theoretical and practical implications. From a theoretical perspective, the results contribute to scholarly discussions in relation to conceptual domains such as research communication as a social system, professional or knowledge networks, and capacities of a scientific community. The discussion also casts light on the praxis and growth of tourism as a field of applied social sciences research.

On the practical side, some of the results have addressed the remaining research question: *What are the implications of this case study for the tourism research community in general and for TTRA in the planning and development of communication and networking strategies in particular*? Overall, the above discussions (e.g., two communities; the interrelationship amongst research communication, networking and association conferences; the clustering of membership in an association community by research communication, professional networking, and community perceptions and service provisions; and membership commitments and association planning) are of general implications for both tourism research and practice, and for the planning and development of its research associations. More specifically, with respect to TTRA, a number of practical implications can be articulated in light of the following observations or expressed as managerial recommendations (see next heading). For example, as revealed in this study, the potential difference between North American and non-North American members in perceptions of networking within the association community could be of interest to planning and management for its future development. Despite its current international coverage and its goal of developing more international chapters, TTRA was originated and is still widely perceived as a North America-based association. While geographical distance can be mitigated with the help of information and communication technology, the engagement or involvement of international members for the well-being of the community would likely remain a challenge for association planning and management.

In addition, based on findings from this case study, efforts or initiatives should be undertaken to nurture and develop small, local, specialized, and task/problem-oriented networks for effective mobilization of research knowledge and expertise within the association community. TTRA membership is largely composed of academics; research associates and consultants; and practitioners from government agencies, CVBs, DMOs, and industry/business sectors. Such an applied tourism research community is characterized by a multitude of sub-networks. As noted in the review and discussion, these knowledge networks reside at different layers; they are distinct by size, density,

strength, and even perceived "distance" of interactions or contacts. Arguably, it is within such complex and multi-layered networks that mobilization or leveraging of knowledge is to take place in this applied research community. This study suggests that in milieu of small/close/strong networks, the notion of "bridging" may not appear as imperative as it was traditionally assumed in the utilization or knowledge literature. Moreover, the emergence of an "indifferent group" could be taken as an opportunity and a threat for the well-being and growth of the association community. While the conversion of apathetic members into active community service providers can be a challenge, the identification and existence of such a niche group could be translated into orientations or initiatives for activity/program developments.

6.3 Recommendations for Association Planning and Management

In addition to the above practical implications, recommendations can be made to implement capacity-building strategies through improved research communications and professional networking in a research association community. Specifically, with respect to TTRA as an applied tourism research community, the study identifies a number of interesting and (statistically) significant findings that could be of practical value to the planning and management at TTRA-International and/or its chapter levels.

First, due to the existence of "two communities", more effective and innovative research communication strategies should be established between academics and practitioners to increase the use and uptake of tourism research information, and to promote a sense of community amongst association members. The potential of using information technology to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of professional communication should be further explored as this appears to be a communication medium strongly shared by both academics and practitioners. In an applied research community that is characterized by a responsiveness of the academia to the needs or practices of the industry and government agencies, innovations in research communication can be fulfilled through the creation of shared platforms for academics, practitioners, and policy-makers to acquire and exchange information. Initiatives include (but are not limited to) open access forums; virtual communities of learning and practice; and interactive, web-based knowledge management tool for tourism researchers, managers and decision-/policy-makers.

Second, a related recommendation on the improvement of research communication is to enhance the level of use of TTRA-endorsed media in the membership community. This can be done through

various strategies and tactics. Initiatives include (but are not limited to) regular and frequent updates of association websites (e.g., encouraging membership institutions or organizations to post job announcements or professional development programs), improving online visibility and membership awareness of TTRA-endorsed publications, offering free access as membership incentives, and including contents of greater appeal to the membership community in association newsletters or bulletins (e.g., member activities).

Third, with respect to networking and knowledge networks, it appears imperative to nurture and establish communities of learning and practice by bringing research producers and users together through joint programs. Both academics and practitioners in this study agree and attach high importance to collaborative tourism research as initiatives for evidence-based practices. Results from the recent TTRA-International survey also lend support to the significance of developing collaborative research programs for the association to perform a more effective role in advocacy or promoting research use.

Fourth, in relation to association capacity-building through knowledge networks, this research points to a need for planning and management to nurture the development of small, specialized, and/or problem-based networks amongst its members. Results of the study are suggestive of capacity-building strategies that aim at mobilizing knowledge at local or "community" levels.

Fifth, strong and positive correlations from this study justify the association's investment and efforts in enhancing the value of conferences for research communication, member networking, and community capacity-building. Quality of experience from association conferences will remain central to the satisfaction and renewal of membership.

Sixth, the research identifies significant differences between North American and international memberships in perceiving association capacity and community networks. It is recommended that tailor-made professional development or member service programs should be developed and delivered to international memberships to shorten "the perceived geographical distance" and increase their commitment to the building of the association's capacity as an applied tourism research community.

Seventh, with respect to a large proportion of TTRA membership being research associates and consultants who are culturally and functionally performing a role in between academics and practitioners, association planning and management should further explore the intermediary role of

this unique and significant category of members in building the capacity of an applied research community. Arguably, this role typology shares the characteristics of both academics and practitioners, and could therefore function as "a bridge" in facilitating research communications and knowledge exchange or uptake between the "two communities". The participation and involvement of these members in event planning and program development will likely result in association initiatives, which appeal to the membership community at large and are likely more effective in building the capacity of a community of tourism researchers and practitioners.

6.4 Limitations and Future Research

This research has a number of limitations, some of which could serve as directions for future inquires. First, from a constructivist standpoint, for pervasive issues such as social networks, community perceptions and capacity-building, evidence should also be obtained through alternative methods such as interviews or focus groups of selected key members in the association community. Future undertakings in interpretive approaches could yield findings to confirm, complement or contradict the above results and discussions.

Second, as noted in the method chapter, from the perspective of case study data collection, a holistic multiple-case design could serve as an alternative approach. Future research of TTRA and its chapters could be conducted with data collected separately and/or by different means or methods from its distinct constituencies in varied contexts. Arguably, from treating chapters as a distinct case with different study instruments, richer data triangulations will likely result for comparisons and interpretations. In a related manner, future undertakings could also validate the present case study design in a different context, e.g., by implementing the design for the study of other tourism research associations or for a comparison of the present study results on TTRA with findings on other tourism research associations. For example, a related perspective in such validations could be to repeat the same case study of TTRA through longitudinal (co-hort or trend) studies to examine the patterns or changes in community perceptions of research communication, networking and capacity-building of this association as an applied tourism research community.

Third, with respect to the present case study survey and in absolute numbers of responses, the sample may appear small for some analytic statistical manipulations. While the analyses are guided by hypotheses and are likely to be free from testing (or type I) errors, the study results should be read in line with sample size or potential sampling errors such as slightly more responses from the

executives or board members. Nonetheless, as noted in the method and result chapters, this should not be taken as a undermining of sample representation for the study population. Moreover, on the basis of the present survey data, a possible next step could be to develop a hypothetical/conceptual model and to examine the path strength and model-fit for the interrelationships between research communication and researcher networking and their joint effect on community capacity.

Fourth, this research has led to discussions on complex and multi-layered knowledge networks in the association community. While data collected for this study do not allow for definitions or quantifications of network dimensions such as centrality and density, future social network analysis concerning the uptake of tourism research information could be undertaken in light of utilization propositions, particularly those assumptions on the effects of research communication and knowledge use in the applied tourism research community (Xiao & Smith, 2007, pp. 321-322).

Finally, in light of applied social sciences research that is characterized by the responsiveness of the academia to governmental policies and industry practices, this study has pointed to the important role of research associates and consultants as a unique intermediary typology in an applied research community. While social scientists as consultants and consulting as a strategy for knowledge mobilization in a scientific community have been researched in other fields or domains (Druckman, 2000a, 2000b; Jacobson, Butterill & Goering, 2005; Ulvila, 2000), the role of this intermediary typology in an applied tourism research community calls for future research attention. With respect to TTRA in particular, the large proportion of its membership from research associates and consultants are indicative of the importance of this role typology in facilitating communication and networking between academics and practitioners (including governmental agencies), and ultimately in building the capacity of the association as an applied tourism research community.

Appendix 1. An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey

(*Information/Consent Letter*)

May 9, 2007

Dear Fellow TTRA Member,

You are invited to participate in a survey that looks at the social structures of a research community. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to better understand how research communications and networking among TTRA members build the capacity of the association as an applied tourism research community. This project has been approved by the Board of TTRA-International, but is being conducted as a study independent of the association.

Your participation is voluntary. You may refuse to participate, refuse to answer any questions or withdraw at anytime. If you do not wish to respond to a particular question or statement, please skip over it. Data collected through this survey will be kept confidential; future communications of results from this study will be presented only in the aggregate to the tourism research community. While an executive summary will be provided to the Board of TTRA-International, the association will not receive a copy of the raw data.

If you have any questions about this project, please contact the researcher and/or his supervisor at the addresses below. In the meantime, this study has also been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance from the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo. Should you have any concerns resulting from your participation in this survey, please contact Dr. Susan E. Sykes, Director, Office of Research Ethics by phone (1-519-888-4567 ext. 36005), fax (1-519-725-9971), or by email <ssykes@uwaterloo.ca>. We would appreciate it if you could spend about 15-20 minutes to fill out the survey at:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.asp?u=997643693540

As an incentive and appreciation of your time, you will have the option of entering in a draw for one of ten $100 gift certificates. You need to fill out a survey to be included in the draw list. **Please submit your completed questionnaire online by May 23, 2007.** Coincidentally, as informed by the program support staff, the SurveyMonkey website will be down for maintenance in the evening of May 18 (Pacific Standard Time). The survey will re-open to collect responses on May 19. We apologize for this brief anticipated inconvenience.

Finally, we thank you in advance for your assistance and support.

