

Philanthropic Gifting in Tourism:
A Study of Guardalavaca and
Varadero, Cuba

by

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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.

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Abstract

Incorporating philanthropy into tourism, through practices such as volunteer tourism and non-governmental organization (NGO) work, is becoming an increasingly popular way for tourists to aid people of developing nations socially and economically. The roles and impacts of tourist philanthropy on developing nations have been discussed in the literature but one form of tourist philanthropy has, thus far, been missed. Philanthropic gifting, that is the bringing of gifts by tourists to give to local people of developing nations, has not yet been examined and its impacts have not been discussed in the literature. This study examines the knowledge and prevalence of philanthropic gifting among tourists and travel agents and analyzes the possible implications of philanthropic gifting on the economies of developing nations. These objectives are addressed through a mixed-methods research approach and a case study of two tourism areas in Cuba, Guardalavaca and Varadero.

The findings of this study demonstrated that philanthropic gifting is prevalent in Cuba and that the knowledge of it among tourists is widespread. Motivation for participating in philanthropic gifting related to the fact that Cuba is a poor nation with strained ties with the United States of America in regards to trade and access to goods. Further research revealed that, though philanthropic gifting was prevalent, gifts were not distributed equally among groups of Cuban people in society, with people working within the tourism industry receiving the large majority of gifts. The main conclusion of this study is that gifting is likely a great source of economic assistance for Cuban people who receive gifts. The economic independence that could be created through receiving gifts is greatly benefitting these Cuban people. The fact that gifts are not equally allocated throughout Cuban society, however, suggests that philanthropic gifting is strengthening the divide between workers of the tourism

industry and those outside of it. A greater effort should be made to ensure that gifts reach a greater number of Cubans so that the benefits of philanthropic gifting can be more widespread.

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1.0 Introduction

The direct impact that tourism has on developing nations has, in recent years, been analyzed on a more in-depth level, examining the social, political and economic changes that occur in developing nations with the influx of tourism. The influence of tourists on people of these nations has been great, especially through the form of philanthropy. The philanthropic nature of tourists has been documented, but the level to which philanthropy occurs and the direct impact that these tourists have had on local populations in developing nations has not been examined. This study focuses on the relationship between individual tourist philanthropy, especially the giving of gifts and tips, and the economic development on local populations.

1.1 Identifying the Gap

In recent years, philanthropy has become increasingly prominent in areas of the developing world. Many scholars have started to evaluate the levels of philanthropy that have been occurring through financial aid, non-profit organizations working in areas of the developing world and volunteer tourism. These forms of philanthropy have all been monitored and the impacts that they have had on nations in the developing world are starting to be seen. Philanthropic gifting, however, has not yet been evaluated or studied. Impacts of individual tourists on local populations of the developing world have not been quantified, and its impacts on the livelihoods of locals have not been evaluated. Existing research suggests that this form of philanthropy does exist, but researchers have not studied it directly. In Cuba, the government has outlawed locals from accepting these forms of gifts from tourists (Sixto, 2006; Taylor and McGlynn, 2009). Though the motives behind this law are not clear, it shows that philanthropic gifting is creating a significant impact within Cuban society, likely on both an

economic and social level. It is evident that tourist philanthropy is occurring, and is causing enough of an impact to force the government to outlaw it, but it has not been studied and researched so that academics can evaluate its impacts. Other academics have briefly mentioned the occurrence of the gift-giving by tourists, but have not examined it fully (Cabezas, 2008). Overall, it is evident that there is a gap in the research that has been done on philanthropy in developing nations, and this study will be a step towards closing that gap.

1.2 Research Objectives

The goal of this research will be to evaluate the prevalence and possible impacts of tourist philanthropy on local economies of developing nations. The objectives of the research are:

- 1) To determine the knowledge and prevalence of philanthropic gifting
- 2) To examine variations in the prevalence of, motivations for, and nature of philanthropic gifting amongst tourists
- 3) To examine who receives gifts within Cuban society
- 4) To identify the extent of gifting knowledge amongst travel agents

These objectives will be addressed through a mixed-methods research study, and will be explored using a case study in Guardalavaca and Varadero, Cuba.

1.3 Purpose Statement

The intent of this two-phase, sequential mixed-methods study is to explore the prevalence and impact of tourists affecting the local economies of developing nations at an individual level through the bringing of gifts. The first phase is a quantitative exploration of tourist philanthropy by collecting data from questionnaires and observational research of tourists at

popular tourist destinations. Findings from this quantitative phase were then used to test research questions that relate the number of tourists to economic changes in areas with the greatest amounts of tourist activity. The reason for collecting quantitative data initially is that the level of economic impact cannot be determined without talking to the people; not enough research has been done on the topic.

1.4 Definitions

The definitions that are applied for the terms listed here will be used throughout this study. The definition for tourism, as defined by the World Tourism Organization, is “the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, or other purposes” (1). Therefore, a tourist is a person who travels to and stays in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purposes. The definition of ‘othering’ is taken from a speech made for the UNESCO by Dr. George Anastassopoulos who stated that othering is “as a way of defining and securing one’s own positive identity through the stigmatization of an “other” (March 20, 2009). Social impacts include the effects on the overall well-being of a community or individual. Economic impacts include the effects on a nation’s, community’s or individual’s production, distribution and/or consumption of goods and services. Political impacts include effects on the policies or regulations of a nation because of an external factor (such as tourism).

1.5 Conclusion

It is evident that there is a gap in the current literature relating to tourist interactions with locals in developing nations. The research that will be conducted will enhance the knowledge of

tourist interactions with locals in developing nations in respect to philanthropic practices. Tourist philanthropy and the giving of ‘gifts’ have been briefly acknowledged in the research of other scholars, but no studies have been conducted to determine how much philanthropy is truly occurring or how it is impacting the people in developing nations. The remainder of this thesis will further discuss the gap in the literature with a literature review in Chapter Two and will discuss the methods that will be employed in the research in Chapter Three. The final two chapters will examine the findings from questionnaires with tourists and interviews with travel agents (Chapter Four) and will analyse the results and implications of the research (Chapter Five).

2.0 Literature Review

This literature review is designed to provide a background for the issues that exist in regards to tourism philanthropy and the impacts tourists have on developing countries' economies. The review is divided into four sections: Tourism Impacts on Developing Nations' Economies; the Development of Tourism in Developing Nations; Pro-Poor Tourism; and Tourist Philanthropy. The literature reviewed provides a good basis for understanding the complex relationship between tourism, including tourist philanthropy, and the development of national economies of the countries being toured. Bringing this literature together can create a bridge between the gaps in the two areas of study.

2.1 Tourism Impacts on Developing Nations' Economies

In many nations in the developing world, and especially in Latin America, tourism is not solely an industry; it is the means through which local people are sustained and a means through which people are able to obtain economic success. Within the global economy, tourism is the fourth largest industry (Honey & Gilpin, 2009) and its impacts on the economies of developing nations are great. Harrison (1992) showed that tourism has impacts on developing nations socially, economically, politically, culturally and environmentally. The structure of the family and traditional values become altered with the influx of tourism through a change in the family dynamic. The idea of the 'elder' is lost and the people who have control within society are altered. Related to an altered social make-up, disparity and social seclusion exist within a society infiltrated by tourism and the economic structure of communities is altered.

One impact that the tourism industry has on people of the developing world is that people who were working in other industries tend to abandon their jobs in order to secure a position in the better-paying tourism industry. Cabezas delved into the lives of workers in the

Dominican Republic to show how international tourism is affecting them. Cabezas (2008) showed that disparity exists in the work sectors and also that the people working in the tourist areas are devalued and forced to take jobs below their skill level. The article makes one question the ability of tourists to make a difference in the lives of local people because the number of tourists is also crippling other economic sectors. Cabezas (2008) discusses the replacement of sugar production in many Caribbean nations with the tourism sector and shows that despite the availability of tourism in the Western world, people in many tropical areas will never be able to travel to other areas of the globe because the limited money they earn in tourist resorts will keep them in their native countries. Cabezas' research adds to the literature on tourism and economy in Latin America because it outlines not only the disparity between people in the tourism industry and other areas of the economy, but also the disparity between the local people in tourist-rich Latin America and the tourists who visit it. People employed in the tourism sector are able to have a better standard of living than those working outside the tourism industry (Lumsdon & Swift, 2001). Toro-Morn (2002) used the case of Cuba to show how "some Cubans feel that tourism has subverted the purpose of the revolutionary state, which is to promote equality. As tourist dollars (particularly U.S. dollars) pour into the country, there is increasing stratification between Cubans who have access to these dollars and those who do not" (43). The disparity between people in the nation can be seen through what Toro-Morn describes as an 'unexpected new class of rich service workers' because "a waiter at a beach resort makes more money than a surgeon or a university professor" (2002, 43). Tourism has created a new level of economic development possibilities for workers in some developing nations. The disparity between workers in tourism and those outside of it clearly

shows that the issue exists because of tourism and the reasons for this disparity will be discussed in the fourth section: Tourist Philanthropy.

Not only does tourism cause disparity between those in the tourism sector and those outside of it, it can also cause disparity between regions in a country. Lumsdon and Swift (2001) noted the case of Buenos Aires, Argentina where the city became a large tourist hub where development occurred in infrastructure while other areas of the country underwent little development. Lumsdon and Swift stated that these booming tourist hubs “act as magnets, drawing in development funds and encouraging migration, usually at the expense of other areas of the country” as “companies inadvertently contribute to the imbalance that exists between the capital and the rest of the country, in particular the poorer northern regions” (2001, 192). A study conducted by Zhang, Ding and Bao (2008) showed that in Xidi, China, tourism increased the average income of villagers and families. The growth, however, was not mirrored in the seven villages surrounding Xidi, because those villages were not areas of tourism development. Zoomers (2008) conducted a study examining tourism and poverty in the Andes. The study showed that the potential for tourism to spark development and alleviate poverty in Andean villages is small. The majority of Andean villages do not have the structures, services or goods to offer tourists and the desires of tourists and villagers are different. For example, tourists wanted aesthetically pleasing vistas whereas locals wanted long periods of rain to cultivate crops. Zoomers (2008) also showed that only a small minority of villages in the Andes could offer tourists a locale to spend their money; the majority of the towns would not benefit from tourism, further increasing the disparity between tourist locales and those without anything to offer tourists.

The tourism industry has also altered the economies of developing nations by creating a more interconnected system between the developed and developing worlds. This interconnected system can be seen through the development of free trade and common market zones as well as an “increase in the flow of goods and services between countries ... both in terms of the increased ease of access for tourists, and the growing ‘business tourism/urban tourism’ market” (Lumsdon & Swift, 2001: 27). The increased interconnectedness also can aid the developing nation that is experiencing the influx of tourists. Developing nations can also use the tourism industry in order to get access to the much needed hard-currency. Jaakson (1996) examined Estonia’s emergence into the world tourism market as a means of economic restructuring and as a way for the Estonian people and government to have a means to obtain hard currency and improve debt and their balance of payments. Elliot and Neirotti (2008) use the example of Cuba to show that tourism is the only means to obtain hard currency and that many Cubans will strive to obtain employment in the tourism industry solely for that reason. The literature shows that the increased flow of goods and services throughout the world partially occurs because of tourism and can be beneficial to both developing and developed nations.

In nations that have a local form of currency, the conversion of foreign dollars is another issue that has been created through tourism. Some nations in the developing world have centralized systems of government in which the owners and operators of the industries are almost entirely the government or government agencies. The influx of foreign companies and foreign tourists creates a problem in the monetary system of that nation. For example, wages that are common for the foreign company to pay their workers may be much higher than the rate of pay that workers in the developing nation would normally expect to be paid. An

example of this is occurring in Cuba today. The socialist government that still controls the nation has maintained control over the tourism industry. The hotel business and most aspects of the tourism sector are controlled by the Cuban military (MacAulay, 2007). The government has quite clearly been able to preserve the socialist ideals that existed in the nation before the entry of tourism and as such have been able to use the input of money from capitalist nations to save their socialist regime. In working to preserve socialism, the government has been able to reap the benefits of capitalist trade without allowing the benefits to be had by the Cubans working in the field. The Cuban government has allowed some foreign employers to enter the nation but these employers pay the Cuban government the workers' wages in hard foreign currency and then the Cuban government pays the Cubans who do the labour for the employer in Cuban pesos (Perry et al., 1997). The government, in this way, enables the use of hard foreign currency by the government but forces Cubans to continue to use pesos. The wages paid to the Cuban worker by the government are also along the lines of a typical Cuban worker so that the government ends up with the additional profit from the foreign employer (Perry et al., 1997).

Tourism in developing countries can help to contribute to a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Gross and Ringbeck (2009) evaluated the competitiveness of travel and tourism, concluding that "the travel sector is a major contributor to economic welfare" and has "become an important means of stimulating local development, accelerating local investment, and boosting employment and public education" (31). Even on a local level, tourism contributes to financial gains. Community based tourism efforts have generated income for local communities of the Okavango Delta of Botswana where people can now enjoy some of the money being "reinvested in community development projects such as recreational facilities (e.g. sports ground and community halls), vehicles for transport, lodges, camp sites, small

general dealers, bars and bottle stores, as well as payment of salaries of employees in Trusts” (Mbaiwa, 2005: 169).

The leakages of wealth are a growing issue in tourism-dependent nations of the developing world (Britton, 1982; Lepp, 2008; Fransisco, 1983). Lepp (2008) described the leakage phenomenon as follows:

Raw materials are exported from the periphery to the center where they become manufactured goods and in turn are exported back to the periphery. The periphery becomes dependent on the center to purchase its raw materials and to supply manufactured goods. Economic history shows the value of raw materials from the periphery has steadily fallen in relation to the value of manufactured goods from the center. This results in the steady flow of capital from the periphery to the center (1207).

Leakage generally occurs because tourists require a higher standard of living than the people in the developing nations can offer. Developing nations must provide these comforts in order to attract tourists but they also do not have such luxuries in their nation and must import them from the developing world, thus leaking their tourist dollars back to the developing nations (Lepp, 2008). A study done by Lacher (2010) showed that in Mae Aw, Thailand, the leakages from imported goods could be over 50 percent with locally produced goods being less than 10 percent. Leakages, however, are not universal. Lacher also outlined that leakages were compensated for in some villages by charging entrance fees that would go towards the village and development, showing that the level of leakage depended on the economic planning of the village.

Unemployment in the developing world is an issue. The tourism industry in developing nations can provide employment for people who are unemployed or underemployed. Lumsdon and Swift (2001) discussed tourism in Latin America and noted that there has been a large increase in the number of people in Latin American countries who are directly or indirectly

employed through the tourism sector, especially because tourism remains a people-based sector where interaction between locals and tourists is necessary. A study conducted by Mbaiwa (2005) in the Okavango Delta of Botswana shows that tourism has created many jobs for the people living there. The study suggested “that a total of 50 or 79.4% of safari camps and lodges in the Okavango Delta employ about 1658 people or 16.6% of the formal employment in the tourism sector in Botswana” (168).

Tourism can also create a dependency in local communities of developing nations on the products, goods or services that have entered their nation because of tourism. Being dependent on tourism in general, as a form of GDP, is also common, especially for nations with a booming tourism industry (Sharpley & Knight, 2009; Cabezas, 2008). The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) noted that in 2010, the Caribbean travel and tourism economy is ranked first of thirteen regions in the world for its relative contribution to national economies, yet last in absolute size worldwide. This statistic outlined the amount to which these small island nations rely on tourism to survive. Sharpley and Knight (2009) stated that for Cuba, a decline in tourism as an industry would result in a declining Cuban economy. This outlines the dependency that tourism can create in an economy that relies on tourism to survive. The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) discussed the dependency of nations on tourism and the problems that are associated with this. The UNEP (2009) stated that, in regards to the percentage of the workforce directly or indirectly depending on tourism, “in small island developing states, percentages can range from 83 percent in the Maldives to 21 percent in the Seychelles and 34 percent in Jamaica” (41). The dependency on tourism in an economy can be unstable because of recessions, altered patterns of tourism consumption and natural disasters such as hurricanes, especially in smaller developing nations.

2.2 Development of Tourism in Developing Nations

The development of tourism in developing nations is not uniform throughout all destinations, but common indicators of change can be seen in most nations. The governments of developing nations are forced to divert finances to support the new industry, and landscape and architecture within the nation are altered to support tourism and the needs of tourists. Tourism development does not only occur within the first year or two of tourism's influx into these developing nations. Developing nations must continually upgrade their hotels, tourism hubs and even the types of tourism that they offer in order to keep their tourism industry booming.