Yours sincerely,

Honggen Xiao, PhD Dissertation Researcher
Stephen Smith, Professor and Dissertation Research Supervisor
Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo, Waterloo, ON N2L 3G1 Canada
Email: <h2xiao@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca> or <slsmith@healthy.uwaterloo.ca>
Tel: 1-519-888-4567 ext. 33894 or 1-519-888-4045; Fax: 1-519-886-2440

An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey

(The Questionnaire)

Instructions: Please check the item(s) that best indicate(s) your response to a question or statement.

Section I: Professional/Research Communication among TTRA Members

1. *Please indicate how often you use the following channels to send out or receive professional or research information.*

Channels	**Rarely/never**	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Very frequently**
Academic/research journals	☐	☐	☐	☐
Books (e.g., authored texts, edited collections, book chapters, anthologies)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Conference/congress/seminar presentations or proceedings	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trade magazines and newspapers	☐	☐	☐	☐
Newsletters and bulletins of associations (or organizations)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Internet postings, personal blogs or websites	☐	☐	☐	☐
Emails, listservs and electronic mailing lists	☐	☐	☐	☐
Workshops, training sessions	☐	☐	☐	☐
Professional, industry, government committees	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other [please specify]_____				

2. *Please indicate how often you use the following TTRA-endorsed (or associated) media as an outlet or source of information in your professional and research communication.*

TTRA-endorsed/associated media	**Rarely/never**	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Very frequently**
Journal of Travel Research	☐	☐	☐	☐
e-Review of Tourism Research	☐	☐	☐	☐
Conference proceedings (Chapter or TTRA-International)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Newsletters (Chapter or TTRA-International)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Websites (Chapter or TTRA-International)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Membership directory	☐	☐	☐	☐
Research suppliers directory	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourism and Hospitality Research Handbook	☐	☐	☐	☐
Handbook of Accountability Research	☐	☐	☐	☐

Tourism research agenda ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
Other chapter-specific media [please specify]_____

3. *What are the primary considerations that govern your communication media choice decisions?*

Factors influencing media choice in professional/research communication (e.g., journals, conferences)	**Not at all important**	**Not very important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**N/A, don't know**
Reputation and visibility of a medium	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Content and/or subject coverage of a medium	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Usefulness of information in a medium	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Timeliness of information in a medium	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Credibility of information in a medium	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Presentation style of research information in a medium	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am familiar with a journal's editor (or conference chair).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The medium reaches my intended audience or readers.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The medium is an international forum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The medium reaches a large audience.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The medium reaches the group of same interests.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The medium is an English-language forum.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The medium is a forum within the tourism field.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
There is a short time lag in publication.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. *Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about professional/research communication.*

Statements	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**N/A, don't know**
I submit research first to TTRA-associated media.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I publish in TTRA-associated media.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attend TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I read TTRA-associated media (e.g., journals, newsletters, websites).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use TTRA membership to establish professional contacts.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attend my chapter TTRA conferences (rather than the International conference) because of closer relationships in a smaller community.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attend my chapter TTRA conferences (rather than the International conference) because of border-crossing concerns.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attend my chapter TTRA conferences (rather than the International conference) because of cost.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attend TTRA conferences because of their location/venue.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I attend TTRA international conferences because they are better quality than my chapter conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I communicate with people of same/similar interest regardless of	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

whether they are TTRA members.					
I publish primarily for tenure/promotion purposes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I publish/present research for a sense of achievement or self-esteem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Quality is more important than quantity in building a reputation as a tourism researcher.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer doing research on my own instead of collaborating.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I collaborate with practitioners in doing tourism research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reading research is essential for competent practice/policy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourism academic publications contribute significantly to the advancement of social science theory and knowledge.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourism research is based on social science concepts and theories.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I tend to learn more about what works in my area of specialization from personal experience than from reading research reports.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. *In the past five years, how many TTRA—international and/or chapter—conferences have you attended?* Number of conferences attended [ ]

6. *In the past five years, how many tourism research association (other than TTRA) conferences have you attended?* Number of conferences attended [ ]

Section II: Professional/Research Networking among TTRA Members

7. *Please indicate the importance of TTRA in helping the formation of and access to the following networks.*

Network categories	**Not at all important**	**Not very important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**N/A, don't know**
Professional/research associations in the tourism field	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Electronic mailing lists/listservs in the tourism field	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Special interest groups in the tourism field	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Research project teams or task forces in tourism	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Collaborative/community-based research networks or knowledge networks in tourism	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel industry/tourism business practitioners	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Government tourism agencies and CVBs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Destination marketing organizations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourism academics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Media/publishers/editors	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Librarians/information managers/knowledge brokers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Research companies/research associates/consultants	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Students and teachers (or apprentices and mentors)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Conferences, congresses and/or seminars in travel and tourism	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Business partners/clients	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. *Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about networking through TTRA.*

Statements	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**N/A, don't know**
I contact other members only when I need their help (e.g., assisting in projects).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I contact members only when I have something to offer/share with them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do not want to be contacted by other members.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Member contacts are not helpful for my professional/research work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The community is so large that contacts can be meaningfully maintained only within my own interest group.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I like the chapter structure of TTRA because it allows me to develop closer personal contacts.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most of my professional/research contacts are outside TTRA.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I decide whether or not to contact a member based on his/her location.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I decide whether or not to contact a member based on how well we personally get along.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I tend to contact members who are approximately my age.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I benefit from member contacts because of their specialized knowledge.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Networking is more important to me than presenting research when going to TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Networking with editors will help me publish my research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The contacts I establish at TTRA conferences tend to last only as long as the conference lasts.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Interactions among researchers, government officers, and practitioners are very limited in TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Senior/distinguished researchers are centers of attention at TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am interested in getting to know new people at TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am interested in getting to know industry leaders at TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am keen on meeting authors of articles or books I have read.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy being introduced to top executives or officers of TTRA.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Keynote speakers are centers of attention at TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sponsors are centers of attention at TTRA conferences.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some of my TTRA member contacts have become personal friends.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section III: TTRA as a Research Community

9. *Please indicate how useful you think the following aspects are in keeping TTRA members together.*

Events, activities and/or programs	**Not at all useful**	**Not very useful**	**Useful**	**Very useful**	**N/A, don't know**
Making available membership directories	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Being included in mailing lists/listservs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Timely updates of member activities in TTRA newsletters	□	□	□	□	□
Keynote or plenary sessions at TTRA conferences	□	□	□	□	□
Concurrent sessions of association conferences	□	□	□	□	□
Academic/practitioner roundtables at TTRA conferences	□	□	□	□	□
Pre-/post-conference tours, or case study tours	□	□	□	□	□
Social events (e.g., dancing, banquets, hospitality suites)	□	□	□	□	□
Content of conference programs in meeting members' interest	□	□	□	□	□
Educational/professional development programs	□	□	□	□	□
Networking during TTRA conferences	□	□	□	□	□
Date/time of a conference	□	□	□	□	□
Location/venue of a conference	□	□	□	□	□
Potential costs of attending a conference	□	□	□	□	□

10. Indicate your level of agreement with the following about community capacity-building through TTRA.

Statements	**Strongly disagree**	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**	**N/A, don't know**
I am proud to be a TTRA member.	□	□	□	□	□
I feel at home while attending TTRA conferences.	□	□	□	□	□
I am willing to work as a volunteer for TTRA.	□	□	□	□	□
I know the mission and vision of the association.	□	□	□	□	□
TTRA's mission and vision statements are realistic and appropriate.	□	□	□	□	□
In case of any unjustified criticisms of the association, I am ready to defend it.	□	□	□	□	□
I am willing to participate in association business meetings or decisions.	□	□	□	□	□
I encourage others to become/renew TTRA membership.	□	□	□	□	□
When something negative happens to TTRA, I always do my best to help solve the problem.	□	□	□	□	□
I wish someday to become an executive/board member of the association.	□	□	□	□	□
I have served and wish to continue serving the association as an executive/board member.	□	□	□	□	□
TTRA will expand and grow in the years to come.	□	□	□	□	□

Section IV: Participant Characteristics

11. Your jobs and/or job categories? Check all the items that apply.

Jobs and/or occupational categories	**Yes**	**No**
Accommodation and lodging	□	□
Advertising, public relations and marketing	□	□
Associations	□	□
Attractions	□	□
Educational/research institutions (including student)	□	□
Government agencies, tourism offices and/or CVBs	□	□

Media/publishers/editors	□	□
Research associates/research companies/consultants	□	□
Tour operators/travel agencies	□	□
Transportation	□	□
Other [please specify]_____		

12. Your TTRA membership category?

□standard □premier □student □lifetime/emeritus □professional organization □educational organization

13. I am currently affiliated with _____Chapter.

California University of Pennsylvania	□	Greater Western States	□
Canada	□	South Eastern	□
Central States	□	South Central	□
Europe	□	Texas	□
Hawaii	□		

14. *How many year(s) have you been a TTRA member cumulatively?* Number of years [ ]

15. *Your position in TTRA-International or its chapters?* □ regular member □ executive/board member

16. I am also a member of other tourism research/professional associations. Check all the items that apply.

Tourism research associations	**Yes**	**No**
AIEST-International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism	□	□
APTA-Asia Pacific Tourism Association	□	□
CAUTHE-Council of Australian Universities in Tourism and Hospitality Education	□	□
IAST-International Academy for the Study of Tourism	□	□
CHRIE-International Council of Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education	□	□
ISTTE-International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators	□	□
PATA-Pacific Asia Travel Association	□	□
TIA-Travel Industry of America	□	□
TIAC-Travel Industry Association of Canada	□	□
Other [please specify]_____		

17. *Your gender?* □Male □Female

18. *Your age range?* □19 or under □20-29 □30-39 □40-49 □ 50-59 □60-69 □70-79 □80+

19. Your country/region of residence?

□US □Canada □Mexico □Central and South America □Caribbean Island States □British Isles □Other European States □Australia and New Zealand □Asia □Africa

20. Your highest level of education?

□High school □College diploma □University bachelor degree □University graduate degree

21. Your background training? Please check all the items that apply.

Agriculture	□	Leisure and Recreation	□
Anthropology	□	Marketing	□
Business	□	Nature and Environment	□
Economics	□	Psychology	□
Education	□	Religion	□
Geography	□	Tourism	□
History	□	Transportation	□
Hospitality	□	Urban or Regional Planning	□
Laws	□	Other [please specify]_____	

Section V: Final Comments

22. Are there any final thoughts or comments that you would like to share with us: 1) about the roles and functions of TTRA in facilitating communication, networking, and capacity-building of an applied tourism research community, or 2) about this survey research?

Final Comments:

23. I wish to receive a copy of the research summary.

□Yes [please provide your email] _____ □No

24. I wish to be included in the draw.

□Yes [please provide your email] _____ □No

Many thanks for your time!
Please submit your completed survey online.

Appendix 2. A Time Table for the TTRA Case Study

Time	Activities/Details
February 21	➢ Final approval of thesis project from TTRA Board meeting, with additional notes on research implementation (In the reply thank-you email, it was noted that a copy of the survey instrument and cover letter would be sent in early April for the executives' information).
March 29	➢ Proposal re-examination with the thesis committee.
April 2	➢ A copy of the survey instrument and cover letter sent to TTRA-International Board for their information.
April 2-30	➢ Application for ethic clearance through the Office of Research at the University of Waterloo; approved on April 16. ➢ Contacts with secretariats of TTRA-International for implementation (e.g., obtaining email list of current membership for the distribution of the online survey on April 30). ➢ After ethic clearance, an online survey was re-created (on the basis of the ethic-approved copy) using SurveyMonkey templates, with professional subscription to the program during the collection period (early May to mid June 2007).
May 2-June 16	➢ A brief introductory email to all members on May 2 about this project about a week before delivering the survey link (Appendix 3: Pre-survey/advance notice) ➢ Formal invitation to all members on May 9, with a cover letter and web link, for participation in the survey (Appendix 1: Information/consent letter) ➢ First email reminder to the un-responded members on May 29 (Appendix 3: First reminder). ➢ Second email reminders on June 5 (Appendix 3: Second reminder). ➢ Data collection was cut off on June 13 with a letter of appreciation (Appendix 3: Note of appreciation). ➢ Data files downloaded from the survey program and subscription cancelled (June 16)
June 17-August 31	➢ Draw for gift certificates and contact winners. ➢ Conversion of survey data files into SPSS database. ➢ Data analysis and describing results
September-December	➢ Thesis writing up (describing, interpreting and discussing results). ➢ Sending an executive summary to TTRA Board members and interested individuals (Appendix 4: Executive Summary). ➢ Getting ready for defence (examination committee, thesis submission, display, etc.). ➢ Thesis final examination and revisions if needed.

(Note: Time plan is subject to change due to un-anticipated or uncontrollable circumstances, of which the thesis committee will be informed.)

Appendix 3. Advance Notice, Survey Reminders, and Cut-off Notes

Advance Notice

Subject: Advance notice for an applied tourism research community survey

May 2, 2007

Dear Fellow TTRA Member:

There is growing interest in many fields about how research communities form and grow. The development of networks to communicate and share information, and to promote mutual benefits among members of these communities is essential to the healthy development of research in any field.

The Board of Directors of TTRA-International has approved a dissertation study to be conducted and supervised by researchers at the University of Waterloo and the University of Guelph on the role of TTRA-International as a research community.

In about a week or so, you will be receiving an e-mail invitation to take part in this study – through completion of an on-line survey. The survey will require no more than 15 to 20 minutes of your time. Your participation will help ensure the accuracy and usefulness of the results.

We hope you will be able to respond positively to the invitation to complete the on-line survey when you receive it. As an incentive, you will have the option of entering in a draw for one of ten $100 gift certificates.

We look forward to your positive response to the forthcoming survey.

Sincerely yours,

Honggen Xiao, PhD Dissertation Researcher
Stephen Smith, Professor and Dissertation Research Supervisor
Heather Mair, Assistant Professor and Dissertation Committee Member
Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo, Waterloo, ON N2L 3G1 Canada
Email: <h2xiao@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca>, <slsmith@healthy.uwaterloo.ca>, <hmair@healthy.uwaterloo.ca>
Tel: <1-519-888-4567 ext. 33894>, <1-519-888-4045>, or <1-519-888-4567 ext. 35917>
Fax: 1-519-886-2440

Marion Joppe, Director, Professor, and Dissertation Committee Member
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
University of Guelph
Guelph, ON N1G 2W1 Canada
Email: <mjoppe@uoguelph.ca>
Tel: 1-519-824-4120 ext. 56117
Fax: 1- 519-823-5512

First Email Reminder

Subject: First Reminder—An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey

May 29, 2007

Dear Fellow TTRA Member,

About three weeks ago, you received an online survey that aims at understanding how research communications and researcher networking among TTRA members contribute to the capacity-building of the association as an applied tourism research community. So far, the response to this study has been encouraging. However, we would welcome further responses. For those who have not yet had a chance to complete the questionnaire, please consider taking 15-20 minutes to fill out the survey at:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=tZdoeB%2bqPBTzpUGnci1ayg%3d%3d

Your participation is important to this research. By submitting a completed survey online, you will have the option of entering for a draw of one of ten $100 gift certificates. As indicated in the cover letter, this project has been approved by the Board of TTRA-International and has received ethics clearance through the University of Waterloo's Office of Research Ethics.

Thank you for considering this request.

Sincerely yours,

Honggen Xiao, PhD Dissertation Researcher
Stephen Smith, Professor and Dissertation Research Supervisor
Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo, Waterloo, ON N2L 3G1 Canada
Email: <h2xiao@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca> or <slsmith@healthy.uwaterloo.ca>
Tel: 1-519-888-4567 ext. 33894 or 1-519-888-4045
Fax: 1-519-886-2440

Second Email Reminder

Subject: Second Reminder—An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey

June 5, 2007

Dear Fellow TTRA Member,

One week left!

It is not too late to participate in this tourism research community survey. The collector will remain open until June 12 and your input will help us better understand TTRA as an applied tourism research community. Please take about 15 minutes to complete the survey at:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=tZdoeB%2bqPBTzpUGnci1ayg%3d%3d

The study was approved by the Board of TTRA-International and has received ethic clearance through the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo. Your time and input are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Honggen Xiao, PhD Dissertation Researcher
Stephen Smith, Professor and Dissertation Research Supervisor
Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo, ON N2L 3G1 Canada
Email: <h2xiao@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca> or <slsmith@healthy.uwaterloo.ca>
Tel: 1-519-888-4567 ext. 33894 or 1-519-888-4045
Fax: 1-519-886-2440

Cut-off Notes and Appreciation

Subject: Thank you for your participation in "An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey"

June 13, 2007

Dear Fellow TTRA Member,

Last month, you participated in a dissertation research conducted and supervised by researchers at the University of Waterloo and the University of Guelph that examines the social structures of the Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA) as an applied tourism research community. The purpose of the study was to better understand how research communications and researcher networking among TTRA members contribute to the capacity-building of the association as an applied tourism research community. As an independent research endeavour, we are grateful for the support from the Board of TTRA-International and for the kind assistance from its members. Data collection for this project is now complete and we look forward to sharing with you a summary of the survey results.

We also plan to share the results of the project with the tourism research community through conference presentations and/or journal articles, but findings will only be reported at the group level.

As with all University of Waterloo projects involving human participants, this project was reviewed by, and received ethic clearance through, the Office of Research Ethics at the University of Waterloo. At any time, should you have any comments or concerns resulting from your participation in this study, please feel free to contact Dr. Susan E. Sykes, Director, Office of Research Ethics by phone (1-519-888-4567 ext. 36005), fax (1-519-725-9971) or by email <ssykes@uwaterloo.ca>.

If you would like any further information about this study, please do not hesitate to contact us via the phone numbers or email addresses listed below. Once again, we thank you for your participation in this project.

Yours sincerely,

Honggen Xiao, PhD Dissertation Researcher
Stephen Smith, Professor and Dissertation Research Supervisor
Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo, Waterloo, ON N2L 3G1 Canada
Email: <h2xiao@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca> or <slsmith@healthy.uwaterloo.ca>
Tel: 1-519-888-4567 ext. 33894 or 1-519-888-4045
Fax: 1-519-886-2440

Appendix 4. Executive Summary

Cover Letter by Email

Subject: Executive Summary—An Applied Tourism Research Community Survey

November 27, 2007

Dear Fellow TTRA Members,

The survey of TTRA as an applied tourism research community in which you have participated has now been completed; I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for your participation and support of this research. The response to the online survey was very good, with about 29% of the members returning completed questionnaires.

I realize primary data collection for this research occurred and was completed shortly before the 2007 TTRA Annual Conference—a very busy time of the year for fellow members. That you were able to fit this survey into your schedule is highly appreciated, and is indeed indicative of a concern amongst the community towards a better understanding of research communications, professional networking and association capacity-building. I am also grateful to the association board for their support of this project as an independent undertaking, and to the secretariat for her assistance in data collection.

As promised, I am attaching a brief summary of the major findings of this research, along with some recommendations for association planning and management. This is sent to those who have expressed an interest and have left behind their emails for the report, and copied to the association secretariat. After review and examination by the dissertation committee, the whole thesis, titled *The Social Structure of a Scientific Community: A Case Study of the Travel and Tourism Research Association*, will be available electronically from the library at the University of Waterloo. Should you have comments or questions regarding any aspect of this study, I would be happy to discuss them with you.