When a nation decides to develop its tourism industry, the government will have to re-allocate finances within the country in order to support the new industry and develop it in order to create a sustainable tourism system. One example of the changes that have occurred in developing nations because of tourism is in the Cuban government. Cervino and Cubillo (2005) examined the changes the Cuban government has implemented and how these changes have increased the money allocated to tourism development and improvement. The government loosened laws regarding foreign investment and tourism, thereby enabling joint ventures with Cuban and international companies. With the high cost of importing products for tourists in the early 1990s, the government channelled more financial aid into the tourism industry through enabling tourism operators to develop local connections and use more domestically produced products. The import costs have gone down. Consequently, Cuban tourism operators can work around United States embargo policies to receive imports from

other nations that allow the tourism industry to remain on par with other Caribbean destinations (Cervino & Cubillo, 2005).

The development of the tourism industry brings changes to the landscape and planning of architecture in developing nations as well. All-inclusive resort settings are common features of developing nations in Latin America, but evidence of the colonial heritage of these nations and the effects of the natural disasters they have faced, such as hurricanes, do still remain (Crespo & Suddaby, 2000). As mentioned, the influx of foreign companies also occurs with the development of a tourism industry. In Cuba, improvements in infrastructure, buildings and airports have all occurred because of foreign direct investment, which Cuba has used to improve the tourism sector to generate more profit and secure economic success (Cervino & Cubillo, 2005; Crespo & Suddaby, 2000). The emergence of tourism in developing nations and the foreign direct investment it brings can also be seen through Hobson, Heung and Chon's (1994) evaluation of tourism in Vietnam. They show that the investors that entered Vietnam after its re-emergence into the world economy were mainly French and Asian, with the majority of investment into Vietnam's hotels coming from Hong Kong. The foreign investment enabled Vietnam to develop accommodations for tourism and helped to encourage Vietnam's emergence into the world's tourism market.

There are, however, also down-sides to the constant development of tourist hubs and new hotels and buildings constructed to accommodate the tourism sector. Lumsden and Swift (2001) state: "Tourism, whilst bringing the potential for development, also brings with it problems. The concern is that the governments, eager to exploit the lucrative tourist markets of Europe and the USA, will be the catalyst for unchecked development throughout the region. This could have far-reaching and irreversible negative effects on sensitive eco-systems and the

architectural heritage and can be potentially damaging to cultural and social structures” (45). The people being catered to once tourism infiltrates an economy are tourists, not the local people. Liu and Wall (2003) show that, in tourism planning, the perceived needs of tourists are placed above the needs of the locals and commonly does not take changes that the local populations must endure into account.

Recently, forms of cultural tourism are beginning to emerge in developing nations. The idea of cultural tourism is that the tourist will be able to experience what is deemed to be the natural culture of the nation they are visiting, but they are able to experience it without the fear that commonly accompanies tourists who venture outside of their all-inclusive resort setting. Bailey (2008) described ‘cultural tourism’ as a new method for capturing tourist dollars. In Cuba, cultural tourism involves tourists being more immersed in Cuba’s natural culture and society and is a new means for receiving tourist dollars. Bailey (2008) used the Habana Vieja area of Cuba to indicate how the area has become a ‘tourist bubble’ where tourists are prevalent and native Cubans go to sell ‘authentic’ Cuban artefacts or help to create a Cuban atmosphere for the tourists to enjoy. It is a place where tourists feel that they are truly becoming part of the Cuban society without having to venture too far from their all-inclusive resort. Bailey (2008) also outlined that those in the tourist industry have more access to the tourists than others and, therefore, are the ones receiving the tourist dollars. He shows how being part of the tourism industry creates a new area of the economy for them to access: the foreign dollar. The impacts of these tourism developments are felt throughout the region, and the extent to which they are leading towards the displacement of native residents is uncertain. Bailey (2008), however, does mention the prevalence of overcrowding in some regions of

Cuba. This new form of tourist development is another way for tourists to experience a connection with the place they are visiting.

2.3 Pro-Poor Tourism

Pro-poor tourism (PPT) is a new approach to tourism that involves direct aid being given to poor people around the world. The definition for pro-poor tourism comes from the Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership (2011):

Pro-poor tourism is about increasing the positive impacts of tourism on poor people. PPT is not a specific product but an approach to the industry. It is an approach that seeks to increase participation of poor people at many points in the sector, and that aims to increase their economic and social benefits from tourism while reducing the negative impacts on the poor.

Pro-poor tourism, therefore, is not a specific form of tourism, but a broad range of approaches where the goal is to improve the economic and social impacts of tourism on local populations. It should be noted that “the definition says nothing about the *relative* distribution of the benefits of the tourism. Therefore, as long as poor people reap net benefits, tourism can be classified as ‘pro-poor’ (even if richer people benefit more than poorer people)” (Ashley et al., 2001: 2). Ashley (2006) notes that pro-poor tourism can be achieved by one of three ways: “more tourists, so total tourism spending goes up; each tourist spending more, so that total tourism spending goes up; and a change in the pattern of tourist expenditure so that the fraction that reaches the poor goes up” (2). The Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership identifies three types of benefits for local people that would result from pro-poor tourism strategies: economic benefits, livelihood improvements and benefits that come from participation or involvement. Overall, the goal of pro-poor tourism is to alleviate poverty in developing nations and to improve the impacts of tourism on the poor.

Pro-poor tourism and other forms of tourism have similar characteristics and must be differentiated to fully understand the unique position pro-poor tourism holds. Pro-poor tourism has been related to ecotourism and community-based tourism (Chok, Macbeth & Warren, 2007), but it should be noted that pro-poor tourism is different because of its overall goal to give net benefits to the poor. Ashley et al. (1999) show that pro-poor tourism strategies do differ from community-based tourism because pro-poor tourism relies heavily on the overall success of the entire tourism industry; it is broader than a community-base. Pro-poor tourism aims to create linkages that will maximise local economic impacts (Ashley, 2006). Ashley and Haysom (2006) differentiate pro-poor tourism and fair trade in tourism by the fact that pro-poor tourism is an approach that organizations or governments can implement, whereas fair trade in tourism is more of a standard for certification that will guarantee consumers are receiving tourism that has been deemed 'fair trade.' Thus, though pro-poor tourism has notable similarities to community-based tourism and fair trade in tourism, it is a separate form of tourism.

Pro-poor tourism strategies vary, but it is important to note that all should benefit the poor, first and foremost. The African Pro-Poor Tourism Development Centre includes a list of success stories in pro-poor tourism that have been implemented in Kenya. The varieties of initiatives truly show how diverse pro-poor tourism strategies are. The range of projects in Kenya include wildlife conservatories, field study centres, villages set up to showcase African culture, farms, workshops, forestry projects and conservation centres (African Pro-Poor Tourism Development Centre, 2011). All of these projects have been put together by the local people of Kenya along with some outside donors to improve their economic success and empower the community. Ashley, Goodwin and Roe (2001) also describe the varying types of

pro-poor tourism strategies in countries across the world. They note that in South Africa there are wilderness safari companies that are also incorporating local people to develop new products and services; in Ecuador there is a small commercial company running tour packages that work with Amazonian communities or are completely run by the communities; in Nepal there are NGOs who are facilitating community involvement in tourism; and, in St. Lucia the government is working to create a 'heritage' tourism project (Ashley, Goodwin & Roe, 2001). It is evident that the types of pro-poor tourism greatly vary, but the overall goal of these projects is to improve the lives of the poor by involving them in tourism planning and implementation.

2.4 Tourist Philanthropy

Tourist philanthropy has been occurring for decades, but some of the forms of tourist philanthropy have not been adequately studied. Philanthropy refers to voluntary or organized giving that can occur through corporations or individually (Sanborn & Portocarrero, 2005). There are various forms of tourist philanthropy but the majority come in the form of volunteer tourism (voluntourism), non-governmental organization work (NGO) and philanthropic gifting. The form of philanthropy that will be focussed on in this study is philanthropic gifting but the social, economic and political impacts of tourist philanthropy in all forms are evaluated to examine the issue as a whole. The philanthropic nature of some tourists has had a great impact on the people of developing nations. However, many people who receive gifts or tips from tourists are in the tourism industry or part of a community that houses volunteer tourism programs and the philanthropy of tourists does not reach all citizens of developing nations. Sanborn and Portocarrero (2005) summarize the ways in which philanthropy can impact change in Latin America through five points:

First, philanthropy can play a key role in communicating, networking and benchmarking, especially by locating and disseminating information about successes and failures in social programs and policies across nations. Second, with information on successful cases of mobilizing resources or delivering services, philanthropic organizations can engage in experimentation and model building, testing the applicability of best practices to local conditions. Third, private philanthropies can publicize and promote the proliferation of successful models to private as well as public agencies. Fourth, philanthropic organizations can leverage their own resources and experience, both to increase the engagement of others and to enhance the effectiveness and productivity of existing social programs. Finally, private philanthropy can work to promote the development of vibrant civil societies and the formation of social capital by working to eliminate fiscal and regulatory obstacles to giving and volunteerism, and lobbying for new incentives for such activities (viii-ix).

Philanthropy in developing nations has existed for decades, but it is only recently being studied and researched so that we can fully try to understand it.

In order to examine the types of philanthropy in developing nations and how it impacts the societies of developing countries, this section will be divided into three subsections. These sections include social impacts, economic impacts. The political impacts of philanthropic gifting are also noted. Within these sections, the various forms of philanthropy (volunteer tourism, NGO work and philanthropic gifting) will be analysed and described through an analysis of the available literature on each subject.

2.4.1 Social Impacts

The social impacts of philanthropy on developing nations have been extensively examined in the literature on subjects of tourism and development. The interactions that occur between people visiting developing nations and the local people in the developing nations indicate that there is a social impact of philanthropy on development.

Volunteer Tourism

One form of tourism philanthropy that is having a social impact on developing nations is volunteer tourism. Volunteer tourism, simply described, is “a form of tourism where the tourists volunteer in local communities as part of his or her travel” (Sin, 2009: 480). Brown (2005) showed the difference between missionary trips involving volunteerism and volunteer tourism (or voluntourism) through a description of the types of experiences the tourist has:

The ‘volunteer-minded’ individuals tend to devote most or all of their vacation time to volunteer activities at the destination. Volunteerism is the central notion for them. This type of volunteer tourism is often called a mission or service trip. The second form of volunteer tourism takes on a lighter undertone where the individual is largely ‘vacation-minded’, but spends a small portion of the vacation on volunteer work at the destination. The term ‘VolunTourism’ refers to this type of tourism experience where a tour operator offers travellers an opportunity to participate in an optional excursion that has a volunteer component, as well as a cultural exchange with local people (480).

Volunteer tourists usually have a direct link to local communities and work on projects to improve peoples’ way of life, help animals, build homes or any other philanthropic exercise. The list of possible volunteer tourist experiences is endless.

The ability of volunteers to interact more closely with the local population is a common motivator for participating in voluntourism. Voluntourism experiences allow tourists to have greater integration into the society of the developing country, which is favourable for volunteer tourists because they do not want the typical tourist experience; they want to be able to see a country as a local person would, not the un-authentic five-star, all-inclusive resort setting, for example (Brown, 2005). Not only does being a volunteer tourist allow the participant to see a more authentic version of the country, the ability to offer something back to the country, or an individual community, it also instils a sense of self-worth and satisfaction on a personal level

because they are able to help those who are less fortunate (Brown, 2005). This greater integration of tourists, however, can be negative for local populations.

Volunteer tourism effects the development of Developing world communities through the social interactions between volunteers and locals. It is common for volunteers to impart aspects of Western culture on those on developing nations. Even if it is not intentional, volunteers may discuss issues of equality, social justice and other Western values that do not exist in developing nations (Simpson, 2004). Volunteers can reinforce the gap between developing and developed nations through the ‘othering’ that can occur (Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009). This ‘othering’ can involve showing how different the tourist is from the local person of the developing nation and can further exacerbate the gap between developed and developing worlds. Voluntourism organizations need to ensure that their volunteers are well prepared for what the experience will be like and teach them how to enhance cross-cultural understanding, not widen it (Sin, 2009; Simpson, 2004; Cousins et al., 2009; Raymond and Hall, 2008). There can be positive aspects to cross-cultural interactions.

In some cases, volunteer tourists are able to create lasting relationships with people of the developing nation. Stoddart and Rogerson (2004) used a case study of *Habitat for Humanity* in South Africa to show that some of the participants in the volunteer tourism experience noted that their cultural relations with locals had encouraged them “to improve ‘race relations’ and to participate in the non-racial society that is being constructed in post apartheid South Africa” (317). This study also indicated that some participants felt they aided ‘international friendship’ and left some gifts as well as a potential for continued contact with their local companions from developing nations (Stoddart and Rogerson, 2004). This case shows how voluntourism can have a positive, lasting impact on both the volunteer and the local

community of the developing nation. Volunteer tourism also impacts the volunteer through its ability to increase awareness of issues and increase the possibility of a volunteer to participate in activism in the future. McGehee (2002) studied the work of an alternative tourism organization and its volunteers to show that participating in the volunteer experience did have a lasting impact on the volunteer and encouraged them to be more involved in trying to change the world to be a better place.

Raymond and Hall (2008) also note that voluntourism has the “opportunity to develop cross-cultural understanding and a sense of global citizenry among participants” (541). Their discussion of cross-cultural understanding, however, is more cautious in promoting relationships between people of developing nations and volunteers. They place the role of the group organizing the trip as greatly important. Raymond and Hall stated that the sending organization should follow the following recommendations to ensure or improve cross-cultural understanding:

First, they should develop programmes which will be of genuine value for the local communities. Second, the importance of approaching VTPs [Volunteer Tourism Programmes] as a learning process rather than simply an ‘experience’ should be recognised through the use of experiential learning techniques. Third, opportunities for interaction with other cultures should be deliberately facilitated (541).

It is evident that cross-cultural understanding and acceptance does not come easily or without work, but voluntourism has the potential for a stronger link between the developed and developing world and some organizations are already providing the essential facts to help prepare volunteers for a better understanding of their host nation.

Despite the positive potential for voluntourism, the volunteers are often unaware of the underlying issues in developing nations. Simpson (2004) showed, through interviews with

British voluntourists, that they simply dismiss the obvious inequalities between them and the locals, such as not having a television or nice home, and justify the differences as the local people being happy with their situation: “it doesn’t bother them” (688). The social issues that bring volunteers to developing nations include wanting to help others as well as oneself, but the volunteer is simply going to the developing nation, helping for a short duration of time and going back to their home thinking that they have done the world a service. Raymond and Hall (2008) showed that “in many cases, volunteer tourists’ previously formulated perceptions of poverty may be reinforced by their experiences if they are not encouraged to question the broader processes behind such issues” (533). The issues of poverty, inequality and social distance are seen, but not always understood on the side of the volunteer, and not much is done to combat the issues following their volunteer experience.

NGO Work

Similar to voluntourism, the NGO work in developing nations tends to deal directly with the local population. NGOs work with communities to alleviate poverty, improve literacy rates and countless other efforts (Topper, 2008; Kennedy, 2008; Wearing, 2005). NGOs can help to decommodify tourism to create a greater interest in the ethical treatment of both people and the environment in developing nations (Wearing, 2005; Gray and Campbell, 2007). The work done by NGOs reaches a large number of people. NGOs are increasingly acting as a link between people in developed nations and the developing world. In order to help people in developing nations, donations from people in the developed world are being given to NGOs to distribute and use in projects that will help developing nations (Finnetty, 2000). With foreign aid being channelled through NGOs, it is understandable that NGOs have a large impact on developing nations.

NGOs work not only to create programs and development in the Developing world, but their ultimate goal is to ensure self-sustainability. Wearing, McDonald and Ponting (2005) showed that NGOs work with local communities of developing nations to empower the community and teach the people how to work with other communities and the environment in order to achieve their goals. A French NGO called TDS, (Tourisme & Développement Solidaires) mentioned in Cravatte and Chabloz (2008), is working with volunteers from the developed world in what is called 'fair-trade' tourism. This NGO is ensuring that the division between the developed and developing worlds is not emphasized by limiting the opportunities for tourists and locals to demonstrate an inferior or superior status. The NGO disallows the giving of gifts from tourists to local people because it does not demonstrate an equal relationship. Instead, the volunteers from this NGO work to show that there is equality between them and the local people to demonstrate a relationship like they would have with people at home. This form of philanthropy, done by NGOs, shows how the stigma of social stratification between North and South can start to be eradicated.

An example of the social impact of a NGO is through the NGO *Room to Read*, which works to develop increased literacy in the developed world and to improve self-sufficiency. This NGO was founded in 2000 and since that time "has sponsored the opening of more than 280 schools and 3,800 multi-lingual libraries across the developing world. The organization has given out 3,000,000 children's books and supports more than 3,400 girls in long-term scholarships. [The founder's] plans are to increase the network to 20,000 libraries and schools serving at least 10,000,000 children" (Topper, 2005: 88). NGOs are a great force of philanthropy and have enabled practices like voluntourism to thrive (Kennedy, 2008). With the

association of NGO work with voluntourism, NGOs are beginning to have more of a role to play in tourist philanthropy.

Philanthropic Gifting

The social impacts of philanthropic gifting are directly related to the ways in which they influence an individuals' standing in society. Gifts and tips received from tourists can enable a local person to obtain items and medical supplies they would otherwise not have access to (Elliott and Neirotti, 2008). Philanthropic gifting can also alter the social make-up of society. People with what would be considered prominent careers in the Western world are choosing to work as taxi drivers or bartenders instead of doctors or lawyers because of the availability of tourist dollars and material gifts (Elliott and Neirotti, 2008). Cravatte and Chabloz (2008) also note that gifting by tourists while working with an NGO can be harmful to the society of developing nations. Before leaving for their trip, the NGO tells participants not to give gifts to the local people because they “‘kill the relationship’, ‘provoke begging’ and ‘stir up rivalry and jealousy in the village’ (238). The disparity that is created through philanthropic gifting is altering social standing of those in society and forcing a change in the social make-up. Some nations are more affected than others by this practice, but more work needs to be done to fully understand what is happening and whether or not these impacts will positively or negatively affect the nation in the future. The availability of resources created by tourism is the main way in which philanthropic gifting improves the social standing of individuals in the developing world.

2.4.2 Economic Impacts

The economic impacts of philanthropy on developing world development relate more directly to physical development than social. The economic development caused by

philanthropic practices tends to create structures such as schools or roads and adds to the development process in that way.

Volunteer Tourism

Voluntourism improves the economic situation of developing nations through the products or services provided. Many volunteer tourism agencies will help to construct buildings, provide assistance in conservation projects or help with literacy and education, among many other things (Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009; Wearing, 2001). Though volunteer tourists generally do not spend a lot of money while on their trip, they are able to provide economic benefits through the services they provide.

Another issue with volunteer tourism is the quality of the aid that is given by the volunteer tourist. Guttentag (2009) showed that volunteers tend to be un-skilled in the tasks they are expected to perform and can, on occasion, hinder the project instead of helping it. In performing jobs, volunteers can also take jobs away from people in the host country. Volunteer tourists tend to perform jobs that require little to no professional skill training and, thus, are doing the jobs that could have gone to unemployed or underemployed workers in the developing nation (Guttentag, 2009; Raymond and Hall, 2008).

NGO Work

The work done by NGOs has an economic impact on the communities where they work through the products they create. Many NGOs choose to create projects and build programs instead of giving direct donations to developing world nations (Kennedy, 2008). In this respect, NGOs are able to provide long-lasting economic development. NGOs can work to ensure that the money given goes towards community development and not to corrupt governments (Kennedy, 2008). The ability of NGOs to ensure that money gets to those who need it is

important. The direct link between NGOs and communities in the developing world has enhanced the ability of developing nations to reach towards the equality that is seen in the developed world.

The NGO discussed in the 'Social Impacts' section, *Room to Read*, can also be used to demonstrate the possibility for economic impacts of NGOs. *Room to Read* not only sets up libraries in developing nations, it also works with local communities to ensure the libraries and reading centres are self-sufficient three years after its founding through local funding and management (Topper, 2005). Topper showed that NGOs can tackle a wide range of issues in developing nations and can have a large impact on the country.

Philanthropic Gifting

The economic impacts of philanthropic gifting can be seen quite clearly through the disparity created between those who receive gifts and those who do not. It is mainly the people working in tourism industries who receive gifts, and this can cause a shift in the economic standing of these people (Sixto, 2006; Taylor and McGlynn, 2009). Suddenly, those in the tourism industry are becoming wealthier than those outside of the tourism industry and people are altering their way of life to ensure they have access to tourists and the gifts they bring. Black market operations also became more prominent with philanthropic gifting (Elliott and Neirotti, 2008). Especially in Cuba, it can be seen that people are trying to gain access to tourists and some are even stealing from hotels to be able to trade for items they need on the black market (Elliott and Neirotti, 2008). It is important to recognize that even though tourists believe bringing gifts to people in developing nations is a good thing, it can cause drastic changes in both social and economic aspects of developing world societies.

2.4.3 Political Impacts

The political impacts of philanthropy on development in the developing world are difficult to measure. The social and economic impacts can be seen more easily because of the direct influence philanthropy has on them, but political impacts tend to be more indirect.

Philanthropic Gifting

In regards to gifting by tourists, one example of a political change that was a direct result of tourism and philanthropy was the law forbidding local Cuban citizens to accept gifts from tourists:

In January 2005, the following draconian regulations were enacted that applied to 100,000 tourist workers in their relations with foreigners: a ban on receiving gifts, donations, lodging, invitations to meals and parties, fellowships or trips abroad, and use of cars—without previous government permission. All gifts must be immediately reported in writing to the immediate supervisor who will decide what to do with them; electronic and video equipment will be kept by MINTUR. Tourist employees shall restrict their relations with foreigners to those strictly necessary; conversations and negotiations with foreign partners must be conducted in the presence of one witness (a euphemism for an internal security agent); employees must be discreet with information they have and not disseminate anything that could be sensitive; they must abstain from expressing ideas harmful to the government, be loyal to state politics, report in 72 hours any contact from a foreigner not related to work issues or contrary to revolutionary morale, and exert permanent vigilance on any potential action that could damage state interests (“Resolución 10” 2005 as cited in Mesa-Lago, 2005: 27-28)

The evidence that gifting exists and is having an impact is clear through Mesa-Lago’s discussion of the new Cuban policy. The prevalence of gifting and tipping by tourists to local people was significant enough to force the Cuban government to create a law against it. This policy was created because too much disparity was developing between those with access to tourists and those without (Sixto, 2006). Most of the impacts of philanthropy on development

do not come in such an obvious form and, as such, are difficult to observe. The political impact of a change in Cuban policy because of philanthropic gifting shows how much of an influence tourism and tourists can have on a developing nation.

3.0 Methodology

Minimal research has been conducted in the area of tourist philanthropic gifting in developing nations. There is a lack of knowledge surrounding the area of tourist philanthropic gifting impacts on developing nations and studies done have not focussed on the disparity created through philanthropic practices. Current studies on tourist philanthropy have not focussed on quantifying the level of tourist philanthropic gifting and have yet to develop a framework to explain why it occurs. This study suggests that while tourist philanthropy and economic development are a key aspect of tourism studies, the studies done on these aspects of tourism are incomplete. The prevalence of tourist philanthropic gifting is an area that needs to be studied in order to fully grasp the impacts that tourists are having on the local economies of nations in the developing world. Questionnaires, interviews and participant observation were used in the study.

Time-Frame and Locations

To evaluate the level of tourist philanthropy in developing nations, two tourist hubs in Cuba, Varadero and Holguin, were visited and many different locations of tourist activity were surveyed in each location. For each city visited, at least six hotels of different rankings were visited and at least one area of tourist activity outside of the hotel, the market, was observed. The hotel locations provided access to all tourists staying in the resort but those who do not stay in resorts were reached through an evaluation of a local market or tourist shopping area. The variation of locations enabled the surveys to span a large variety of tourists. Directly following the field research in Cuba, travel agents in Canada were also interviewed to

determine the level in which Canadian travellers inquire about gifting. The research in Cuba was conducted during the months of June and July.

3.1 Methods Review

Questionnaires

As previously mentioned, the methods that were employed for this study were questionnaires, interviews and participant observation. The first method used in the research was questionnaires. Questionnaires were used to determine the percentage of tourists who bring gifts to locals, why tourists practice philanthropic gifting while on vacation and to determine the level of interaction between locals and tourists, all from a tourist point of view. Tourists were surveyed for this research instead of the local population due to language barriers. Questionnaires were distributed to tourists in Guardalavaca and Varadero, Cuba. The questionnaires were given to people in hotel areas, such as the pool, and also on the public beaches. Random sampling techniques were used where the researcher approached every third person to complete the survey. Only tourists with English-speaking backgrounds were used due to language constraints of the researcher. If the third person to be approached did not speak English, the researcher approached the next person they encountered and then continued sampling every third person from there. Most tourists approached spoke English, and the researcher only had to move on to approach someone else on three occasions. The questionnaires were administered by the researcher through the use of clipboards and pens brought to Cuba by the researcher.

In order to reach a large number of tourists, questionnaires were the best option for a variety of reasons. Firstly, questionnaires can be fairly quick. This is a key aspect of their usefulness since it is assumed that many people who are on vacation will not want to spend too

much time answering questions. Second, questionnaires can be concise and address the key questions that one wants to have answered. Questionnaires can also be handed out at one point in the day and collected later during the day so that those answering can have time to do the questionnaire when they see fit. The questionnaires were pilot tested by convenience sampling on fifteen people before the questionnaire surveys were distributed to tourists. Appropriate modifications were made based on feedback from those in the pilot survey.

Questionnaires are a common method of research for many scholars in the field of human geography. For this field study, it was decided that face-to-face interviews would be used for the questionnaires when possible, and drop and pick up were the second form of questionnaire delivery if face-to-face proved to be too difficult or time-consuming for respondents. Face-to-face interviews allow the researcher to clarify any confusing responses and allow the respondent to have actual contact with them (McLafferty, 2003). The researcher is also able to probe for more information if the questions are more open-ended and the response rate is generally greater since the researcher is present (McLafferty, 2003). Drop and pick up questionnaires are not as personal as face-to-face interviews, but the response rate is still higher than most questionnaire delivery methods (postal, internet etc.) so this delivery method as a secondary option should still result in a strong response rate (McLafferty, 2003).

Questionnaires provided a quick and relatively inexpensive way of getting information from participants (Hay, 2005). Questionnaires proved useful because they do not take up much of the tourists' time. The researcher was able to elicit a complete questionnaire from a respondent in what was usually five to ten minutes. The questionnaire was also cost efficient since it only requires the printing and writing utensils. Another positive aspect of questionnaires was that they provided a large participant pool and the researcher was able to

get information from more people in a shorter amount of time than any other method (Hay, 2005). The ability of questionnaires to have a larger number of participants in a shorter amount of time was necessary for such a study in order to obtain the desired number of participants.

Questionnaires also have negative aspects. With face-to-face interviews, the researcher's presence can have an impact. Unequal relationships between the respondent and interviewer for various reasons can cause a bias (McLafferty, 2003). The participants may not feel that they can answer the questions truthfully with the researcher looking on and seeing their answers. For both face-to-face and drop and pick up questionnaires, it can cost the researcher time and money to conduct them (McLafferty, 2004). In the case of Cuba, the legal issue mentioned in the Literature Review that Cuban people are not allowed to accept gifts from tourists must be addressed. Due to the possible repercussions of asking about tourists' knowledge of the law, the researcher chose to not inflict a bias upon the tourists by informing them of this law. The tourists may not have answered in the same way if they knew that the Cuban people should not be accepting their gifts and the researcher decided that it was not appropriate to influence tourists in this way.

Another negative impact of questionnaires is that depending on the size of the participant pool, questionnaires can take time to complete and having the researcher administer all questionnaires will take a lot of time for the researcher themselves. This, however, was not an issue with this study because of the length of the surveys. Surveys were completed in 5 to 10 minutes. Another negative aspect of questionnaires is that they do not delve into the issues too deeply and the participants' responses are not as in depth or meaningful as they would be with other methods (Hay, 2005). Questionnaires tend to have more close-ended questions due to the manner in which they are administered. Questions are to the point and do not require the

participant to delve into their memories or tell any stories that they may have with another method.

The negative aspects of the questionnaire method were acknowledged by the researcher and were believed to have been overcome by the positive aspects. The large number of participants possible with questionnaires was essential for obtaining a large sample size, which helped the researcher to better understand the issue and collect more complete data. The large sample size was seen to be more important than in-depth answers for this section of the research. The questionnaires were mainly quantitative since they were designed to count the number of people bringing gifts as well as ask open-ended questions to allow for more in-depth responses. Interviews with locals and travel agents were used to provide in-depth answers. The face-to-face aspect of the questionnaire administration also allowed the researcher to probe for information when necessary. The bias that can be created through face-to-face questionnaire administration was not deemed to be a significant issue in this case. Since the researcher was visiting the nation and was speaking with tourists, who are also just visiting, the researcher worked with people who are similar to herself. There is always a possibility for subjectivity in research and the possibility for people to answer questions untruthfully is always present. The researcher acknowledges this fact and took it into consideration during the research. The questionnaires were not longer than fifteen minutes in length and did not create a time issue for the researcher. Funding of the project from the researcher's supervisor allowed for effective use of the questionnaire method with the availability of the time and resources required. Overall, questionnaires were seen to be an invaluable aspect of this research.

Interviews

Interviews were used as a form of research with travel agents. Interviews were helpful as they enabled the researcher to ask more open-ended questions and allowed the interviewee to give real-life examples or add information that may not have been addressed by the questions. Interviews conducted were semi-structured to enable a predetermined set of questions, but allow for flexibility. Canadian travel agents were interviewed in a semi-structured manner to evaluate their understanding of philanthropy in developing nations and to gauge their amount of influence. Travel agents were interviewed to evaluate the level to which their clients show an interest in bringing gifts to locals in developing nations and also to see if the travel agents themselves encourage the practice. A total of eleven travel agents were interviewed within the Toronto, Ontario area to determine the interest that travellers have in philanthropic gifting and if travel agents play a role in encouraging or discouraging it. The inclusion of the information that local Cuban people are not supposed to accept gifts was also not included in travel agent interviews because of the repercussions it could have on the travel industry to Cuba.

Strengths of semi-structured interviews are that they are conversational and informal (Longhurst, 2003). These characteristics can be seen as strengths because they allow the interviewee to be comfortable and to feel as though they are in a safe environment to share the information they are divulging. The semi-structured interview allows for probing to get more information about what the interviewee is discussing. Interviews are also important because they can act as a “stand-alone method, as a supplement to other methods or as a means for triangulation in multi-methods research” (Longhurst, 2003, p.120). Another strength of semi-structured interviews is that they can be used to “investigate complex behaviours and

motivations” (Dunn, 2005: 80). The interviews to be conducted with travel agents were used for this purpose. Personal opinions and observations can be critiqued through the use of interviews through the views of a local or specialist in the field. This enabled the researcher to acknowledge any misunderstandings they have or see another layer of an issue previously undisclosed to them (Dunn, 2005).

Ethical issues are important in interviews and surveys. Confidentiality and anonymity need to be observed by the researcher to protect their interviewees. Data collected must be kept locked away or secured in computer databases and the interviewee must also be kept anonymous unless they have indicated otherwise (Longhurst, 2003). The researcher must also acknowledge the fact that the interviewee’s opinion may not reflect truth or the general public opinion (Dunn, 2005). These negative aspects of the interview method do not overcome the strengths and, therefore, interviews were used as a means of retrieving more in-depth and personal responses from participants.

The researcher believed that interviews added an important, more personal, form of data collection to the research. The ability of interviews to get the interviewee’s opinion in their own words is an important aspect. The researcher kept any data or notes collected locked in a suitcase and kept names, addresses and any other confidential information given under the same care unless the interviewee had allowed the researcher to include their name in the report. The acknowledgement that the interviewee’s responses are subjective and are not necessarily the view of all other participants is important. The researcher was able to do a thorough review of the literature to become informed of any bias the interviewee may have and to confirm statements by the interviewee.