Finally, I wish to thank you once again for your support and participation, without which this study could not have been completed. I remain

Sincerely yours,

Honggen Xiao, PhD Dissertation Researcher
Stephen Smith, Professor and Dissertation Research Supervisor
Department of Recreation and Leisure Studies
University of Waterloo, ON N2L 3G1 Canada
Email: <h2xiao@ahsmail.uwaterloo.ca> or <slsmith@healthy.uwaterloo.ca>
Tel: 1-519-888-4567 ext. 33894 or 1-519-888-4045
Fax: 1-519-886-2440

TTRA as an Applied Tourism Research Community Survey
(An Executive Summary)

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to examine the role of tourism research associations in the capacity-building of an applied research community through facilitating research communications and professional networks. Following an embedded single case design, the study uses the Travel and Tourism Research Association (hereafter TTRA) as an example of an applied tourism research community. The research examines membership perceptions of and behaviours in research communications, networking, and capacity-building in the association community. Based on documentary sources, an instrument was developed for primary data collection through an online census of TTRA members. Data collection was completed in the Spring of 2007, with a response rate of 28.7%. Analyses are guided by a series of hypotheses, with results of the case study described and discussed in the contexts of research communications, knowledge networks, scientific community, and research association planning and management. Practical implications of the study are developed into a set of recommendations for planning and management. The research concludes with reflections upon limitations and prospects for future inquiries.

Major Findings

Results of this research are presented from three perspectives. First, with respect to research communication, a number of social demographic factors are found to affect media use as well as perceptions of professional communication in TTRA. These include members' occupations, career stages, membership categories, and research training. The chapter structure or members' affiliation with a chapter does not affect their research communications. The study confirms a distinction between academics and practitioners and lends support to the notion of a two-community (academics versus practitioners) theory concerning differences in producing and consuming research. The study also finds that TTRA-endorsed media are of limited use for professional communications. TTRA members form distinct clusters based on the frequency and variety of information sources they have consulted for research communication. For example, some academics who acquire research information primarily from scholarly publications form a homogeneous group in contrast to a group of practitioners who tend to consciously or unconsciously disregard academic sources and consult almost exclusively industry or trade publications in their information search. The over-reliance on (or

excessive use of) the internet has formed a typology of media use in the association community, which is typical of the information age. In addition, there also appears to be a cluster of members who have little acquisition of information regardless of sources or media types.

Second, in terms of networking, types and extent of member interactions are influenced by their occupations, in particular whether a member is an academic or practitioner. Professional networks form on the basis of research interests and expertise. Community perceptions of networking and the perceived role of TTRA as a facilitator of research networks are influenced by socio-demographic factors such as gender, career stage, membership positions, and disciplinary and research training. In addition, the study finds that the strength of ties amongst members is both cause and consequence of the size of a community or network. The association is generally perceived as becoming too academic, and in light of this, TTRA is seen as an important facilitator of scholarly networks. Furthermore, the community is characterized by pro-academic and pro-practitioner clusters in terms of membership perceptions of research networks and their attitudes towards networking. While chapter structure or membership affiliation with a chapter does not have an impact on network perceptions and behaviour, the results point to an important facilitator role of TTRA's conferences for research communication, professional networking, and association capacity-building.

Third, TTRA members clearly see TTRA playing a significant role in the capacity-building of a community of tourism researchers. Respondents see professional networking and association conference venue as particularly important factors in attracting attendance from the membership community. The study confirms the essential role of conferences in building a sense of community of applied tourism researchers. There is strong consensus amongst members on their perceptions of TTRA as a community. Participants form homogeneous clusters by their perceptions of a community and their willingness or engagement in community service provisions. Arguably, the well-being of TTRA as an applied tourism research community depends on the "active builder" cluster, a minority group in the membership population. They are the most positive force in the association's capacity-building, as they are characterized by both favourable perceptions of TTRA as a community and active engagement in community service. The "friendly perceiver" cluster represents a potentially useful force for TTRA capacity-building. This group represents the majority in the membership population. Although they are yet to be willing or available to engage in community service, these members generally have positive feelings of the association as a community. Nonetheless, the "indifferent" cluster constitutes a challenge for capacity-building due to their apathy or lack of interest. Conceptually, the above homogeneous clusters developed on the basis of research

communication, networking and association capacity-building are highly consistent in terms of pattern matching in case study analysis.

Recommendations

This study has practical implications, some of which are expressed as recommendations for TTRA planning and management.

1. More effective and innovative research communications are needed

The formation of distinct groups or sub-communities calls for more effective or innovative research communications between academics and practitioners to increase the use and uptake of travel and tourism research information, and to promote a sense of community amongst all members. The potential of using information technology to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of professional communication should be further explored as this appears to be a communication medium strongly shared by both academics and practitioners. In an applied research community that is characterized by a responsiveness of the academia to the needs, policies, and practices of the industry and governmental agencies, innovations in research communication can be fulfilled through the creation of shared platforms for different groups to acquire and exchange information. In this aspect, initiatives include (but are not limited to) open access forums; virtual communities of learning and practice; and interactive, web-based knowledge management tool for travel and tourism researchers, managers, and decision-/policy-makers.

2. Enhance the level of use of association-endorsed publications by TTRA members

The research identifies a need to increase the use of TTRA-endorsed publications in the membership community. Strategies and tactics could encompass regular and frequent updates of association websites, improving online visibility and membership awareness of TTRA-endorsed publications, offering incentives to increase levels of use, and including contents of greater appeal to the membership community in association newsletters or bulletins (e.g., member activities, job announcements).

3. Nurture and develop collaborative or joint research programs in the membership community

It appears imperative to nurture and establish communities of learning and practice by bringing research producers and users together through collaborative or joint research programs. In this study,

both academics and practitioners agree and attach high importance to collaborative tourism research as initiatives for evidence-based practices. The development of such programs will enhance the association's role in advocacy and promotion of research use.

4. Nurture small, specialized, and/or problem-based networks amongst TTRA members

The research identifies a need to nurture the development of small, specialized, and/or problem-based networks amongst TTRA members. The mobilizing and leveraging of research knowledge appear to work more effectively at local rather than global levels.

5. Enhance the value of association conferences for quality of symposium experience

Strong and positive correlations support the need for association planning and management to invest resources and efforts in enhancing the value of conferences for research communication, member networking, and community capacity-building. Quality of experience from association conferences will remain central to the satisfaction and renewal of membership.

6. Develop more international membership services and programs

The research identified significant differences between North American and international memberships in perceiving association capacity and community networks. It is recommended that tailor-made professional development or member service programs be developed and delivered to shorten "the perceived geographical distance" and increase their commitment to the building of the association's capacity as an applied tourism research community.

7. Undertake initiatives to better involve research associate and consultant members

A large number of TTRA members are research associates and/or consultants. They are performing a role in between academics and practitioners. The intermediary role of this unique category of membership in building the capacity of an applied research community should be further explored. Arguably, this role typology shares the characteristics of both academics and practitioners, and could therefore function as "a bridge" in facilitating research communications and knowledge exchange between the "two communities". The participation and involvement of these members in event planning and program development will likely result in initiatives, which are appealing to the membership at large and effective in building the capacity of a community of tourism researchers and practitioners.

Bibliography

Aas, C., Ladkin, A., & Fletcher, J. (2005). Stakeholder collaboration and heritage management. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32, 25-48.

Agranoff, R., & Radin, B. (1991). The comparative case study approach in public administration. *Research in Public Administration*, 1, 203-231.

Agrawal, A. (2001). University-to-industry knowledge transfer: Literature review and unanswered questions. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 3(4), 285-302.

Allen, N., & Meyer, J. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 1-18.

Amara, N., Ouimet, M., & Landry, R. (2004). New evidence on instrumental, conceptual, and symbolic utilization of university research in government agencies. *Science Communication*, 26(1), 75-106.

Anderson, C., Ciarlo, J., & Brodie, S. (1981). Measuring evalution-induced change in mental health programs. *In* J. Ciarlo, (ed.), *Utilizing evaluation: Concepts and measurement techniques* (pp.97-123). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Annals of Tourism Research. (2007). *Annals index: Volumes 1 through 33 (1973-2006)* <www.elsevier.com/framework_products/promis_misc/atr2006.pdf> (Retrieved: 27 February).

Anthony, L., East, H., & Slater, M. (1969). The growth of the literature of physics. *Reports on Progress in Physics*, 32(July), 709-767.

Arcodia, C., & Reid, S. (2003). Professionalising event practitioners: The educational role of event management associations. *In* K. Weber, (ed.), *Advances in convention, exhibition & event research, convention and Expo summit* (pp.29-31). Retrieved from <http://eprint.uq.edu.au/archive/00001507/01/ca_sr_profep.pdf> (20 November 2006).

ASAE. (1994). *Associations: A family portrait*. Washington DC: American Society of Association Executives.

Ayal, I. (1986). Planning for a professional association. *Long Range Planning*, 19(3), 51-58.

Babbie, E. (1986). *The practice of social research* (4th edition). Belmont: Wadsworth.

Baloglu, S., & Assante, L. (1999). A content analysis of subject areas and research methods used in five hospitality management journals. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 23, 53-70.

Bardach, E.(1984). The dissemination of policy research to policymakers. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 6(2), 125-144.

Beesley, L. (2004a). Multi-level complexity in the management of knowledge networks. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 8(3), 71-88.

Beesley, L. (2004b). Multi-level complexity in the management of collaborative tourism research settings. *In* C. Cooper, C. Arcodia, D. Solnet & M. Whitford, (eds.), *Creating tourism knowledge: A selection of papers from CAUTHE 2004* (pp. 20-36). Victoria, Australia: Common Ground Publishing.

Beesley, L. (2005). The management of emotion in collaborative tourism research settings. *Tourism Management*, 26, 261-175.

Ben-David, J. (1964). Scientific growth: A sociological view. *Minerva*, 2, 455-476.

Ben-David, J., & Collins, R. (1966). Social factors in the origin of a new science: The case of psychology. *American Sociological Review*, 31(4), 451-465.

Beyer, J., & Trice, H. (1982). The utilization process: A conceptual framework and synthesis of empirical findings. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 27, 591-622.

Bhatt, G. (1998). Managing knowledge through people. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 5(3), 165-171.

Bhatt, G. (2001). Knowledge management in organizations: Examining the interaction between technologies, techniques, and people. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 5(1), 68-75.

Bhattacharya, C. (1998). When customers are members: Customer retention in paid membership contexts. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(1), 31-44.

Bhattacharya, C., Rao, H., & Glynn, M. (1995). Understanding the bond of identification: An investigation of its correlates among art museum members. *Journal of Marketing*, 59(October), 46-57.

Blakeman, P. (2005). Notes on the academic roundtable. Kelowna, BC: TTRA Canada Conference (2-5 November).

Boggs, J. (1992). Implicit models of social knowledge use. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 14(1), 29-62.

Botterill, D. (2001). The epistemology of a set of tourism studies. *Leisure Studies*, 20, 199-214.

Boyd, R., & Menlo, A. (1984). Solving problems of practice in education. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 6(1), 59-74.

Brooks, H. (1967). Science and the allocation of resources. *American Psychologist*, 22, 187-201.

Brown, J., & Duguid, P. (1996). Organizational learning and communities-of-practice: Towards a unified view of working, learning, and innovation. *In* M. Cohen & L. Sproull, (eds.), *Organizational learning* (pp.58-82). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Bruner, E. (1994). Abraham Lincoln as authentic reproduction: A critique of postmodernism. *American Anthropologist,* 96(2), 397-415.

Bruner, E. (1999). Return to Sumatra: 1987, 1997. *American Ethnologist,* 26(2), 461-477.

Buchel, B., & Raub, S. (2002). Building knowledge-creating value networks. *European Management Journal*, 20(6), 587-596.

Buhalis, D. (1999). Information technology for small and medium-sized tourism enterprises: Adaptation and benefits. *Information Technology and Tourism*, 2(2), 79-95.

Campbell, D. (1961). The mutual methodological relevance of anthropology and psychology. *In* F. Hsu, (ed.), *Psychological anthropology: Approaches to culture and personality* (pp.333-352). Homewood, Illinois: Dorsey Press.

Campbell, D. (1975). "Degree of freedom" and the case study. *Comparative Political Studies*, 8(2), 178-193.

Campbell, D. (no date). Foreword. *In* R. Yin, (authored), (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3rd edition)(pp.ix-xi). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Canadian Tobacco Control Research Initiative, (2005). *Better solutions for complex problems: Description of a model to support better practices for health*. Toronto, ON: CTCRI.

Cantor, P. (1999). Hijacking the modern language association: I. *Society*, 36(January/February), 24-29.

Caplan, N. (1979). The two communities theory and knowledge utilization. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 22, 459-470.

Caplan, N., Morrison, A., & Stambaugh, R. (1975). *The use of social science knowledge in policy decisions at the national level*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Carson, D., & Adams, K. (2004). Strategic knowledge management in tourism: Effectiveness and constraints. *In* C. Cooper, C. Arcodia, D. Solnet & M. Whitford, (eds.), *Creating tourism knowledge: A selection of papers from CAUTHE 2004* (pp.5-18). Victoria, Australia: Common Ground Publishing.

Carter, R., Baxter, G., & Hockings, M. (2001). Resource management in tourism research: a new direction? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 9(4), 265-280.

CAUTHE. (2005). Sharing Tourism Knowledge: Evaluation Feedback. Council of Australian

Universities in Tourism and Hospitality Education <www.cauthe.com.au/newConference.htm> (Retrieved: 14 September 2006).

Chaskin, R., Brown, P., Venkatesh, S., & Vidal, A. (2001). Community capacity and capacity building: A definitional framework. *In* R. Chaskin, P. Brown, S. Venkatesh & A. Vidal, (eds.), *Building community capacity* (pp.7-26). New York: Aldine.

Cole, S., & Cole, J. (1967). Scientific output and recognition. *American Sociological Review*, 32(June), 377-390.

Collins, H. (1974). The TEA set: Tacit knowledge and scientific networks. *Science Studies*, 4(2), 165-185.

Conner, R. (1981). Measuring evaluation utilization: A critique of different techniques. *In* J. Ciarlo, (ed.), *Utilizing evaluation: Concepts and measurement techniques* (pp. 59-75). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Coursey, D. (1989). Using experiments in knowledge utilization research: Strengths, weaknesses and potential applications. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 10(3), 224-238.

Crane, D. (1969). Social structure in a group of scientists: A test of the "invisible college". *American Sociological Review*, 34(3), 335-352.

Crane, D. (1972). *Invisible colleges: Diffusion of knowledge in scientific communities*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

Crawford-Welch, S., & McCleary, K. (1992). An identification of the subject areas and research techniques used in five hospitality-related journals. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 11, 155-167.

Creswell, J. (1994/2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (2nd edition.). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Crombie, A. (1963). *Scientific change: Historical studies in the intellectual, social and technical conditions for scientific discovery and technical invention, from antiquity to the present*. London: Heinemann.

Crosetto, G., & Salah, T. (1997). National purchasing and supply management associations: A means to reinforce professional skills. *International Trade Forum*, Issue 3, 28-34.

Dann, G. (1997). Paradigms in tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24, 472-474.

Dann, G. (1999). Theoretical issues for tourism's future: Identifying the agenda. *In* D. Pearce & R. Butler, (eds.), *Contemporary issues in tourism development*(pp.13-30). London: Routledge.

Dann, G. (2001). Theoretical advances in the sociological treatment of tourism. *In* S. Quah & A.

Sales, (eds.), *The international handbook of sociology* (pp.367-384). London: Sage.

Dann, G. (2005). The theoretical state of the art in the sociology and anthropology of tourism. *Tourism Analysis*, 10, 3-15.

Dann, G., Nash, D., & Pearce, P. (1988). Methodology in tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15, 1-28.

Dartnall, J., & Store, R. (1990). The literature of tourism. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 1(1), 49-53.

Denzin, N. (1994). The art and politics of interpretation. *In* N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln, (eds.), *A handbook of qualitative research* (pp.500-515). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Deshpande, R., & Zaltman, G. (1982). Factors affecting the use of market research information: A path analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19(February), 14-31.

Deshpande, R., & Zaltman, G. (1983). Patterns of research use in private and public sectors. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 4(4), 561-575.

Diekhoff, G. (1992). *Statistics for the social and behavioral sciences: Univariate, bivariate, multivariate*. Dubuque: Wm. C. Brown.

Donovan-Neale, W., & Mannell, R. (1983). Information seeking behaviors of municipal recreation practitioners. *Recreation Research Review*, 10(2),19-27.

Druckman, D. (2000). The social scientist as consultant. *American Behavioral Scientists*, 43(10), 1565-1577.

Druckman, D. (2000). Frameworks, techniques, and theory: Contributions of research consulting in social sciences. *American Behavioral Scientists*, 43(10), 1635-1666.

Dufour, S., & Fortin, D. (1992). Annotated bibliography on case study method. *Current Sociology*, 40(1), 167-200.

Dunn, W. (1980). The two communities metaphor and models of knowledge use: An exploratory case survey. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 1, 515-536.

Dunn, W. (1983a). Measuring knowledge use: Research in progress. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 5(1), 120-133.

Dunn, W. (1983b). Qualitative methodology: Research in progress in knowledge. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 4(4), 590-597.

Easton, G., & Easton, D. (2003). Marketing journals and the research assessment exercise. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 19, 5-24.

Echtner, C., & Jamal, T. (1997). The disciplinary dilemma of tourism studies. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 24, 868-883.

Eckstein, H. (1975). Case study and theory in political science. *In* F. Greenstein & N. Polsby, (eds.), *Strategies of inquiry* (pp.79-137). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Eisenhardt, K. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532-550.

Ennamorato, M. (2003). Key findings from the TTRA Canada member survey. TTRA Canada <http://ttracanada.ca/en/membership/membership_survey_results.pdf> (Retrieved: 17 September 2006)

Faulkner, B., & Goeldner, C. (1998). Progress in tourism and hospitality research. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37, 76-80.

Faulkner, B., & Ryan, C. (1999). Innovations in tourism management research and conceptualization. *Tourism Management*, 20, 3-6.

Fesenmaier, D., O'Leary, J., & Leppers, A. (1999). Developing a knowledge-based tourism marketing information system. *Information Technology and Tourism*, 2, 31-44.

Fothergill, A. (2000). Knowledge transfer between researchers and practitioners. *Natural Hazards Review*, 1(2), 91-98.

Franklin, A., & Crang, M. (2001). The trouble with tourism and travel theory. *Tourist Studies*, 1(1), 5-22.

Frechtling, D. (2004). Assessment of the tourism/hospitality journals' role in knowledge transfer: An exploratory study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43, 100-107.

Garvey, W., & Griffith, B. (1967). Scientific communication as a social system. *Science*, 157(3792), 1011-1016.

George, A. (1979). Case studies and theory development: The method of structured, focused comparison. *In* P. Lauren, (ed.), *Diplomacy: New approaches in history, theory, and policy* (pp.43-68). New York: Free Press.

Ghauri, P., & Grønhaug, K. (2002). *Research methods in business studies: A practical guide*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Gilgun, J. (1994). A case for case studies in social work research. *Social Work*, 39, 371-380.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. London: Wiedenfeld and Nicholson.

Goeldner, C. (1970/71). Where to find travel research facts. *The Travel Research Association-Travel Research Bulletin*, 9(3), 1-7.

Goeldner, C. (1999). Directions and trends in tourism research: Past, present, and future. *In* V. Heung, J. Ap & K. Wong, (eds.), *Asia Pacific Tourism Association fifth annual conference proceedings* (pp.33-44). Hong Kong: Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Graburn, N., & Jafari, J. (1991). Introduction: Tourism social science. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(1), 1-11.

Granovetter, M. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78(6), 1360-1380.

Griffith, B., & Mullins, N. (1972). Coherent social groups in scientific change. *Science*, 177, 959-964.

Griffith, B., Small, H., Stonehill, J., & Dey, S. (1974). The structure of scientific literatures II: Towards a macro and microstructure for science. *Science Studies*, 4(4), 339-365.