Participant Observation

Observational research accompanied both the questionnaires and the interviews as another way to view the interactions between locals and tourists. Participant observation can take one of four forms, including complete participant, participant as observer, observer as participant and complete observer (Hartmann, 1988). For the nature of this research, the researcher took the role of observer as participant, where the researcher was an outsider in the region being studied, but where they observed locals and tourists in order to gain knowledge of their day-to-day interactions. Observational research was used at the beginning of the field work component and also at the end. The observational research at the beginning allowed the researcher to become immersed in the community and culture of the city and also to gauge the best way to approach other methods that are to follow. The observational research enabled the researcher to solely observe the actions of local people and tourists to gauge the level of interaction and also the level of philanthropic practices occurring. The observational research that was conducted at the conclusion of the field work component allowed the researcher to evaluate the discrepancy (if any) between what interviewees and tourists who completed the questionnaires said and what their actions show. The researcher kept a notebook of events that occurred and evaluated any differences between the data retrieved in observation and in interviews and/or questionnaires.

Participant observation is seen as a vital aspect to the research because of the methodological strengths it brings. The main reason for using participant observation is that the researcher was able to witness the interaction between local and tourist in a more naturalistic setting. The locals and tourists were not entirely aware of the researcher's observation of them, and for that reason, the researcher bias was reduced. A study conducted by Bowen (2002)

explains that participant observation is the best way to get a well-rounded understanding of tourist feelings. Bowen shows that participant observation, with the researcher as complete participant, was deemed the best choice for his research because the researcher could measure the level of tourist satisfaction throughout the tourism experience, not just at one moment (2002). Hartmann (1988) also shows that participant observation can yield a great wealth of information regarding the patterns of participant actions. Another way in which it is useful is that it allows the researcher to see how locals and tourists will act in a situation where there is not a researcher presence. Observation will allow the researcher to be “able to comment on the culture, society and geography of various spaces and places” (Laurier, 2003, p.135). Despite the positive aspects of participant observation, however, there are negative aspects that can decrease its validity as a method.

Hartmann shows that participant observation can be an incomplete method because without being involved and speaking to tourists, it is not possible to know why they chose to do what they do. Hartmann suggested that being an observer more than a participant does not yield the same in-depth responses from participants; as an observer, the researcher makes deductions on what they see (1988). Another criticism of participant observation is that, if the researcher is not immediately involved in the group they are observing, there is the possibility for ‘dead time’, where the group moves into an area that is inaccessible to the researcher, a private restaurant room for example (Seaton, 2002). Also, the researcher has an unknown number of participants and what could turn out to be a rather large monitoring field. Without ingraining themselves into a group, the researcher could be overwhelmed with the role of observation since there is so much to see and take note of (Seaton, 2002). This issue, however

did not occur during the research as the groups being observed were small enough so that the research did not become overwhelmed.

For the research that was going to be undertaken for this project, the researcher believed that the strengths of participant observation greatly outweighed the weaknesses. The researcher used questionnaires and interviews to counter the potential for a lack of in-depth responses that can arise from the use of observer-as-participant observation. The triangulation of a variety of methods allowed for a complete view of the issue. The weakness created by the possibility of 'dead time' did not pertain to this research because the researcher was observing tourist-local interactions as a whole, not a specific group of people. The researcher went to where there was interaction between locals and tourists and moved to another location if the area proved to be insufficient for observation. In order to counter the issue of having too much to observe, the researcher narrowed her observation field to only contain the amount of people that the researcher could observe without becoming overwhelmed. Overall, the information that will be gained through the lessened amount of researcher bias was deemed to be more valuable than the possible weaknesses that participant observation can accrue. Participant observation was considered to be an essential tool for this research.

3.2 Case Study

The case study for this thesis involved the examination of two tourist locations in one nation in the developing world. The focus was on Latin America, and Cuba in particular. Cuba was chosen as an ideal location for this study because of its prominent tourist industry and the importance of tourism in the Cuban economy. To fully understand the reasons for why Cuba

was an ideal choice of case study for this research, some background on the nations' history must be examined.

Cuban History

Cuban society has gone through many changes throughout the years of Cuban independence and has acted in ways that are different from the majority of Caribbean nations. Following the devastation in Europe from the Second World War, most Caribbean nations embarked on new policies with the United States and eventually entered into trade agreements with them and other democratic nations. However, Cuba took a different approach to nation building after the war and did not have an ongoing relationship with the United States. An unhappy Cuban population led to the overthrowing of the US-backed leadership by Fidel Castro who entered the country and created a socialist state in January 1959 (Cervino and Cubillo, 2005). The new government took control of the island through the nationalization of all hotels and other US-based developments and, consequently, tourism dramatically decreased. With this decision, Cuba was removed from trade with democratic nations and the United States placed a blockade on the island and staged raids on Cuba during the Cold War. During the Cold War, Cuba was an ally of the Soviet Union, the leader of the Communist world. The blockade (or embargo) placed on Cuba by the United States is described by MacAulay (1994) stating the basis of the conditions of the embargo:

- (1) Importation of any goods into the United States that contain even trace amounts of Cuban input is prohibited;
- (2) Companies operating outside the United States are not allowed to sell Cuban goods that contain more than 20-percent U.S. input or which are based on U.S. technological design;
- (3) Foreign banks may not maintain accounts denominated in U.S. dollars or conduct commercial transactions in U.S. dollars that involve Cuba;
- (4) U.S. nationals who are directors of companies operating outside the United States are prevented from dealing with Cuba;
- (5) ships docking

at Cuban ports are prohibited from entering U.S. ports for six months subsequent; and (6) Informal pressures are applied by the United States against other countries to deter them from dealing with Cuba (18).

The blockade from the United States put Cuba in a situation where they needed to develop new relationships with other nations to facilitate trade.

Following the fall of the Soviet Union in 1989, Cuba entered into a ‘special period’ in its history. MacAulay (1994) noted that prior to the fall of the Soviet Union, Cuba had conducted approximately ninety percent of its international trading with the Soviet bloc. The ‘special period’ of Cuba’s history was a time of chaos, disorganization, fear and suffering. Despite these characteristics, the ‘special period’ also tested the Cuban population and forced them to fend for themselves, which is something that is not common for such a geographically small nation. The ‘special period’ in Cuba led to a drastic drop in the economic abilities of Cuba, a lack of foreign relations and also pressure on all Cubans to fight for survival. With the fall of the Soviet Union, “Cuba lost 85 percent of its foreign trade and experienced a 51 percent decline in foreign exchange earnings. In addition to a loss in foreign trade, there was also a decline in Cuba’s gross domestic product, non sugar-related production, and oil importation” (Toro-Morn, 2002: 38). International tourism in Cuba in the 1960s and 1970s was close to nil and no initiatives were taken to create tourism infrastructure or investment (Espino, 2002). It was evident that without trading partners, Cuba’s economy was suffering greatly.

To improve life in Cuba and to boost the Cuban economy, Fidel Castro legalized the previously banned use of the American (US) dollar. This change occurred in 1993 and eased Cuba’s financial situation with the free circulation of dollars (Toro-Morn, 2002). To further improve the Cuban economic situation, “between 1993 and 1996, Cuba opened new sectors to foreign direct investment (FDI), liberalized farm markets, legalized the possession of US

dollars and new forms of self-employment, and reduced the fiscal deficit by cutting spending” (Corrales, 2004:35). These steps were taken out of the typical beliefs of the Cuban socialist system and show that the Cuban government realized that in order to provide for their people, some changes would have to be made.

Today, tourism has begun to flourish in Cuba once again. As a result of the relaxed laws imposed by the Castro government, Cuba has been opened up to new trading partners and has a new-found hope for development. Elliott and Neirotti state that “Cuba is openly hedging its economic future on engagement with multiple partners, such as Spain, Mexico, Canada, Japan, France and Jamaica, through a strategy of public and private joint-venture hotel company relationships” (2008, 375). By 1997, Suddaby (1997) notes that “within the Caribbean, Cuba has significantly outperformed the majority of other destinations in terms of tourism growth. Annual growth over the last seven years has been 16.9% in Cuba, compared to 6.4% for Jamaica, 4.7% for the Dominican Republic, and 3.4% for Puerto Rico. The Bahamas recorded growth of less than 1%” (129). Cuba’s rise to being a major tourist destination did not happen quickly or without effort, but the changes made in the Cuban government have allowed for tourism to flourish.

Cuban Tourism

The Cuban tourism industry is an important factor in the economic success of the nation. The tourism industry is the number one means of economic success in Cuba. Manuel Marrero, the Cuban Minister of Tourism, stated in 2010 that Cuba is now in ninth position for the number of visitors received in the region, whereas in 1990 it was ranked twenty-third despite an inability to access fifty percent of the tourism market in the Caribbean (the

American tourists). Cuba is in a unique position because of its relationship with the United States of America. The trade embargo discussed in the Cuban History section had been placed on Cuba by the United States for decades now, and has placed Cuba in a situation where goods and material items that are easy to get in other nations of Latin America are more difficult to obtain in Cuba. Despite the difficulty in importing from the United States, Cuba has developed a unique tourism niche where tourists can visit without the presence of Americans or American goods.

It is clear that despite the lack of the American market, Cuba is growing as a tourist destination. As of 2010, travel and tourism contributes 6 percent of Cuba's GDP and 5.1 percent of total employment within the nation (WTTC, 2010). A study done by the UNWTO examining the tourist arrivals for 2007-2009 show increases in the number of tourists visiting Cuba each year. In 2007 Cuba had 2,119,000 visitors and in 2009 there were 2,405,000 visitors (UNWTO, 2010: 8). Cuba was one of only three Caribbean nations surveyed posting an increase of visitor arrivals, and had the highest percentage increase of those nations (UNWTO, 2010). There are an abundance of tourists in almost all parts of the country, which shows how ideal the locale is for tourism.

Visitors in Cuba come from all over the world. The Caribbean Tourism Organization (CTO) reported in 2008 that 35 percent of visitors are from Canada, 24 percent from European nations (not including Germany, Spain or Italy which were tabulated individually), 7 percent from South America, 2 percent from the USA (including journalists, people with close family in Cuba and business professionals with sanctioned work in Cuba) , 11 percent from the Caribbean and 7 percent from the rest of the world (42). Sharpley and Knight (2009) echo these findings stating that "Canada has long been Cuba's principal market, accounting for over

a quarter of all arrivals by 2005, although Europe as a whole provided over 45% of all arrivals in that year. The UK has emerged as the strongest European market, accounting for 9.5% of all arrivals in 2006” (249). This study’s results corresponded to Sharpley and Knights’ with Canada and the United Kingdom being the most prevalent residencies of people surveyed.

In order to accommodate these visitors, tourism employs many Cuban people. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) ranked Cuba second in the Caribbean region for the number of people working in the tourism industry in 2004 with 505,900 people, only behind the Dominican Republic (40). Cuba was also ranked third in the region for the size of the tourism economy behind Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic. In 2004, the WTTC estimated that tourism in Cuba would receive an estimated \$4.8 billion of the total demand of tourism in the region. Cuba’s tourism market is expanding and has increased dramatically in the past twenty years.

The Selection of Study Locations – Varadero and Guardalavaca

The field work was conducted in two of the main tourist hubs in Cuba, Varadero and Guardalavaca. These two locations were chosen because of their prominence in the tourism market and also because of their geographic locations. Varadero is located on the North beaches of Cuba to the West of the centre of the island and Guardalavaca is located in the North-East of the island (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Map of Cuba



<http://www.greece-map.net/caribbean/cuba-map.htm>

The separate geographic locations enabled the researcher to evaluate any differences in tourist responses on opposite ends of the island.

Both locations were determined to be popular tourist hubs due to research into popular tourist areas in Cuba. The Cuban Minister of Tourism, Manuel Marrero, stated that new investments were being made to increase the number of four and five-star hotel rooms and that investments were being made in Varadero, Santa Maria, Cayo Coco Keys and Guardalavaca showing that tourism is prominent and growing in these areas (MINREX, 2010). With Varadero and Guardalavaca being the most geographically separate, these two locations were deemed to be the best for surveying. Suddaby (1997) examined the growth in hotels and number of hotel rooms in particular in various tourist hubs in Cuba. Using data from the Cuban Ministry of Tourism, Suddaby noted that the number of hotel rooms had doubled from 1990 to

1996 for both Varadero and Guardalavaca (described in the table as ‘North of Holguin’). In 1996, Varadero had the highest number of hotel rooms, followed by Havana, the area south of Oriente (likely Santiago de Cuba) and then the area north of Holguin (Guardalavaca) (Suddably, 1997:128). The type of attractions at each of these places varies since Varadero and Guardalavaca are more beach-front regions and Havana and Santiago de Cuba are more associated with historical architecture and Cuban culture. For the best results of this survey, Varadero and Guardalavaca were chosen because of the direct access to tourists on public beaches.

Conclusion

The methods chosen to conduct the field research, questionnaires, interviews and participant observation provided the researcher with a clear picture of the events occurring in the area. This mixed-method approach enabled the researcher to estimate the number of tourists who bring gifts to locals and what level of interaction tourists have with locals. It also enabled the researcher to determine why tourists practice philanthropy while on vacation and to determine the level of interaction between locals and tourists. The methods described worked together to determine the impacts of tourist philanthropy on the local economies of developing nations.

4.0 Findings

This chapter presents the results of the analysis done for surveys with tourists in Cuba and interviews with travel agents in Canada. Interview analysis was done through frequency counts related to the agents' expertise and knowledge of gifting. The survey analysis was based on frequency counts, cross-tabulations of survey variables related to gender, age, residency, prior visits to Cuba and knowledge of gifting. The chapter begins with the interview analysis followed by the survey response rate, justification for analyzing the surveys as a whole, an analysis of frequency counts and the survey analysis of cross tabulations and Chi-squared tests. Fisher's Exact Tests (2x2 contingency) were used when Chi-square tests were invalid because of a cell count of less than 5. Results of travel agent interviews will be compared to survey findings where relevant.

4.1 Analysis of Travel Agent Interviews

This section will outline the results of the travel agent information related to experience, knowledge of gifting and their views on the practice. The remaining questions asked of travel agents (e.g. what do they recommend people bring, what do they believe the motivations are for tourists bringing gifts) will be addressed in relation to the corresponding survey questions in the survey analysis.

A total of eleven interviews were conducted with travel agents in the Greater Toronto Area. Fourteen travel agents were approached for interviews and eleven agreed to participate. Two declined participation because of time and work commitments and one declined participation

because of a company policy to not answer any questions without the company sanctioning it. The overall response rate for interviews was, thus, 78.6%.

The travel agents were asked questions about their background and expertise as a travel agent first and then about their knowledge of gifting and their personal views on the practice. The analysis of the interviews will be divided into these sections.

4.1.1 Background and Expertise

Of the travel agents interviewed, two interviewees were from each of the following agencies: Marlin Travel, Sell Off Vacations, Sears Travel, Flight Centre and two were from Independent agencies. One interviewee was from Goliger's TravelPlus. Nine interviewees were female and two were male. Two interviewees had been working for a travel agency for 1-5 years, four had been working in the field for 6-10 years and four for 11-15 years and one had been an agent for 15+ years. The number of years with their current position at their current travel agency varied from the number of years in the industry with five interviewees working at their current job for 1-5 years, five working there for 6-10 years and one working there for 11-15 years.

The expertise of the travel agent was also drawn from the percentage of their clientele going to Cuba specifically. Four interviewees indicated that 10-25% of their clientele goes to Cuba, three stated that 26-50% goes to Cuba, two indicated 51-79% going to Cuba and two interviewees had over 80% of their clientele going to Cuba. The expertise of travel agents enabled rich data to be gathered to supplement the survey data.

All interviewees indicated that Cuba was a very popular destination among tourists from Canada because of the low prices and friendly people. Some also mentioned that their clients had a specific desire to go there because of the lack of American tourists.

4.1.2 Knowledge of Gifting and Personal Views on the Practice

The next section of travel agent interviews examines the travel agent’s knowledge of the gifting practice and level to which travel agents play a role in influencing tourists to bring gifts to Cuban people. Travel agents were asked to indicate how many clients asked about the gifting practice and how many asked specifically about what to bring. The travel agent interviews provided insight into a means of how tourists hear about philanthropic gifting as well as the type of information they provide tourists on the subject. The results of these questions are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Client Inquiries about Gifting and What to Bring as a Gift

Percent of Clients	Number of Travel Agents	
	Inquire about Gifting	Inquire about What to Bring
1-10%	4	4
11-25%	2	3
26-49%	1	0
50%+	4	4

The majority of travel agents either have many or very few clients who inquire about gifting and what to bring. Surprisingly, some of the travel agents who have over 80% of clientele going to Cuba have small percentage of them asking about gifting. For example, one travel agent noted that 80% of clientele go to Cuba, but only 20% ask about bringing gifts to local people. Others have 30% of clientele going to Cuba but have over 50% of those clients asking about bringing gifts and what to bring. The percentage of clients going to Cuba, therefore, does

not play a factor in whether or not gifting is inquired about. The majority of travel agents who noted that their clients had asked about gifting stated that the client had heard of the gifting practice either through a friend who had been to Cuba or online, through a website the client had visited to learn more about their vacation destination.