Gruen, T., Summers, J., & Acito, F. (2000). Relationship marketing activities, commitment, and membership behaviors in professional associations. *Journal of Marketing*, 64(July), 34-49.

Guba, E. (1990). The alternative paradigm dialog. *In* E. Guba, (ed.), *The paradigm dialog* (pp.17-27). Newbury Park: Sage.

Gummesson, E. (1991). *Qualitative methods in management research*. London: Sage.

Gundlach, G., Achrol, R., & Mentzer, J. (1995). The structure of commitment in exchange. *Journal of Marketing*, 59(January), 78-92.

Gupta, B., Iyer, L., & Aronson, J. (2000). A study of knowledge management practices using grounded theory approach. *Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research*, 59, 668-672.

Hagstrom, W. (1964). Traditional and modern forms of scientific network. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 9(3), 241-263.

Hagstrom, W. (1965). *The scientific community*. New York: Basic Books.

Hall, G., Loucks, S., Rutherford, W., & Newlove, B. (1975). Levels of use of the innovation: A framework of analyzing innovation adoption. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 26(1), 52-56.

Hall, M. (1991). Tourism as the subject of post-graduate dissertations in Australia. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 18(3), 520-523.

Hall, M. (1999). Rethinking collaboration and partnership: A public policy perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 7(3/4), 274-289.

Hall, M. (2005). Systems of surveillance and control: Commentary on 'An analysis of institutional contributors to three major academic tourism journals: 1992-2001'. *Tourism Management*, 26, 653-656.

Hall, M., Williams, A., & Lew, A. (2004). Tourism: Conceptualizations, institutions, and issues. *In* A. Lew, M. Hall & A. Williams, (eds.), *A companion to tourism* (pp.3-21). Malden: Blackwell.

Hamel, J. (1992). The case study method in sociology: Introduction to new theoretical and methodological issues. *Current Sociology*, 40(special issue), 1-7.

Harmston, F. (1962). The need for basic research in the travel industry. *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 1(3), 1-4.

Hartley, J. (1994). Case studies in organizational research. *In* C. Cassell & G. Symon, (eds.), *Qualitative methods in organizational research: A practical guide* (pp.208-229). London: Sage.

Havitz, M., & Dimanche, F. (1999). Leisure involvement revisited: Drive properties and paradoxes. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 31, 122-149.

Havitz, M., & Dimanche, F. (1997). Leisure involvement revisited: Measurement advances and conceptual conundrums. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 29, 245-278.

Henning, G., Levy, S., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2005). An inquiry into the nature and composition of tourism, leisure and hospitality research. *Tourism*, 53(3), 187-203.

Hoffman, J., Hoelscher, M., & Sherif, K. (2005). Social capital, knowledge management, and sustained superior performance. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9(3), 93-100.

Hook, R. (1962). The areas of agreement developed by the committees and approved by the council (Part I & Part II). *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 1(1), 2 & 1(2), 3-4.

Howes, M. (1980). The uses of indigenous technical knowledge in development. *In* D. Brokensha, D. Warren & O. Werner, (eds.), *Indigenous knowledge systems and development* (pp.335-351). Washington, DC: University Press of America.

Howey, R., Savage, K., Verbeeten, M., & van Hoof, H. (1999). Tourism and hospitality research journals: Cross-citations among research communities. *Tourism Management,* 20, 133-139.

Hunter, C. (1997). Sustainable tourism as an adaptive paradigm. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24, 850–867.

Imber, J., & Horowitz, I. (1999). Ferment in professional associations. *Society*, 36(January/February), 5-7.

Israel, B., Schulz, A., Parker, E., & Becker, A. (1998). Review of community-based research: Assessing partnership approaches to improve public health. *Annual Review of Public Health*,

19, 173-202.

Israel, J. (1972). *Building the organizational society*. New York: The Free Press.

Ives, W., Torrey, B., & Gordon, C. (1998). Knowledge management: An emerging discipline with a long history. *Journal of Knowledge Management,* 1(4), 269-274.

Jacobson, N., Butterill, D., & Goering, P. (2005). Consulting as a strategy for knowledge transfer. *The Milbank Quarterly*, 83(2), 299-321.

Jafari, J. (1977). Editor's page. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 5 (special number), 6-11.

Jafari, J. (1990). Research and scholarship: The basis of tourism education. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 1(1), 33-41.

Jafari, J. (1998). Editor's page. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 25 (supplement), 989-990.

Jafari, J. (2001). The scientification of tourism. *In* V. Smith & M. Brent, (eds.), *Hosts and guests revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century* (pp. 28-41). New York: Cognizant.

Jafari, J. (2002). Tourism's landscape of knowledge. *ReVista: Harvard Review of Latin America* <http://drclas.fas.harvard.edu/revista/index.php?article_id=35> (Retrieved: 7 July 2006).

Jafari, J. (2005). Dr. Jafari on tourism as a global phenomenon (An interview). *WTO News-Quarterly Magazine of the World Tourism Organization*, Issue 3, 8-9.

Jafari, J., & Aaser, D. (1988). Tourism as the subject of doctoral dissertations. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 15(4), 407-429.

Jafari, J., & Ritchie, J.R.B. (1981). Toward a framework for tourism education: Problems and prospects. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 8(1), 13-33.

Jogaratnam, G., Chon, K., McCleary, K., Mena, M., & Yoo, J. (2005). An analysis of institutional contributors to three major academic tourism journals: 1992-2001. *Tourism Management*, 26, 641-648.

Johnson, K. (1980). Stimulating evaluation use by integrating academia and practice. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 2(2), 237-262.

Jordan, D., & Roland, M. (1999). An examination of differences between academics and practitioners in frequency of reading research and attitudes toward research. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 31, 166-170.

JTR. (1973a). A tribute to William B. Keeling. *Journal of Travel Research*, 12(2), 14.

JTR. (1973b). Recommendations of the national tourism resources review commission. *Journal of Travel Research*, 12(2), 20-23.

Kadushin, C. (1966). On social circles in urban life. *American Sociological Review*, 31, 786-802.

Kadushin, C. (1968). Power, influence and social circles. *American Sociological Review*, 33, 685-699.

Kaplan, M. (1997). Four theoretical approaches to leisure—past to present. *Society & Leisure*, 20(2), 523-532.

Keeling, W. (1969). TRA and WCTR—Movement toward a merger. *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 7(4), 1-5.

Kidd, C. (1959). Basic research—Description vs. definition. *Science*, 129, 368-371.

Kiely, J., & Armistead, C. (2005). Regional learning networks: The reality. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 12(4), 237-246.

Kim, K., & Frazier, G. (1997). Measurement of distributor commitment in industrial channels of distribution. *Journal of Business Research*, 40(2), 139-154.

Kim, S. (1998). *Content analysis: Annals of Tourism Research and Journal of Travel Research*. Unpublished MS thesis: University of Wisconsin-Stout.

Kloss, L. (1999). The suitability and application of scenario planning for national professional associations. *Nonprofit Management & Leadership*, 10(1), 71-83.

Knorr-Cetina, K. (1981). *The manufacture of knowledge: An essay on the constructivist and contextual nature of science*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Knott, J., & Wildavsky, A. (1980). If dissemination is the solution, what is the problem? *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 1(4), 537-578.

Kobasic, A. (1996). Level and dissemination of academic findings about tourism. *Turizam, 44(7/8*), 169-181.

Koh, S., Gunasekaran, A., Thomas, A., & Arunachalam, S. (2005). The application of knowledge management in call centres. *Journal of Knowledge Management,* 9(4), 56-69.

Kramer, D., Cole, D., Hepburn, G., Theberge, N., & Eerd, D. (2006). Walking a mile in each others' shoes: The evolution of a research design with workplace health and safety partners as part of the process. Unpublished paper: Workplace Health Intervention Research, Department of Kinesiology, University of Waterloo.

Kramer, D., & Wells, R. (2005). Achieving buy-in: Building networks to facilitate knowledge transfer. *Science Communication*, 26, 428-444.

Kuhn, T. (1962/1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kuhn, T. (1974). Second thoughts on paradigms. *In* F. Suppe, (ed.), *The structure of scientific theories* (pp.459-482). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Kulkarni, D., & Simon, H. (1988). The processes of scientific discovery: The strategy of experimentation. *Cognitive Science*, 12, 139-175.

Landry, R., Amara, N., & Lamari, M. (2001). Utilization of social science research knowledge in Canada. *Research Policy*, 31, 333-349.

Landry, R., Lamari, M., & Amara, N. (2003). The extent and determinants of the utilization of university research in government agencies. *Public Administration Review*, 63(2), 192-205.

Lanfant, M. (1989). World tourism: Unity and diversity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(4), 591-592.

Lang, J. (2004). Social context and social capital as enablers of knowledge integration. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 8(3), 89-105.

Larsen, D. (2007). TTRA-Canada membership survey results. *ATTRACTION*: TTRA Canada Newsletter (the Spring issue) <www.ttracanada.ca> (Retrieved: 17 September).

Law, R., & Chon, K. (2007). Evaluating research performance in tourism and hospitality: The perspective of university program heads. *Tourism Management*, 28, 1203-1211.

Lee, H., Acito, F., & Day, R. (1987). Evaluation and use of marketing research by decision makers: A bahavioral simulation. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(May), 187-196.

Leiper, N. (2000). An emerging discipline. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27, 805-809.

Levy, D., & Nail, P. (1993). Contagion: A theoretical and empirical review and reconceptualization. *Genetic, Social and General Psychology*, 119(2), 233-284.

Liebowitz, J. (2005). Linking social network analysis with the analytic hierarchy process for knowledge mapping in organizations. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9(1), 76-86.

Lijphart, A. (1975). The comparable-cases strategy in comparative research. *Comparative Political Studies*, 8, 158-177.

Loasby, B. (1991). *Equilibrium and evolution: An exploration of connecting principles in economics*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.

Lowenthal, M. (1969). The case for a national travel research organization. *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 7(3), 11-12.

Luhmann, N. (1981). *Sociological enlightenment* (volume 3). Opladen: Westdeutscher-Verlag.

Luthans, F., McCaul, H., & Dodd, N. (1985). Organizational commitment: A comparison of American, Japanese and Korean employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28(1), 213-219.

Macbeth, J. (2005). Towards an ethics platform for tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32, 962-984.

MacCannell, D. (1976). *The tourist: A new theory of the leisure class*. New York: Schocken Books.

Mandell, M., & Sauter, V. (1984). Approaches to the study of information utilization in public agencies. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 6(2), 145-163.

March, J. (2004). Parochialism in the evolution of a research community: The case of organization studies. *Management and Organization Review*, 1(1), 5-22.

Marsden, P. (1998). Memetics and social contagion: Two sides of the same coin? *Journal of Memetics - Evolutionary Models of Information Transmission*, 2(2), 171-185 < http://cfpm.org/jom-emit/1998/vol2/index.html> (Retrieved: 16 November 2006).

Maxwell, J. (1996). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Maynard-Moody, S. (1989). Policy as communication and the naturalistic study of the use of policy research. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 10(3), 215-223.

McClintock, C., Brannen, D., & Maynard-Moody, S. (1979). Applying the logic of sample surveys to qualitative case studies: The case cluster method. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 612-629.

McGehee, N., & Santos, C. (2005). Social change, discourse and volunteer tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32, 760-779.

McGrath, J., & Altman, I. (1966). *Small group research: A synthesis and critique of the field*. New York: Rinehart & Winston.

McKercher, B. (2002). The future of tourism education: An Australian scenario? *Tourism and Hospitality Research,* 3(3), 199 – 210.

McKercher, B. (2005). A case for ranking tourism journals. *Tourism Management*, 26, 649-651.

McKercher, B., Law, R., & Lam, T. (2006). Rating tourism and hospitality journals. *Tourism Management*, 27, 1235-1252.

Meis, S. (2004). Tourism research: An evolving enterprise. *e-Review of Tourism Research*, 2(4), 20-21.

Menon, A., & Varadarajan, R. (1992). A model of marketing knowledge use within firms. *Journal of Marketing*, 56(4), 53-71.

Menzel, H. (1962). Planned and unplanned scientific communications. *In* B. Barber & W. Hirsch, (eds.), *The sociology of science*(pp.417-447). Glencoe: The Free Press.

Merton, R. (1957). Priorities in scientific discoveries: A chapter in the sociology of science. *American*

Sociological Review, 22(6), 635-659.

Merton, R. (1961). Singletons and multiples in scientific discoveries. *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society*, 105(5), 470-486.

Meyer-Arendt, K. (2000). Commentary: Tourism geography as the subject of North American doctoral dissertations and master's theses, 1958-1998. *Tourism Geographies,* 2, 140-156.

Meyer-Arendt, K., & Justice, C. (2002). Tourism as the subject of North American doctoral dissertations, 1987-2000. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 29(4), 1171-1174.

Minkler, M. (2004). Ethical challenges for the "outside" researcher in community-based participatory research. *Health Education and Behavior*, 31(6), 684-697.

Moore, O., Jefferson, F., & Crosse, M. (1991). Heuristic guidelines for analyzing technology transfer: Application to case studies. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 12(3), 298-318.

Moorman, C., Deshpande, R., & Zaltman, G. (1993). Factors affecting trust in market research relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(January), 81-101.

Moorman, C., Zaltman, G., & Deshpande, R. (1992). Relationships between providers and users of marketing research: The dynamics of trust within and between organizations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 29(August), 314-329.

Morgan, R., & Hunt, S. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(July), 20-38.

Morrison, A. (2005). Publishing articles in tourism journals: Opportunities, issues and strategies-A researcher's perspective. Goyang, Korea: *Asia Pacific Tourism Association 11th annual conference proceedings*.

Morrison, A., Lynch, A., & Johns, N. (2004). International tourism networks. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(3), 197-202.

Moscardo, G. (1997). Making mindful managers. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 8(1), 16-24.

Mulkay, M. (1974). Conceptual displacement and migration in science: A prefatory paper. *Science Studies*, 4(3), 205-234.

Mulkay, M. (1977). Sociology of the scientific research community. *In* I. Spiegel-Rosing & D. Price, (eds.), *Science, technology, and society: A cross-disciplinary perspective*(pp.93-148). London: Sage.

Mulkay, M., & Edge, D. (1973). Cognitive, technical and social factors in the growth of radio astronomy. *Social Science Information*, 12(6), 25-61.

Mullins, N. (1968). The distribution of social and cultural properties in informal communication networks among biological scientists. *American Sociological Review*, 33(5), 786-797.

Mullins, N. (1972). The development of a scientific specialty: The phage group and the origins of molecular biology. *Minerva*, 10, 51-82.

Muthard, J., & Felice, K. (1982). Assessing activities for the utilization of rehabilitation research. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 4(2), 309-328.

Myrdal, G. (1932). *Das politische element in der nationalöknonomischen doktrinbildung*. Frankfurt: Junker and Dünhaupt Verlag.

Oppermann, M. (2000). Triangulation: A methodological discussion. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 2, 141-146.

Oppermann, M., & Chon, K. (1997). Convention participation decision-making process. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24(1), 178-191.

Page, S. (2003). Evaluating research performance in tourism: The UK experience. *Tourism Management*, 24, 607-622.

Page, S. (2005). Academic ranking exercises: Do they achieve anything meaningful?—A personal view. *Tourism Management*, 26, 663-666.

Park, K., & Meng, F. (2004). An evaluation of institutional contributions to the Travel and Tourism Research Association conferences. *e-Review of Tourism Research*, 2(5), 89-94.

Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Patton, M. (1997). *Utilization-focused evaluation: The new century text*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Pavlovcic, T. (2005, personal communication). Knowledge sharing between destination management/marketing organizations (DMOs): Summary of main findings. Unpublished document: Bournemouth University.

Pechlaner, H., Zehrer, A., Matzler, K., & Abfalter, D. (2004). A ranking of tourism and hospitality journals. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42, 328-332.

Pinsker, S. (1999). Hijacking the modern language association: II. *Society*, 36 (January/February), 30-34.

Pio, E. (2005). The Guru–Shishya process for radiating knowledge in organizations. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 12(4), 278–287.

Platt, J. (1992). "Case study" in American methodological thought. *Current Sociology*, 40, 17-48.

Polanyi, M. (1962). The republic of science. *Minerva*, 1(1), 54-72.

Porter, L., Steers, R., Mowday, R., & Boulian, P. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technician. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 603-609.

Price, D. (1963). *Little science, big science*. New York: Columbia University Press.

Pritchard, M., Havitz, M., & Howard, D. (1999). Analyzing the commitment-loyalty link in service contexts. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 27, 333-348.

Putnam, R. (1995). Bowling alone: America's declining social capital. *Journal of Democracy*, 6, 65-78.

Reagan, M. (1967). Basic and applied research: A meaningful distinction? *Science*, 155, 1383-1386.

Reichers, A. (1985). A review and reconceptualization of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(3), 465-476.

Reid, L., & Andereck, K. (1989). Statistical analyses use in tourism research. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27, 21-24.

Reid, L., & Smith, S. (1998). Connecting the research and business communities to ensure profitability. *In* M. Joppe, (ed.), *Reviving the engines: Making profitable destinations* (pp.174-178). TTRA Canada Conference Proceedings.

Reif, F., & Strauss, A. (1965). The impact of rapid discovery upon the scientist's career. *Social Problems*, 12(5), 297-311.

Rich, R. (1997). Measuring knowledge utilization process and outcomes. *Knowledge and Policy: The International Journal of Knowledge Transfer and Utilization*, 10(3), 3-10.

Rich, R. (1977). Uses of social science information by federal bureaucrats: Knowledge for action versus knowledge for understanding. *In* C. Weiss, (ed.), *Using social research in public policy making*(pp.199-211). Lexington: Lexington Books.

Riley, R., & Love, L. (2000). The state of qualitative tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27, 164-187.

Ritchie, J.R.B. (1996). Beacons of light in an expanding universe: An assessment of the state-of-the-art in tourism marketing/marketing research. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing,* 5(4), 49-84.

Ritchie, R. J. B., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2002). A framework for an industry supported destination marketing information system. *Tourism Management*, 23, 439-454.

Rodenhauser, P. (1999). The life cycles of professional associations: Organizational and administrative dynamics. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*, 26(6), 417-427.

Rose, H. (1991). Case studies. *In* G. Allan & C. Skinner, (eds.), *Handbook for research students in the social sciences*. London: Falmer.

Rosenberg, N. (1982). *Inside the black box: Technology and economics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ruf, B. (2007). A message from TTRA-International president. *TTRAccess* (September): Travel and Tourism Research Association Newsletter.

Ryan, C. (2001). Academia-industry tourism research links: States of confusion. *Pacific Tourism Review*, 5, 83-95.

Ryan, C. (2005). The ranking and rating of academics and journals in tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 26, 657-662.

Saxe, L. (1986). Policymakers' use of social science research: Technology assessment in the US Congress. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 8(1), 59-78.

Schaffner, A. (1994). The future of scientific journals: Lessons from the past. *Information Technology and Libraries*, 13(4), 239-247.

Schonstrom, M. (2005). Creating knowledge networks: Lessons from practice. *Journal of Knowledge Management,* 9(6), 17-29.

Schott, T. (1988). International influence in science: Beyond center and periphery. *Social Science Research*, 17, 219-238.

Scott, J. (2000). *Social network analysis* (2nd edition). London: Sage.

Seufert, A., von Krogh, G., & Bach, A. (1999). Towards knowledge networking. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 3(3), 180-190.

Sheehan, L., & Ritchie, J. R.B. (2005). Destination stakeholders: Exploring identity and salience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32, 711-734.

Sheldon, P. (1989). Professionalism in tourism and hospitality. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16, 492-503.