Agents were also asked about resources that they distributed to clients about gifting. None of the agents recommended looking at any specific websites or brochures to learn about gifting. Ten of the eleven agents interviewed said that they do not give any information or resources aside from their personal experiences in gifting and personal views on how it happens. The one agent who did not respond in this way said that they (agents at the specific agency) are not supposed to influence clients in regards to gifting and, therefore, leave the issue to the discretion of the client.

The final question for travel agents involved their knowledge of groups or organizations who organize gifts or supplies to be brought to Cuba. The majority of agents (n=8) had not heard of any such groups. Two agents noted that some of their clients mention humanitarian or mission work that they are doing or plan to do in Cuba and hear about items being given to the Cuban people through these types of groups. One agent mentioned that other agents they knew had brought care packages with medical supplies to Cuba while on a business trip. Overall, the information supplied by travel agents enabled a view into the travel industry and the role of the travel industry in philanthropic gifting.

4.2 Survey Response Rate

A total of 76 surveys were completed in Guardalavaca and 81 were completed in Varadero. Only two people declined participation in the survey in Guardalavaca and nine people declined in Varadero. None of the surveys completed were deemed unacceptable or unfinished so all the surveys conducted were kept for analysis. Therefore, the response rate was 97.4% in Guardalavaca and 90% in Varadero. The overall response rate for both survey locations was 93.4%. A random sampling method was used in the collection of the surveys. Every third tourist on the beaches of Guardalavaca and Varadero was approached. If the tourist did not speak English, the researcher moved on to the next tourist on the beach and continued approaching every third tourist after that. This scenario only occurred three times, as the majority of the tourists approached spoke English.

4.3 Survey Response Differences Between Varadero and Guardalavaca

Following an initial analysis of survey results using frequencies, cross tabulations and chi-square tests from the two sample locations, it was determined that the two locations had minimal differences in responses and the surveys would be combined together for one large sample. Of fifteen chi-square tests and cross tabulations, only four tests yielded a difference in location, and not all variables within those tests had a significant result. The differences in survey responses between the locations are noted in this section, though they were not deemed substantial enough to analyze the two survey locations separately.

The areas in which responses differed between Varadero and Guardalavaca were in residency of the tourists, where the tourists had been on the island besides where they were staying

currently, the number of participants who brought school supplies and clothes as gifts and the number of tourists who gave the gifts to non-tourism staff (people on beaches, cities or markets). The results of statistical testing with this data are outlined below.

4.3.1 Residency

The residency of tourists in Varadero compared to Guardalavaca was an area where significant differences could be seen between the two sampling locations (Table 2). In Varadero, 59.3% of tourists were Canadian, 27.2% were from the United Kingdom or Ireland and 13.6% were from other nations within Europe. In Guardalavaca, 38.2% of tourists were from Canada, 55.3% were from the United Kingdom or Ireland and 6.6% were from other nations within Europe.

Table 2: Chi-square results and Individual Relationships Between Survey Location and Participant Residency

	Canada	United Kingdom and Ireland	Other Europe	N	x ²	df	Sig.
Varadero	48 (59.3)	22 (27.2)	11 (13.6)	157	13.042	1	0.001*
Guardalavaca	29 (38.2)	42 (55.3)	5 (6.6)	157			

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher). Row percentages are shown in parentheses.

Since the overall number of tourists from Canada and the United Kingdom or Ireland varied between locations, it was assumed that this is the typical distribution of tourists in Cuba. It is possible that flights to Guardalavaca were less expensive for British travelers at the time of the survey and that flights to Varadero were less expensive for Canadian travelers. However, because the overall number of tourists from each residency was fairly even when viewed together, the two locations will be analyzed together and extrapolated to show the tourist population of Cuba as a whole.

4.3.2 Differences in Locations Tourists had Been Within Cuba

Another area where differences were seen between Varadero and Guardalavaca was in where else the participants had been in Cuba, if they had been to Cuba before. Participants were asked to indicate where they had been in Cuba aside from the location where they were doing the survey. The results of frequencies, cross tabulations and chi-squared tests are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3: Chi-square results and Individual Relationships Between Survey Location and Where Else Participants Had Been in Cuba aside from their Current Vacation spot

Place in Cuba	Varadero Surveys		Guardalavaca Surveys		N	x ²	df	Sig.
	Y	N	Y	N				
Western Cuba	0 (0.0)	26 (100.0)	7 (35.0)	13 (65.0)	46	10.733	1	0.001*b
Central Cuba	8 (30.8)	18 (69.2)	4 (20.0)	16 (80.0)	46	0.680	1	0.410
Eastern Cuba	9 (34.6)	17 (65.4)	2 (10.0)	18 (90.0)	46	3.765	1	0.082b
Havana	11 (42.3)	15 (57.7)	2 (10.0)	18 (90.0)	46	5.820	1	0.016*

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher). A 'b' denotes where a Fisher's exact test was used instead of a chi square test. Row percentages are shown in parentheses.

Though only Havana and Western Cuba yielded a statistically significant result, the various locations will be examined to explain the differences in the number of tourists visiting various areas. In Varadero, none of the participants indicated that they had previously been to Western Cuba (which included Varadero, Jibacoa and Playa D'Este). In Guardalavaca, 35% of participants indicated that they had been to Western Cuba. In Varadero, 34.6% of participants indicated that they had been to Eastern Cuba (which included Santiago de Cuba, Holguin and Guardalavaca); whereas only 10% of participants from Guardalavaca indicated they had been there. For Central Cuba (which included Trinidad, Cienfuegos, Santa Clara, Cayo Santa Maria,

Cayo Coco, Cayo Largo and Cayo Guillermo), 30.8% of Varadero tourists who had been to Cuba before had been there and 20% of Guardalavaca tourists had been there. Havana was made into its own category and included 42.3% participants from Varadero and 10% of participants from Guardalavaca.

Though these numbers seem to indicate a large difference, the discrepancy in the number of participants visiting other parts of the island can be explained through the wording of the question. Participants were asked to indicate where they had been within Cuba, not including the city they were currently visiting. Therefore, if the participant was in Varadero at the time of the survey, they could not indicate that they had been to Varadero on a previous trip. This explains why 0% of tourists from Varadero indicated they had visited Western Cuba and why only a small number of tourists from Guardalavaca indicated that they had visited Eastern Cuba. The 10% of participants from Guardalavaca who indicated they had been to Eastern Cuba could have visited another part of Eastern Cuba (ie. Santiago de Cuba), which is why they indicated that they had been to Western Cuba on a previous trip. The larger number of participants from Varadero than Guardalavaca indicating that they had been to Havana can be explained by the fact that Varadero is quite close geographically to Havana (see Map of Cuba: Figure 1) and the opportunity to visit Havana is more plausible for tourists staying in Varadero.

With the explanation for why tourists from Varadero and Guardalavaca had been to different places on the island, it was deemed unnecessary to separate the survey results by location. The two locations were combined together for further analysis.

4.3.3 Differences in What was Brought as Gifts

Another area where responses varied between Varadero and Guardalavaca is in the number of people who brought school supplies and clothes as a gift for local people in Cuba (Table 4). In Varadero, 58.7% of participants who brought gifts brought clothes and 24.3% of participants from Guardalavaca who brought gifts brought clothes. The results for participants who brought school supplies as gifts showed that 26.1% of participants in Varadero brought school supplies as gifts and 54.1% of participants in Guardalavaca brought school supplies as gifts. This difference in what was brought was not deemed to create a significant difference between locations in what was brought to locals overall. Since only 2 out of the 6 categories of gifts yielded a difference, the types of items being brought to locals were not significant enough to separate the two locations.

Table 4: Chi-square results and Individual Relationships between Survey Location and What Was Brought as Gifts

What Brought as a Gift	Varadero Surveys		Guardalavaca Surveys		N	x ²	df	Sig.
	Y	N	Y	N				
Toiletries	26 (56.5)	20 (43.5)	17 (45.9)	20 (54.1)	83	0.919	1	0.338
Cosmetics	14 (30.4)	32 (69.6)	10 (27.0)	27 (73.0)	83	0.116	1	0.734
Food	6 (13.0)	40 (87.0)	5 (13.5)	32 (86.5)	83	0.004	1	1.00b
Leisure Supplies	11 (23.9)	35 (76.1)	9 (24.3)	28 (75.7)	83	0.002	1	0.965
Clothes	27 (58.7)	19 (41.3)	9 (24.3)	28 (75.7)	83	9.863	1	0.002*
School Supplies	12 (26.1)	34 (73.9)	20 (54.1)	17 (45.9)	83	6.770	1	0.009*

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher). A 'b' denotes where a Fisher's exact test was used instead of a chi square test. Row percentages are shown in parentheses.

4.3.4 Differences in to Whom Gifts Were Given

The only other questions that yielded a different response from participants in Varadero and Guardalavaca was to whom gifts were given. Survey respondents in Varadero were more likely to give gifts to people working at hotels while tourists in Guardalavaca were more likely to give gifts to people not working in the tourism industry such as people on beaches, people in town and people in the markets (Table 5). Of the participants who brought gifts, in Varadero, 84.8% of participants gave their gifts to hotel staff whereas 59.5% of participants in Guardalavaca gave their gifts to hotel staff. In Varadero 15.2% of participants gave gifts to people not in the tourism industry and in Guardalavaca the number of participants giving gifts to people out of the tourism industry was 43.2%. This difference can be attributed to various factors such as the people in Guardalavaca having better access to non-hotel staff. It was noted during the data collection that the security in Varadero was much more present than in Guardalavaca. Even though all beaches in Cuba are public and open to locals, locals not working for the tourism industry were often evident on Guardalavaca beaches but in Varadero the locals wandering the beaches were commonly pushed away by hotel security if they approached or got too close to tourists on the beach. The beaches in Varadero were much longer and the opportunity for locals to have a stretch of beach away from tourists was very likely, whereas in Guardalavaca the beaches were shorter and almost entirely occupied by tourists. Guardalavaca also has a market right next door to the major hotels, whereas the markets in Varadero are further away from the majority of the large resorts in the city. If tourists in Varadero chose to not leave their hotel grounds, they would have little to no access to locals not working in the tourism industry. In Guardalavaca, however, tourists not choosing

to leave the hotel vicinity would have a greater chance of interaction with people not working in the tourism industry.

Table 5: Chi-square Results and Individual Relationships between Survey Location and Who Gifts were Given To

Who Gifts Were Given To	Varadero Surveys		Guardalavaca Surveys		N	x ²	Sig.
	Y	N	Y	N			
Hotel Staff	39 (84.8)	7 (15.2)	22 (59.5)	15 (40.5)	83	6.750	0.009*
Non-Tourism Staff	7 (15.2)	39 (84.8)	16 (43.2)	21 (56.8)	83	8.040	0.005*
Tourism Staff	1 (2.2)	45 (97.8)	0 (0.0)	37 (100.0)	83	0.814	1.00b

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher). A 'b' denotes where a Fisher's exact test was used instead of a chi square test. Row percentages are shown in parentheses.

4.4 Descriptive Analysis

The following section (4.4) provides a description of each survey question and the responses provided by participants. The results for independent variables (gender, age, residency and prior visits to Cuba) are described first and are followed by a description of the dependent variables. The survey questions were divided into questions relating to demographics and expertise on Cuba (whether the participants had been before and the level of interaction they had with Cuban people) and the knowledge of, and prevalence of, gifting. The knowledge and understanding gained through descriptive analysis will allow for further deductions and hypotheses in the inferential analysis.

4.4.1 Demographic Characteristics and Cuban Expertise of Survey Respondents

The first section of the survey consisted of demographic information and prior travel habits of tourists in relation to Cuba. The survey respondents consisted of more females than males. Sixty-five percent of respondents were female, while only 35% were male, denoting a 30% difference. With a high response rate, this difference in gender is assumed to represent the tourist population in the two sample locations in Cuba. Observations done while conducting the surveys showed that more females traveled in groups than males, which would yield a higher number of female participants. Also, it was noted that when a couple (male and female) were approached to complete a survey, it was more common for the female to answer the questions than the male. Women were more likely to respond to questions than men, which would also explain the difference between males and females in regards to survey participation.

Respondents were asked to indicate into which age category they belonged. The results of this question indicated that 27.4% of respondents were between 18-25 years of age, 25.5% were

26-35 years of age, 17.2% were 36-45 years of age, 14.6% were 46-55 years of age, 14.0% were 56-65 years of age and 1.3% were over 65. The age category distributions are shown in Figure 2.

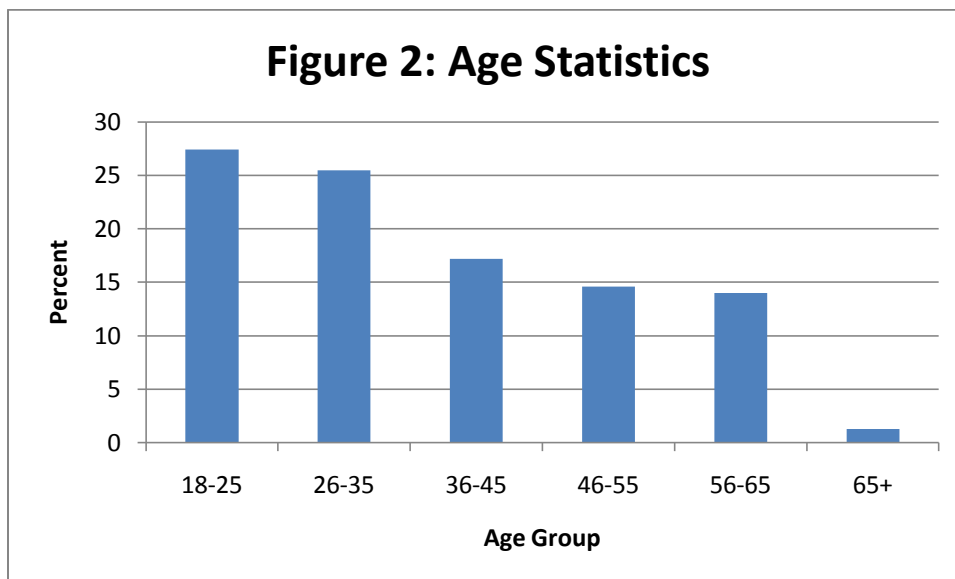


Table 6 shows the breakdown of participants' residencies. The residency of participants indicated that 49.0% were Canadian, 40.8% were from the United Kingdom or Ireland and 10.2% were from other nations within Europe. These categories were used in further analysis to reveal the most statistically meaningful results.

Table 6: Country of Residence

Country	N	%
Canada	77	49.0
Total North America	77	49.0
England	55	35.0
Scotland	1	0.6
Wales	4	2.5
Ireland	4	2.5
Total United Kingdom and Ireland	64	40.8
Netherlands	8	5.1
Germany	3	1.9
Norway	2	1.3
Poland	1	0.6
Israel	1	0.6
Austria	1	0.6
Total Europe	16	10.2
Total Respondents	157	100

The final part of the section inquired as to whether participants had been to Cuba before as well as how many times and to what parts of the island. Twenty-nine percent of respondents had been to Cuba before; with 70.7% indicating that they had never been prior to the current trip. Of the 29% who had been to Cuba before, 22% had been to Cuba 1-5 times previously, 4% had been 6-10 times previously and 3% had been 11 times or more (Table 7).

Table 7: Previous Visits to Cuba

Yes			No
1-5 times	6-10 times	11+times	
22.3%	3.8%	3.2%	70.7%

If the participants had been to Cuba before, they were asked to indicate where else in Cuba they had been. The cities that the participants indicated were divided into four groups geographically. Western Cuba included Varadero, Jibacoa and Playa D’Este. Eastern Cuba included Holguin, Guardalavaca and Santiago de Cuba. Central Cuba included Trinidad, Cienfuegos, Santa Clara, Cayo Santa Maria, Cayo Coco, Cayo Largo and Cayo Guillermo. Havana was placed in a category of its own because of the large number of participants who had been there. The different areas of Cuba that had been visited by participants were fairly equally visited, with Western Cuba being visited the least and Havana being visited the most (Table 8). About four percent of participants had been to Western Cuba on a previous trip, 7.0% had been to Eastern Cuba, 7.6% had been to Central Cuba and 8.3% had been to Havana.

Table 8: Locations Visited on Previous Visits to Cuba

	Western Cuba		Eastern Cuba		Central Cuba		Havana	
	Freq (%)	N	Freq (%)	N	Freq (%)	N	Freq (%)	N
Yes	4.5	7	7.0 11		7.6	12	8.3	13
No	24.8	39	22.3 35		21.7 34		21.0 33	
N/A	70.7 111		70.7 111		70.7 111		70.7 111	
Total	100 157		100 157		100 157		100 157	

Participants were asked to indicate the level and types of interaction they had with people in Cuba. The results of this are shown in Table 9. Eighty-seven percent of participants had had interaction with the local Cuban population and 13% of participants had not had any interaction at the time of the survey. Eighty-two percent of participants had interaction with hotel staff (including wait staff, maids, bar staff, entertainers etc.). Twenty-nine percent of

participants had interaction with non-tourism staff, such as Cuban people on the public beaches, in cities or markets and on local busses. Sixteen percent of participants had interaction with tourism staff, including tour bus drivers, tour guides and tour company representatives.

Table 9: Interaction With Local Cuban Population

	Interaction		With Hotel Staff		With Non-Tourism Staff		With Tourism Staff	
	Freq (%)	N	Freq (%)	N	Freq (%)	N	Freq (%)	N
Yes	87.3	137	81.5	128	28.7	45	15.9	25
No	12.7	20	5.7	9	58.6	92	71.3	112
N/A	0	0	12.7	20	12.7	20	12.7	20
Total	100	157	100	157	100	157	100	157

4.4.2 Knowledge of Gifting and Prevalence of Bringing Gifts

This section of the survey asked tourists to indicate their knowledge of the gifting practice and to state their level of participation in bringing gifts.

The first question of the section asked participants to indicate whether they had heard of the practice of tourists bringing gifts to local Cuban people. Seventy-nine percent of participants had heard of the practice and 21% had not. Participants who had heard of gifting were then asked to indicate where they had heard about the practice (Table 10).

Table 10: Medium Through Which Gifting Was First Heard

Where Heard	Frequency (%)	N
Word of Mouth	70.1	110
Tourist Guide Book	3.2	5
Travel Agent	1.9	3
Saw it Happening	2.5	4
Website (TripAdvisor)	5.1	8
Website (Debbie's Caribbean)	0.6	1
Website (Unsure of Name)	7	11
Tour Operator on Day Trip	0.6	1
Television	0.6	1

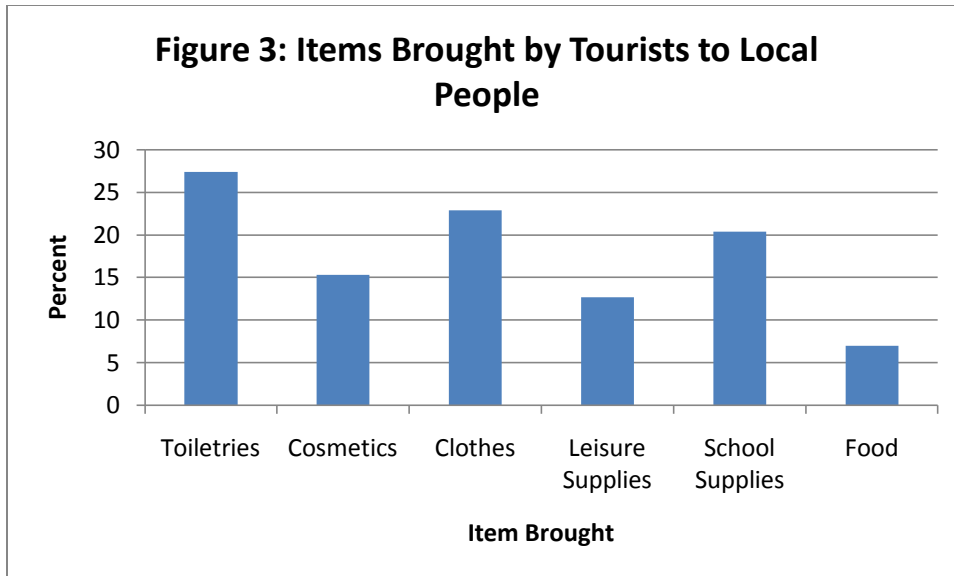
Of the various media through which gifting was heard, word of mouth was the most common with 70% of participants hearing about it in that way. Websites were the second most common. Seven percent of participants heard about gifting through a website (unable to recall which), 5% heard about it through TripAdvisor and 1% heard about it through Debbie's Caribbean. Three percent of participants read about gifting in a guide book and 2% heard about it from a travel agent. One percent heard about it through a tour operator on one of their day trips in Cuba and 3% saw it happening when they were in Cuba. The only other medium through which gifting was heard was television, with 1% of participants hearing about it through television.

The media through which gifting was heard of is consistent with the information provided through travel agent interviews. Agents noted that the majority of clients who asked them about bringing gifts had previously heard about gifting from somewhere else. The most common means for people to hear about gifting, as outlined by travel agents, were word of mouth from a friend or family member or through a website while researching their upcoming

trip. With 70.1% of tourists hearing about gifting through word of mouth and 12.6% hearing about it from a website of some sort, it is evident that travel agent interviews and surveys with tourists yielded similar results.

All participants were then asked to indicate whether or not they chose to bring gifts on their current trip to Cuba. The number of participants choosing to bring gifts was slightly higher than the number of participants who did not bring gifts. Fifty-three percent of participants indicated that they brought gifts and 47% said that they did not bring gifts. Participants who indicated that they chose to bring gifts were then asked to state what they brought. Participants who indicated that they did not bring gifts were asked to skip to the questions asking what they brought and who they gave gifts to.

Participants who did bring gifts brought a variety of material items to local Cuban people. The most common item brought was toiletries (including shampoo, soap, razors, feminine hygiene products, diapers and medicine) with 27% of participants bringing them. Clothes were the second most common item for a gift with 23% of participants bringing them. Twenty percent of participants brought school supplies and 15% brought cosmetics. Thirteen percent of participants brought leisure supplies, which included sporting goods, electronics, puzzles, souvenirs from Canada and toys. Seven percent of participants brought food items which included candy, gum and ketchup.



The types of items brought by tourists relates to the types of items recommended by travel agents. For the purpose of analyzing survey data in comparison to travel agent interviews, the items mentioned by travel agents were placed in the same categories as those used in the survey responses. Eight agents recommended bringing toiletries, two recommended clothing, four recommended leisure supplies and three recommended school supplies. Toiletries were the most common item for both travel agents to recommend and for tourists to bring. Clothing was recommended by two agents and was the second most common item for tourists to bring. Some agents mentioned more than one item and have been counted in more than one category. Three agents noted that they do not recommend anything in particular.

Even if travel agents are not influencing the majority of tourists, the information given by travel agents is similar to the data collected through surveys, showing that the information tourists have about gifting is consistent with the information travel agents give about the practice.

Of the gifts that were brought, the majority of them went to Cuban people working in hotels. Thirty-nine percent of participants gave their gifts to hotel workers of some sort (maids, wait staff, entertainers etc.). Fifteen percent of participants gave gifts to people outside of the tourism industry, such as people on beaches, in the market or in the cities. Only one participant (1%) gave their gifts to a tourism industry worker. This category included day trip bus drivers and organized tour guides.

The reasons for bringing gifts to local people in Cuba were broad (Table 11). Survey responses were categorized into five categories for bringing gifts, including it is “nice and/or easy to do”, “it is hard to get things in Cuba”, “Cuba is a poor country”, gifts were brought “as a thank-you for Cuban hospitality”, and gifts were brought simply because the “Cuban people appreciate them”. Following categorization, bringing gifts because it is “hard to get things in Cuba” was the most common with 23% of participants bringing gifts for that reason. Eighteen percent of participants brought gifts because they thought it was “nice and/or easy to do”. Fifteen percent of participants brought gifts because they saw “Cuba as a poor country”. Gifts were brought “as a thank-you to local Cuban people” by 5% of participants and were brought because “they are appreciated” by 5% of participants.

Table 11: Motivations For Bringing Gifts

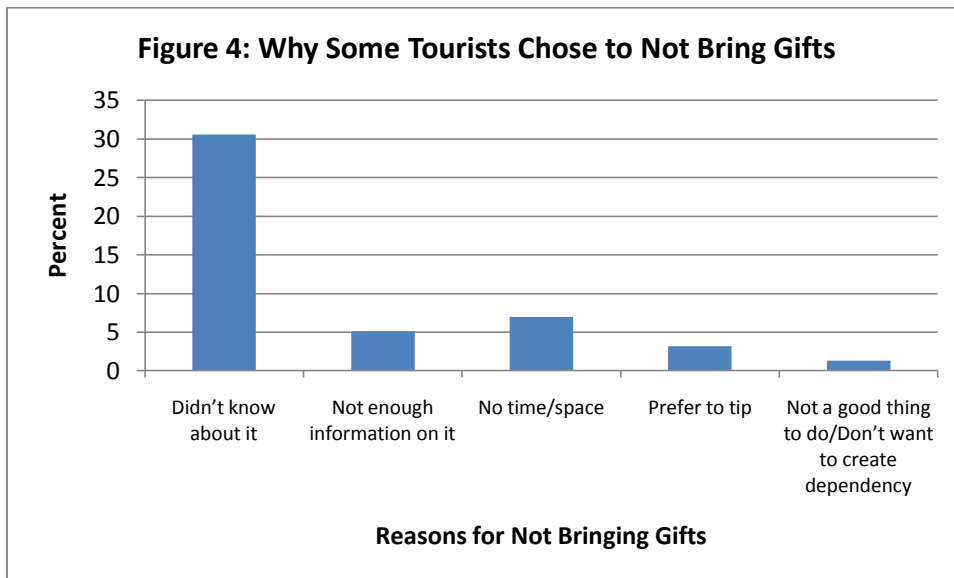
Why Gifts Brought	Frequency (%)	N
Nice/Easy to Do	17.8	28
Hard to Get Things in Cuba	22.9	36
Poor Country	15.3	24
As a thank-you	4.5	7
Gifts are Appreciated	5.1	8

Comparing the tourists' motivations for bringing gifts to Cuban people and the reasons travel agents recommend gifts to be brought also yielded some similarities. Recommending that clients bring gifts was common for the majority of travel agents. Eight agents noted that they do recommend bringing gifts, but only if the client asks about bringing gifts; they would not be the one to introduce the topic. Two agents said that they do not try to influence their clients and leave the decision to bring gifts to the discretion of the client. One agent responded that they are not allowed to suggest bringing gifts as a company policy.

Travel agents recommended or did not recommend gifting for various reasons. Three noted that the Cuban people are very friendly and appreciative of the gifts and would recommend bringing gifts for that reason. Fewer tourists noted this as a reason to bring gifts, with only 5% stating this. Similarly to tourists, three travel agents mentioned that clients find bringing gifts to be nice and easy to do and they recommend gifting because of the ease of the practice. Four agents linked bringing gifts to the fact that Cuba is under a trade embargo and it is difficult to get things there that are easy to get in Canada, making it the most common reason for travel agents to recommend gifting and for tourists to bring gifts. One mentioned that it could lead to better service and one had heard that Cuban people are not allowed to accept tips and recommended bringing gifts instead of tipping. These last two points noted by travel agents are not present in the tourist responses. Those agents who did not recommend bringing gifts did so because they did not feel it was their place to influence their clients in that regard.

Participants who chose not to bring gifts to Cuba were asked why they did not bring gifts (Figure 4). The majority of participants who did not bring gifts did not know about the practice

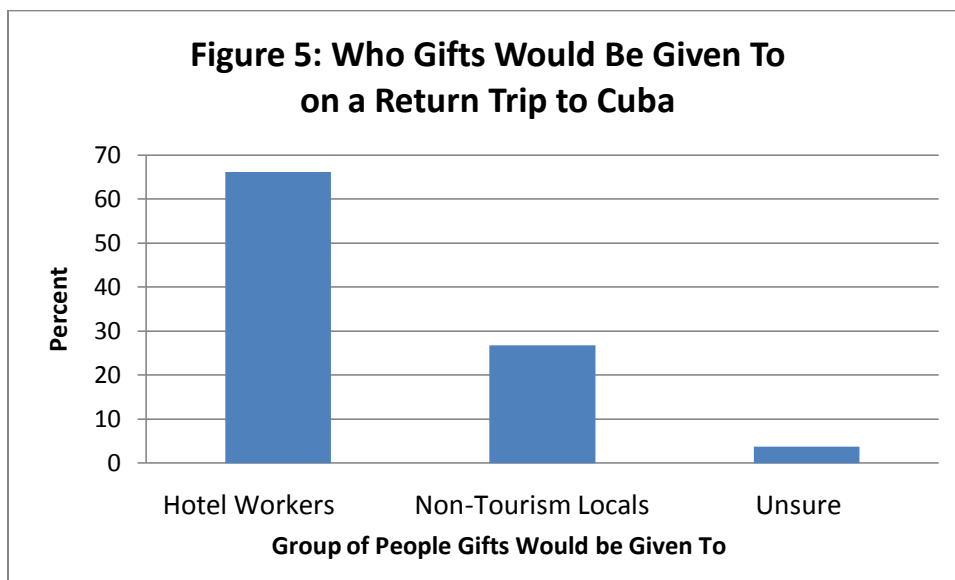
(31%). Other participants (5%) did not bring gifts because they felt they did not know enough about the practice to participate in it. Seven percent of participants knew about the practice but did not have enough time before departure to organize bringing gifts or did not have enough space in their suitcases to bring gifts. Three percent of participants preferred tipping to bringing gifts and 1% of participants felt that bringing gifts was not a good thing to do because they felt it would create a dependency on gifts from tourists.



Survey respondents were asked whether or not they would bring gifts if they came back to Cuba for another trip. Eighty-one percent of participants said that they would bring gifts on their next trip to Cuba with certainty. Ten percent of participants indicated that they would bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba if they had more information about the practice before their departure. Nine percent of participants said that they would not bring gifts if they returned to Cuba.

Participants who indicated that they would bring gifts to Cuban people if they came back to Cuba were asked to indicate who they would give their gifts to (Figure 5). Sixty-six percent of

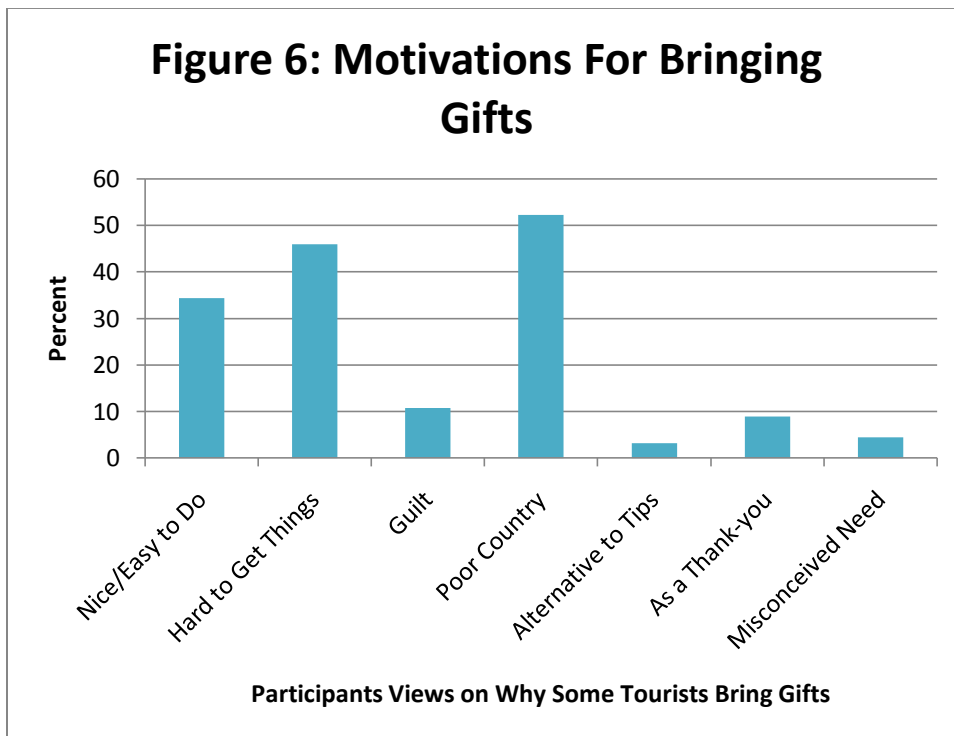
participants said that they would give the gifts to hotel workers. Twenty-seven percent of participants said that they would give gifts to people who do not work in the tourism industry such as people in the cities, on beaches or in the market. Four percent of participants were unsure as to whom they would choose to give their gifts.