Sheldon, P. (1990). Journals in tourism and hospitality: Perceptions of the publishing faculty. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 1, 42-48.

Sheldon, P. (1991). An authorship analysis of tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 18(3), 473-484.

Sheldon, P. (1997). *The tourism information technology*. Wallingford: CAB International.

Sigala, M. (2006). International CHRIE 2007 conference announcement. *TRINET: Tourism Research Information Net* <trinet-l@hawaii.edu> (Retrieved: 14 November).

Skok, W. (2000). Managing knowledge within the London taxi cab service. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 7(4), 224-232.

Small, H. (1973). Co-citation in the scientific literature: A new measure of the relationship between two documents. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 24(July/August), 265-269.

Small, H., & Griffith, B. (1974). The structure of scientific literatures I: Identifying and graphing specialties. *Science Studies*, 4(1), 17-40.

Smith, P. (1981). *Realism and the progress of science*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Smith, S., & Taylor, G. (1994). Improving research communication in the Canadian tourism industry. *In* M. Staite & R. Wong, (eds.), *Revitalizing Canadian tourism: A 911 call* (pp.165-169). TTRA Canada Conference Proceedings.

Snow, C. (1965). *The two cultures and the scientific revolution*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sorg, J. (1984). The transfer of financial management knowledge innovations. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 5(3), 353-367.

Souchon, A., & Diamantopoulos, A. (1996). A conceptual framework of export information use: Key issues and research propositions. *Journal of International Marketing*, 4(3), 49-71.

Stake, R. (2000). Case studies. *In* N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln, (eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp.435-454). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Steers, R. (1977). Antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 46-56.

Stoecker, R. (1991). Evaluating and rethinking the case study. *The Sociological Review*, 39, 88-112.

Storer, N. (1966). *The social system of science*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Strategic Planning Task Force. (2004). *TTRA strategic plan 2004-2008*. Travel and Tourism Research Association <www.ttra.com> (Retrieved: 17 September 2006).

Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M., Brent, M., & Long, V. (1998). Annals and tourism evolving: Indexing 25 years of publication. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(supplement), 991-1014.

Taylor, Sir James. (1973). *The scientific community*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tribe, J. (1997). The indiscipline of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24, 638-657.

Tribe, J. (2000). Indisciplined and unsubstantiated. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27, 809-813.

Tribe, J. (2001). Research paradigms and the tourism curriculum. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39, 442-448.

Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 338-357.

Tribe, J. (2004). Knowing about tourism: Epistemological issues. *In* J. Phillimore & L. Goodson, (eds.), *Qualitative research in tourism: Ontologies, epistemologies and methodologies*(pp.46-62). London: Routledge.

Tribe, J. (2006). The truth about tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 33, 360-381.

TRINET. (2007). Discussions and commentaries in response to "New book series and related issues". *Tourism Research Information Net* <trinet-l@hawaii.edu> (Retrieved: 19 September).

TTRA. (1970). Highlights of the first national TTRA meeting: "The travel environment of the 70s". *The Travel Research Association-Travel Research Bulletin*, 9(2), 1-5.

TTRA. (1971a). TTRA drops councils, adopts new by-laws. *The Travel Research Association-Travel Research Bulletin*, 10(2), 10-11.

TTRA. (1971b). Highlights of the second annual TTRA conference Snowmass-at-Aspen, Colorado, August 15-18. *The Travel Research Association-Travel Research Bulletin*, 10(2), 1-9.

TTRA. (1971c). A tribute to Lorenzo Lo. *The Travel Research Association-Travel Research Bulletin*, 9(4), p.6.

TTRA. (2006/7). TTRA-International membership survey (December 2006-January 2007). Boise, Idaho: Travel and Tourism Research Association.

Tuire, P., & Erno, L. (2001). Exploring invisible scientific communities: Studying networking relations within an educational research community. A Finnish case. *Higher Education*, 42, 493-513.

Ulvila, J. (2000). Building relationships between consultants and clients. *American Behavioral Scientists*, 43(10), 1667-1680.

Urry, J. (1990). *The tourist gaze: Leisure and travel in contemporary societies*. London: Sage.

Usdiken, B., & Pasadeos, Y. (1995). Organizational analysis in North America and Europe: A comparison of co-citation networks. *Organizational Studies*, 6(3), 503-526

Valentine, K., Allison, M., & Schneider, I. (1999). The one-way mirror of leisure research: A need for cross-national social scientific perspectives. *Leisure Sciences,* 21, 241-246.

Vall, V., & Bolas, C. (1982). Using social policy research for reducing social problems: An empirical analysis of structure and function. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18, 49-67.

Van Doren, C., Holland, S., & Crompton, J. (1984). Publishing in the primary leisure journals: Insight into the structure and boundaries of our research. *Leisure Sciences*, 6, 239–256.

Van Doren, C., Koh, Y., & McCahill, A. (1994). Tourism research: A state-of-the-art citation analysis (1971-1990). *In* A. Seaton, C. Jenkins, R. Wood, P. Dieke, M. Bennett, MacLellan & R. Smith, (eds.), *Tourism: The state of the art* (pp.308-315). New York: Wiley.

Vaugeois, N., Rollins, R., Hammer, K., Randall, C., Clark, B., & Balmer, K. (2005). Realizing improved knowledge transfer in the leisure industry: A new agenda and strategies to link researchers and professionals. Kelowna, BC: TTRA Canada Conference Proceedings.

Vernon, J., Essex, S., Pinder, D., & Curry, K. (2005). Collaborative policymaking: Local sustainable projects. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32, 325-345.

Walsham, G. (2001). Knowledge management: The benefits and limitations of computer systems. *European Management Journal*, 19(6), 599-608.

WCTR. (1966). Eight annual conference, Jackson Hole, Wyoming, August 24-26, 1966. *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 4(4), 1-2.

WCTR. (1970). Affiliation agreement approved. *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 8(3), 1-3.

Weedman, J. (1993). On the 'isolation' of humanists: A report of an invisible college. *Communication Research*, 20(6), 749-779.

Weiss, C. (1979). The many meanings of research utilization. *Public Administration Review*, 29, 426-631.

Weiss, C. (1980). Knowledge creep and decision accretion. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 1, 381-404.

Weiss, C. (1981). Measuring the use of evaluation. *In* J. Ciarlo, (ed.), *Utilizing evaluation: Concepts and measurement techniques*(pp.17-33). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Wenger, E., & Snyder, W. (2000). Communities of practice: The organizational frontier. *Harvard Business Review*, 78(1), 139-145.

Wiig, K. (1997). Knowledge management: An introduction and perspective. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 1(1), 6-14.

Williams, G., Chernish, B., & McKercher, B. (2001). *The internet and travel and tourism education*. Binghamton, NY: Haworth Press.

Wingens, M. (1990). Toward a general utilization theory: A systems theory reformulation for the two-communities metaphor. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 12(1), 27-42.

Wood, D., & Gray, B. (1991). Toward a comprehensive theory of collaboration. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 27, 139-162.

Xiang, Z., Kothari, T., Formica, S., Hu, C., Roehl, W., & Fesenmaier, D. (2005). SMART: A strategic marketing decision support system for destination marketing organizations. *In* N. Nickerson, R. Moisey, K. Andereck & N. McGehee, (eds.), *Proceedings of the 36th annual TTRA conference* (no page). New Orleans: Travel and Tourism Research Association.

Xiao, H. (2000). China's tourism education into the 21st Century. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27, 1055-1058.

Xiao, H. (2006). Towards a research agenda for knowledge management in tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, 3(2), 143-157.

Xiao, H., & Smith, S. (2005). Source knowledge for tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 32, 272-275.

Xiao, H., & Smith, S. (2006a). The making of tourism research: Insights from a social sciences journal. *Annals of Tourism Research,* 33, 490-507.

Xiao, H., & Smith, S. (2006b). The maturation of tourism research: Evidence from a content analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, 10, 335-348.

Xiao, H., & Smith, S. (2006c). Case studies in tourism research: A state-of-the-art analysis. *Tourism Management*, 27(5), 738-749.

Xiao, H., & Smith, S. (2007). The use of tourism knowledge: Research propositions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 310-331.

Xiao, H., & Smith, S. (in press). Knowledge impact: An appraisal of tourism scholarship. *Annals of Tourism Research*, forthcoming.

Yandon, K. (1962). Western Council for Travel Research: Its creation and growth. *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 1(1), 3.

Yates, W. (1962). The purpose and future goals of the Western Council for Travel Research. *Western Council for Travel Research Bulletin*, 1(1), 1.

Yin, R. (1981a). The case study crisis: Some answers. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 26, 58-65.

Yin, R. (1981b). The case study as a serious research strategy. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 3(1), 97-114.

Yin, R. (1999). Enhancing the quality of case studies in health services research. *Health Services Research*, 34, 1209-1224.

Yin, R. (2003a). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3rd edition). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Yin, R. (2003b). *Applications of case study research* (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Yin, R., Bateman, P., & Moore, G. (1985). Case studies and organizational innovation. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 6(3), 249-260.

Yin, R., & Gwaltney, M. (1981). Knowledge utilization as a networking process. *Knowledge: Creation, Diffusion, Utilization*, 2(4), 555-580.

Yin, R., & Moore, G. (1988). Lessons on the utilization of research from nine case experiences in the natural hazards field. *Knowledge in Society: The International Journal of Knowledge Transfer*, 1(3), 25-44.

Yuan, Y., Gretzel, U., & Fesenmaier, D. (2006). The role of information technology use in American convention and visitor bureaus. *Tourism Management*, 27, 326-341.

Zaltman, G.(1986). Knowledge utilization as planned social change." *In* G. Beal, W. Dissanayake & S. Konoshina, (eds.), *Knowledge generation, exchange, and utilization*(pp.433-460). Boulder, CO: Westview.

Zhao, W., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2007). An investigation of academic leadership in tourism research:1985-2004. *Tourism Management*, 28, 476-490.