Participants who indicated that they would not bring gifts to Cuban people if they came back to Cuba were asked to indicate why they would not bring gifts. One percent of participants said they would not bring gifts because they felt they would not have time before their departure or not have space in their suitcase. Five percent of participants said they would be more likely to tip Cuban people for their services and would not bring gifts. Three percent of participants indicated that they felt bringing gifts was not a good thing to do and felt that it might create a dependency on the gifts.

The final question asked all participants to indicate why they thought some tourists chose to bring gifts to local people in Cuba (Figure 6). The greatest number of tourists indicated that some tourists are likely to bring gifts because they believe Cuba to be a poor country (52%).

Forty-six percent of participants believed tourists bring gifts because it is hard to get things in Cuba. Thirty-four percent of participants thought that tourists brought gifts because it is a nice and/or easy thing to do. Eleven percent of participants indicated that guilt was a reason to bring gifts. Thanking locals for their services was believed to be a reason to bring gifts for 9% of participants. Five percent of participants believed that a misconceived need for things was the reason some tourists brought gifts and 3% of participants thought that bringing gifts was a good alternative to tipping.



Agents were asked to state what they believe motivated tourists to inquire about gifting. Eight agents mentioned the fact that clients hear about gifting through word of mouth or another medium and want to get more information about it from someone who is knowledgeable in the tourism field. Four agents also noted that Cuba is a poor country and people inquire about

gifting because they want to do something to help alleviate the poverty there. One agent also mentioned the potential for better service if a gift is given and that clients want to know more about gifting so they can ensure the best service possible on their visit.

4.4.3 Summary of Descriptive Results

An overview of the descriptive results indicate that a large portion of tourists have heard about the practice of bringing gifts to local Cuban people even though a minority of tourists have been to Cuba before. It is evident that many tourists hear about the practice through word of mouth. Approximately half of tourists chose to bring gifts to people in Cuba even if it was their first time visiting the country. Toiletries, clothes and school supplies were common items to bring as gifts and, not surprisingly, hotel staff were the most likely recipients of the gifts.

Reviewing the number of tourists who would bring gifts on a return visit to Cuba indicates that most tourists believe that the practice is a good thing with people wanting to bring gifts because they see Cuba as a poor country where material items are difficult to obtain.

The basic summarization of descriptive results would indicate that tourists are philanthropic in nature and believe that giving gifts to Cuban people is beneficial to Cuba. It is, however, imperative to understand how the demographics of tourists impacts their decisions to bring gifts, what they bring, who they give them to and why they decide to bring them, or not. Inferential analyses will enable a stronger understanding of the gifting practice.

4.5 Inferential Analysis

The descriptive analysis of results has shown the frequencies of various survey responses. The inferential analysis will demonstrate how the variables relate to one another using cross tabulations and chi-square tests. A 95% confidence level is used to show the relationships, if any, between independent and dependent variables.

Some of the variables from the survey responses yielded a count of less than 5 per cell when conducting the Chi-square test, yielding a result that was suspect and, therefore, invalid. This generally happened when only one participant had responded in the same way as another or one response within a variable had an overwhelming number of responses. In order to develop results that were statistically relevant, some categories were merged together to ensure a count of 5 or more. The categories that were collapsed into fewer answers were based on rationalizations and an effort was made to keep as much of the original survey details and responses as possible. The modified possible responses for dependent and independent variables are provided in Table 12.

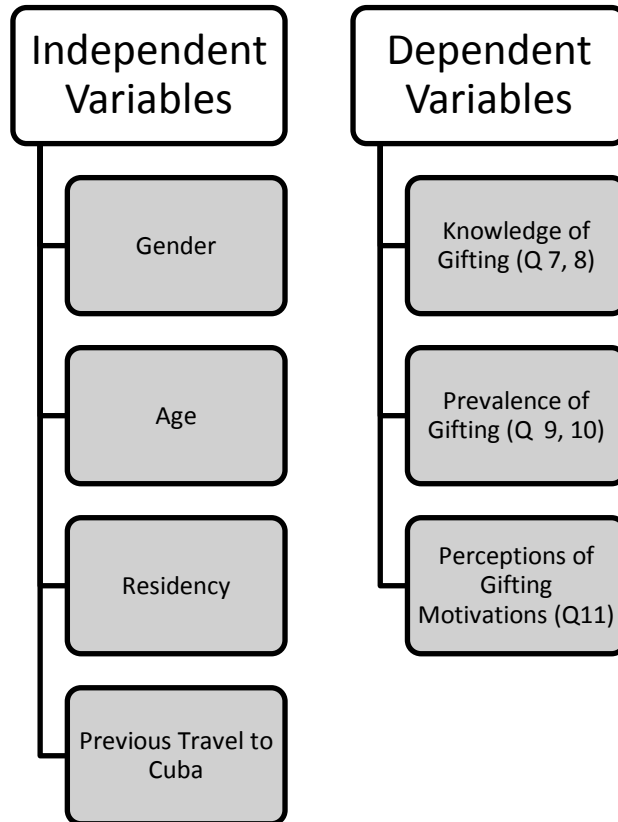
Table 12: Modified Dependent and Independent Variables for Inferential Analysis

Survey Question Number	Variable	Number of Categories of Response	Category Descriptions
Independent Variables			
2	Age	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 18-25 • 26-35 • 36-45 • 46+
4	Residency	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Canada • UK and Europe
Dependent Variables			
8a	Where Heard About	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Word of Mouth

	Bringing Gifts		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism Industry (Tour Operator, Travel Agent, Guide Book) • Website (Any) • Other (Saw it Happening/Saw it on TV)
9a _{ii}	Who Gifts Were Given To	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hotel and Tourism Staff • Non-Tourism Staff
9a _{iii}	Why Gifts Were Brought	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nice/Easy to Do • Hard to get things in Cuba • Poor Country • Other (includes As a Thank-you; and because they are appreciated)
9b	Reasons for Not Bringing Gifts	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Didn't know about it/Not Enough Information • Other (Includes No time/space, Prefer to Tip, Don't Think it's a Good Idea)
10b	On Return, Why Not Bring Gifts	2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prefer to Tip • Don't Think it's a Good Idea/No time or space
11	Perceptions on the Motivations for Tourists to Bring Gifts	4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nice/Easy to Do • Hard to get things in Cuba • Poor Country • Other (Includes Guilt, Alternative to Tips, As a thank-you and misconceived need)

Analyses were conducted using cross tabulations and Pearson's Chi-square test to examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Fisher's exact statistic was used when 2x2 tables had expected cell counts of less than 5. The analysis will be shown through how the dependent variables relate to the independent variables. The dependent variables have been divided into three categories for easier analysis. The categories of analysis are described in Figure 7.

Figure 7: Description of Independent and Dependent Variables for Inferential Analysis



4.5.1 Knowledge of Gifting

Tourists' knowledge of gifting was determined by the level of interaction they had with local Cuban people and if they had heard of the gifting practice. If they had had interaction with local Cuban people, they were asked to indicate with whom they had interaction. If they had heard of gifting, they were asked to indicate where they had heard of bringing gifts to local people. The results for the impact of independent variables on the interaction with locals are shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Chi-square Results for the Influence of the Independent Variables on Interaction With the Local Cuban Population

Independent Variable	N	χ^2	df	Sig
Gender	157	0.255	1	0.614
Age	157	6.149	3	0.360a
Residency	157	5.302	1	0.021*
Been Before	157	4.121	1	0.042*

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An 'a' indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid.¹

Residency and whether the participant had been to Cuba before were indicative of whether or not the participant had had interaction with the local population. Ninety-four percent of Canadian participants indicated having interaction with the local population while 81% of Europeans had had interaction with locals. Ninety-six percent of people who had been to Cuba on a previous trip had had interaction with the local population whereas 84% of people who had never been to Cuba before had had interaction. The significance of the relationships are deemed potentially less significant after the Bonferroni correction where the level of significance is 0.0125.

For participants who had interaction with locals, the type of people that participants had interaction with was also examined (Table 14).

¹ A Bonferroni correction has been conducted for all chi-square tests that have been conducted with multiple variables (gender, age, residency, been before). The Bonferroni test was conducted through using the overall level of significance used for chi-square testing (0.05) and dividing it by the number of groups being tested, which for this research is the above-mentioned four variables (gender, age, residency, been before). Therefore, the Bonferroni correction yields a significance level of 0.0125 (0.05/4). For Table 13, the Bonferroni correction indicates that no variables yield a significant result, though the relationship between residency and interaction with the local population is the most significant.

Table 14: Chi-square Results for the Influence of the Independent Variables on Interaction with Cuban People²

Independent Variable	N	x ²	df	Sig.
Who Participants Had Interaction With – Hotel Staff				
Gender	137	0.316	1	0.721b
Age	137	2.287	3	0.809a
Residency	137	6.635	1	0.013*b
Been Before	137	4.557	1	0.057b
Who Participants Had Interaction With – Non-Tourism Staff				
Gender	137	0.001	1	0.971
Age	137	3.980	3	0.280
Residency	137	1.490	1	0.222
Been Before	137	1.910	1	0.167
Who Participants Had Interaction With – Tourism Staff				
Gender	137	0.803	1	0.370
Age	137	1.356	3	0.726a
Residency	137	0.254	1	0.614
Been Before	137	0.238	1	0.626

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An ‘a’ indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid. A ‘b’ denotes where a Fisher’s exact test was used instead of a chi square test.

Residency is the only independent variable that yielded a statistically significant result for who participants had had interaction with in regards to the number of tourists who had interaction with hotel staff. Of the Canadian participants who had interaction with local people (n=72), 99% of the people noted having interaction with some form of hotel worker (maid, waitstaff, entertainers etc.). Eighty-eight percent of European participants had interaction with hotel staff and 12% indicated that they had not had any interaction with hotel staff at that point. This difference could indicate a difference between residency and the likelihood of participants from different residencies to interact with people working at the hotels. The difference could

² The Bonferroni correction for Table 14 indicates that no variables have a significant relationship to who tourists interact with within Cuban society.

also indicate that the participants from Europe had arrived at the hotel more recently than the Canadians and had not yet had the opportunity to have much interaction with the people working there. The residency of participants and the relationship to interaction with hotel staff is deemed less significant with the Bonferroni test, were the 0.013 significant is slightly higher than 0.0125.

The knowledge of gifting section also examines the relationship between independent variables and the medium through which participants heard of the gifting process. The first part of this section looks at whether or not independent variables have a factor in the participants' knowledge of the gifting practice (Table 15).

Table 15: Chi-square Results for the Influence of the Independent Variables on Whether or Not Prior Knowledge of the Gifting Practice Exists³

Independent Variable	N	x ²	Df	Sig
Gender	157	0.033	1	0.857
Age	157	11.224	3	0.019*
Residency	157	30.890	1	<0.001*
Been Before	157	13.919	1	<0.001*

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An 'a' indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid.

It is evident that age, residency and whether or not participants had been to Cuba before affected whether or not they have heard of the gifting practice. The cross-tabulation table for age is shown in Table 16.

³ The Bonferroni correction indicates that both residency and 'been before' have a significant relationship with prior knowledge of the gifting practice. The age variable is not significant with the Bonferroni correction.

Table 16: Individual Relationships Between Age and If Prior Knowledge of the Gifting Practice Exists

Age Group	Heard of Gifting		Total
	Yes	No	
18-25	37 (86.0)	6 (14.0)	43
26-35	27 (67.5)	13 (32.5)	40
36-45	18 (66.6)	9 (33.3)	27
46+	42 (89.4)	5 (10.6)	47
Total	124 (79.0)	33 (21.0)	157 (100.0)

Note: Row percentages are in parentheses.

The younger and older age groups were the most likely to have heard of the gifting practice with over 85% of both 18-25 year olds and participants over 46 knowing about gifting. Participants aged 26-45 were less likely to know about the gifting practice but the majority of participants still had knowledge of philanthropic gifting. The Bonferroni correction indicated that the age variable is less significant. It is higher than the level of significant needed to be considered a significant relationship with Bonferroni.

With respect to residency, there was a large difference between Canadians knowing about gifting and Europeans. Ninety-seven percent of Canadian participants had heard of the gifting practice, with only 3% not knowing about it. Of the participants from the United Kingdom and Europe, 61% of participants had heard of the gifting practice. This shows the importance that residency plays in this category. The discussion of philanthropic gifting in everyday life in Canada, but not as often in Europe, suggests that there is a difference in residency and that residency has a large role on the knowledge of the gifting practice.

Whether the participant had been to Cuba before was also relevant. Of the participants who had been before (N=46), 98% of them had heard about tourists bringing gifts to local people. Of the participants who had not been to Cuba before, 71% of them knew about the gifting practice and 29% had not heard about it before. The knowledge of gifting is understandably higher in participants who had been to Cuba before. These individuals would be more likely to hear about it on their trip and also would have the chance to see it happening and inquire about it. The group of participants who had heard of gifting (N=124) were asked to indicate where they had first heard about it. Where they had heard of gifting was compared to the independent variables to elicit any statistically significant results (Table 17).

Table 17: Chi-square Results for the Influence of the Independent Variables on Where Participants Heard of the Gifting Practice⁴

Independent Variable	Where Heard of Gifting	N	x ²	Df	Sig.
Gender	Word of Mouth	124	0.260	1	0.769b
	Tourism Industry	124	1.857	1	0.260b
	Website	124	1.122	1	0.290
	Other	124	0.065	1	1.000b
Age	Word of Mouth	124	7.258	3	0.448a
	Tourism Industry	124	2.336	3	0.570a
	Website	124	7.374	3	0.341a
	Other	124	3.981	3	0.801a
Residency	Word of Mouth	124	18.787	1	<0.001*
	Tourism Industry	124	4.505	1	0.057b
	Website	124	1.097	1	0.295
	Other	124	0.830	1	0.647b
Been Before	Word of Mouth	124	3.305	1	0.069
	Tourism Industry	124	0.005	1	1.000b
	Website	124	2.737	1	0.098
	Other	124	1.267	1	0.352b

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An 'a' indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid. A 'b' denotes where a Fisher's exact test was used instead of a chi square test.

⁴ The Bonferroni correction indicates that the relationship between residency and hearing of gifting through word of mouth is significant.

Only one response showed a statistically significant relationship. Residency had an influence on participants having heard about gifting through word of mouth. Ninety-nine percent of Canadian respondents had heard about gifting through word of mouth whereas only 74% of participants from the United Kingdom and Europe had heard of it through word of mouth. This relationship fits with the number of Canadians who know of the gifting practice compared to participants from the United Kingdom and Europe. It is likely that Canadians are more apt to discuss the gifting practice with friends or family and knowledge of the gifting practice spreads through this means. Even as a researcher going to Cuba, noting plans to travel to Cuba to friends, co-workers and employees at volunteer positions, many people would suggest material items that Cubans like getting and encouraged bringing these items to them. Thus, a discussion of the gifting practice in Canadian society is not unusual. Though European locations were not studied in regards to how often people discuss gifting in everyday conversation, the findings suggest that Canadians discuss it quite often because of the level to which people know about the gifting practice through conversations with friends or family in Canada.

4.5.2 Prevalence of Gifting

The second category for analysis includes questions 9 and 10, as well as their subsections. Following in order with the survey questions, the first dependent variable analysed was if participants brought gifts or not on their current trip to Cuba. The results of the Chi-square test are outlined in Table 18.

Table 18: Chi-square Results for the Influence of the Independent Variables on If Gifts were Brought to Cuba⁵

Independent Variable	Were Gifts Brought to Cuba			
	N	χ^2	df	Sig.
Gender	157	4.147	1	0.042*
Age	157	15.038	1	0.002*
Residency	157	42.121	3	<0.001*
Previous Travel to Cuba	157	34.338	1	<0.001*

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance)

There were significant relationships found between nearly all of the independent variables and the decision to bring gifts to local Cuban people in the chi-square test. The Bonferroni correction indicates that gender is not a significant factor since the significance level is too high for this variable. The cross-tabulation table for the independent variables is displayed in Table 19. Women were more likely to bring gifts to local people than men, with 59% of women indicating that they brought gifts and 42% of men stating they brought gifts. In regards to age, 26-35 year olds were the least likely to bring gifts (30.0%) and 46-55 year olds were the most likely to bring gifts (74%). The 46+ age group was the second most likely age to bring gifts (67%), followed by 18-25 (58%) and 36-45 (48%). Canadians were overwhelmingly the most likely to bring gifts compared to any other nation surveyed, with 79% of Canadian participants indicating that they brought gifts. Twenty-eight percent of Europeans brought gifts to local people. Also, many more people who had been to Cuba before brought gifts (89%) in comparison to people who had not been to Cuba before (38%).

⁵ The Bonferroni correction shows that age, residency and ‘been before’ are significant factors in whether or not gifts were brought to Cuba.

Table 19: Individual Relationships Between Independent Variables (Gender, Age, Residency and Prior Visits to Cuba) and Whether or Not Gifts were Brought

Independent Variable	Were Gifts Brought		
	Yes	No	Total
Gender			
Male	23 (41.8)	32 (58.2)	55
Female	60 (58.8)	42 (41.2)	102
Total Gender	83 (52.9)	74 (47.1)	157
Age			
18-25	25 (58.1)	18 (49.1)	43
26-35	12 (30.0)	28 (70.0)	40
36-45	13 (48.1)	14 (51.9)	27
46+	33 (70.2)	14 (29.8)	47
Total Age	83 (52.9)	74 (47.1)	157
Residency			
Canada	61 (79.2)	16 (20.8)	77
United Kingdom and Europe	22 (27.5)	58 (72.5)	80
Total Residency	83 (52.9)	74 (47.1)	157
Been to Cuba Before			
Yes	41 (89.1)	5 (10.9)	46
No	42 (37.8)	69 (62.2)	111
Total Been Before	83 (52.9)	74 (47.1)	157

Note: Row percentages are in parentheses

The results of the cross tabulations indicate that the bringing of gifts is directly related to gender, age, residency and if the participant had been to Cuba before. More women than men brought gifts. More Canadians than Europeans chose to bring gifts, which relates to the number

of people from each nation who had heard of gifting. With more Canadians having knowledge of the practice, it is likely that more would bring gifts than Europeans since many did not know of the practice prior to their trip. More people who had been to Cuba before brought gifts compared to those who had not been to Cuba previously. This difference can be attributed to the fact that many of the tourists who had been to Cuba before had heard of the gifting practice and had the prior knowledge of the gifting practice. Repeat visitors are more likely to have relationships with Cuban people or a knowledge of the country from first-hand experiences and, thus, know what people like, what people need, or if they need anything at all. The age variable showed no real age group that was decidedly more likely to bring gifts, but participants in the category of 46+ were most likely to bring gifts, indicating that middle aged participants are more apt to bring gifts than those who are younger. Participants between the ages of 26 and 45 were the least likely to bring gifts and participants aged 18-25 were in between them and the middle aged persons. It is possible that more middle aged to elderly participants brought gifts because they were more likely to be able to afford it, whereas participants aged 18-25 were more apt to bring gifts because it was a fun experience. One participant in that age category noted that she and her friends made the gifting practice fun by laying out all of their clothing on their beds and having a group of hotel maids come in and each were allowed to choose an outfit (including a shirt, bottoms and a pair of shoes).

Next, participants were asked to indicate what they brought as gifts. This section only applied to participants who had brought gifts (N=83). Participants who had not brought gifts were asked to skip the next 3 questions and move on to the question asking why they did not bring

gifts. For the participants who did bring gifts, relationships between independent variables and what was brought are shown in Table 20.

Table 20: Chi square Test for What items were Brought as Gifts to Local Cuban People⁶

Independent Variable	What was Brought as Gifts	N	χ^2	df	Sig.
Gender	Toiletries	83	1.047	1	0.306
	Cosmetics	83	2.056	1	0.152
	Clothes	83	6.063	1	0.014*
	Food	83	0.575	1	0.719b
	Leisure Supplies	83	6.435	1	0.011*
	School Supplies	83	2.491	1	0.114
Age	Toiletries	83	5.525	3	0.265
	Cosmetics	83	1.629	3	0.670a
	Clothes	83	1.396	3	0.897
	Food	83	9.377	3	0.077a
	Leisure Supplies	83	8.560	3	0.365a
	School Supplies	83	11.239	3	0.015*a
Residency	Toiletries	83	4.791	1	0.029*
	Cosmetics	83	5.724	1	0.017*
	Clothes	83	1.627	1	0.202
	Food	83	0.451	1	0.719b
	Leisure Supplies	83	1.791	1	0.181
	School Supplies	83	3.231	1	0.072
Been Before	Toiletries	83	0.111	1	0.739
	Cosmetics	83	1.079	1	0.299
	Clothes	83	3.490	1	0.062
	Food	83	2.761	1	0.097
	Leisure Supplies	83	4.474	1	0.034*
	School Supplies	83	0.006	1	0.415

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An 'a' indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid. A 'b' denotes where a Fisher's exact test was used instead of a chi square test.

There were statistically significant relationships between what was brought and the independent variables in five cases. Gender influenced participants' choice to bring clothes and leisure supplies, residency influenced participants choice to bring toiletries and cosmetics and whether or not the participant had been to Cuba before influenced their choice to bring leisure

⁶ The Bonferroni correction indicates that no variables are significant while relating independent variables to what items were brought to Cuban people.

supplies. These relationships are shown through row percentages in Table 21. The Bonferroni correction indicates that the only significant relationship between these variables is between gender and the bringing of leisure supplies.

Table 21: Individual Relationships Between Independent Variables (Gender, Age, Residency and Prior Visits to Cuba) and What Was Brought as Gifts

Independent Variable	What Brought: Clothes		
Gender	Yes	No	Total
Male	5 (21.7)	18 (78.3)	23 (100.0)
Female	31 (51.7)	29 (48.3)	60 (100.0)
Total Gender	36 (43.4)	47 (56.6)	83 (100.0)
	What Brought: Leisure supplies		
Gender	Yes	No	Total
Male	10 (43.5)	13 (56.5)	23 (100.0)
Female	10 (16.7)	50 (83.3)	60 (100.0)
Total Gender	20 (24.1)	63 (75.9)	83 (100.0)
Been Before	Yes	No	Total
Yes	14 (34.1)	27 (65.9)	41 (100.0)
No	6 (14.3)	36 (85.7)	42 (100.0)
Total Been Before	20 (24.1)	63 (75.9)	83 (100.0)
	What Brought: Toiletries		
Residency	Yes	No	Total
Canadian	36 (59.0)	25 (41.0)	61 (100.0)
UK and Europe	7 (31.8)	15 (68.2)	22 (100.0)
Total Residency	43 (51.8)	40 (48.2)	83 (100.0)
	What Brought: Cosmetics		
Residency	Yes	No	Total
Canadian	22 (36.1)	39 (63.9)	61 (100.0)
UK and Europe	2 (9.1)	20 (90.9)	22 (100.0)

Total Residency	24 (28.9)	29 (71.1)	83 (100.0)
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Note: Row percentages are shown in parentheses

Women were more likely to bring clothing as a gift (indicating a gender difference of 30%) whereas men were more likely to bring leisure supplies (indicating a gender difference of 27%). Participants who had been to Cuba before were also more likely to bring leisure supplies to Cuban people as a gift (34%) than participants who had never been to Cuba before (14%). More Canadians brought both toiletries (59%) and cosmetics (36%) to Cuban people than participants from the United Kingdom and Europe (32% and 9% respectively).

Participants who had brought gifts were then asked to specify who they gave their gifts to. The chi-square results for this question are shown in Table 22.

Table 22: Chi-square Test for Who Gifts were Given To

Independent Variable	Who Gifts Given To	N	χ^2	df	Sig.
Gender	Hotel/Tourism Staff	83	0.214	1	0.644
	Non-Tourism Staff	83	0.566	1	0.452
Age	Hotel/Tourism Staff	83	14.200	3	0.022*a
	Non-Tourism Staff	83	19.753	3	0.001*a
Residency	Hotel/Tourism Staff	83	0.062	1	0.804
	Non-Tourism Staff	83	0.003	1	0.957
Been Before	Hotel/Tourism Staff	83	1.759	1	0.185
	Non-Tourism Staff	83	1.675	1	0.196

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An 'a' indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid.

Table 22 shows that none of the independent variables (gender, age, residency, been before) have a significant impact on who gifts are given to in Cuba, if participants choose to bring them. Even though the age category shows a chi-square result of less than 0.05, too many cells had less than the minimum number of five and the results are not statistically valid.

Participants who brought gifts were also asked to indicate their motivations for bringing gifts. Varying responses existed and are demonstrated in Table 23 with chi-square tests.

Table 23: Chi-square Test for Why Participants Brought Gifts

Independent Variable	Why Gifts were Brought	N	χ^2	df	Sig.
Gender	Nice/Easy To Do	83	2.048	1	0.152
	Hard to Get Things in Cuba	83	6.181	1	0.013*
	Poor Country	83	0.124	1	0.725
	Other	83	1.889	1	0.216b
Age	Nice/Easy To Do	83	2.257	3	0.674a
	Hard to Get Things in Cuba	83	4.600	3	0.225
	Poor Country	83	7.756	3	0.052a
	Other	83	2.964	3	0.421a
Residency	Nice/Easy To Do	83	1.839	1	0.175
	Hard to Get Things in Cuba	83	3.160	1	0.075
	Poor Country	83	3.984	1	0.046*
	Other	83	0.398	1	0.749b
Been Before	Nice/Easy To Do	83	0.294	1	0.587
	Hard to Get Things in Cuba	83	0.624	1	0.430
	Poor Country	83	0.172	1	0.679
	Other	83	0.113	1	0.736

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An 'a' indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid. A 'b' denotes where a Fisher's exact test was used instead of a chi square test.

Two of the categories were influenced by the independent variables. Gender yielded a statistically significant chi-square test for the response 'hard to get things in Cuba' and residency yielded a statistically significant chi-square test for the response 'poor country'. These relationships were, however, not deemed significant with the Bonferroni correction. These two responses will be further analysed with frequencies and cross tabulations. Males were more likely to bring gifts because they believed it was hard to get things in Cuba. Sixty-five percent of male participants who brought gifts responded this way whereas 35% of females believed it was hard to get things in Cuba and brought gifts for that reason. The

response, ‘poor country’ yielded a statistically significant result for residency with 23% of Canadians bringing gifts to Cuba because it was seen as a poor country and 46% of respondents from the United Kingdom and Europe bringing gifts for that reason.

The next question was only applicable to participants who did not bring gifts to Cuba so the participants who answered the preceding three questions were asked to skip it. Participants who did not bring gifts to Cuba were asked to indicate why they chose not to bring gifts. Multiple types of responses were but, as indicated in Table 11, they were grouped together to form two categories: “Didn’t know about it/not enough information” and “other”, which included “no time/space”, “prefer to tip” and “don’t think it’s a good idea”. The results for this question are shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Chi-square Results for Why Gifts Were Not Brought⁷

Independent Variable	Why Gifts Were Not Brought	N	x ²	df	Sig.
Gender	Didn’t know about it/not enough information	74	1.469	1	0.225
	Other	74	1.469	1	0.225
Age	Didn’t know about it/not enough information	74	1.178	3	0.789a
	Other	74	1.178	3	0.789a
Residency	Didn’t know about it/not enough information	74	16.162	1	<0.001*b
	Other	74	16.162	1	<0.001*b
Been Before	Didn’t know about it/not enough information	74	3.708	1	0.089b
	Other	74	3.708	1	0.089b

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An ‘a’ indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid. A ‘b’ denotes where a Fisher’s exact test was used instead of a chi square test.

The chi-square test showed that residency had an influence on why gifts were not brought to local people in Cuba. Of the European participants who did not bring gifts (n=58), 86% of them did not bring gifts because they had not heard of the gifting practice or did not have

⁷ The Bonferroni correction shows that the relationship between residency and both dependent variables is strong.

enough information about it to participate. The Canadians who responded to the question (n=16) and answered in this way were significantly less than European participants with only 38% of Canadians stating that they had not heard of gifting or did not have enough information about it. Canadians did not bring gifts for the reasons listed in the “other” category more than Europeans. Sixty-three percent of Canadians did not bring gifts because they “did not have time or space” in their suitcase, they “preferred to tip” or they felt that bringing gifts was “not a good thing to participate in”. Only 14% of Europeans responded to the question using those answers. The cross tabulations show that Europeans are more likely than Canadians to not bring gifts to Cuban people because they have not heard of the gifting practice. The greater number of European participants who had not heard of the gifting practice and, thus, did not bring gifts is understandable as it was indicated that only 61% of Europeans had heard of gifting compared to the 97% of Canadians who had heard of the gifting practice before arriving in Cuba.

All participants were asked whether or not they would bring gifts if they ever came back to Cuba. Chi-square tests were done to examine whether or not any of the independent variables influenced participants’ choice to bring gifts on a return visit (Table 25).

Table 25: Chi-square Test for Whether Participants Would Bring Gifts on a Return Trip to Cuba

Independent Variable	N	x ²	df	Sig.
Gender	157	12.467	1	0.002*a
Age	157	4.742	6	0.755a
Residency	157	5.626	1	0.060
Been Before	157	9.240	1	0.010*a

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An ‘a’ indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid.

None of the independent variables (gender, age, residency, been before) had a statistically significant impact on whether participants would bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba. With the smaller sample size of people who would not bring gifts on a return trip, the results for the chi-square test resulted in many instances where there were not enough cells with five or more to administer a valid result.

Participants who indicated that they would bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba were then asked to indicate to whom they would be most likely to give their gifts on a return visit. These results are shown in Table 26. There was a potential for participants to respond “unsure” because some participants indicated that they were not certain as to who they would give their gifts to if they came back to Cuba. Participants who indicated that they would not bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba were asked to skip the question asking who gifts would be given to and to answer the question asking them to indicate why they chose to not bring gifts. The results of this question are shown in Table 26.

Table 26: Chi-square Test for Who Gifts Would be Given to on a Return Visit to Cuba

Independent Variable	Who Gifts Would be Given To on a Return Visit	N	χ^2	df	Sig.
Gender	Hotel/Tourism staff	143	0.086	1	0.769
	Non-Tourism Staff	143	1.211	1	0.271
	Unsure	143	0.997	1	0.179b
Age	Hotel/Tourism staff	143	11.880	3	0.119
	Non-Tourism Staff	143	8.229	3	0.104
	Unsure	143	5.250	3	0.557a
Residency	Hotel/Tourism staff	143	0.617	1	0.432
	Non-Tourism Staff	143	0.042	1	0.837
	Unsure	143	0.003	1	1.000b
Been Before	Hotel/Tourism staff	143	0.048	1	0.826
	Non-Tourism Staff	143	0.957	1	0.328
	Unsure	143	0.690	1	1.000b

Note: An * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance). An ‘a’ indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum

number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid. A ‘b’ denotes where a Fisher’s exact test was used instead of a chi square test.

None of the variables yielded a significant result in differences in who gifts would be given to on a return trip to Cuba. Eighty-seven percent of participants aged 18-25 would give gifts to hotel/tourism staff, being the group with the highest number of people giving to people working for the tourism industry. Eighty-three percent of participants aged 46-55 would give to hotel/tourism staff followed by the 36-45 year old category at 71% and the 26-35 year old category at 66%. The age group least likely to give to hotel/tourism staff were 56+ participants, with only half of the participants in the category stating that they would give gifts to hotel/tourism staff on a return trip to Cuba.

Participants who had indicated that they would not bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba were asked to indicate why they would not. Responses were grouped into two categories: prefer to tip and other, which included no time before departure or no space in the suitcase and a belief that bringing gifts was not a good thing to do. Results are shown in Table 27.

Table 27: Chi-square Test for Why Tourists Would Not Bring Gifts on a Return Trip to Cuba

Independent Variable	Why No Gifts Brought on Return	N	x ²	df	Sig.
Gender	Prefer to Tip	14	5.60	1	0.070b
	Other	14	5.60	1	0.070b
Age	Prefer to Tip	14	2.533	3	0.469a
	Other	14	2.533	3	0.469a
Residency	Prefer to Tip	14	0.286	1	1.000b
	Other	14	0.286	1	1.000b
Been Before	Prefer to Tip	14	N/A		
	Other	14	N/A		

Note: A ‘a’ indicates a Chi-square test result where there were too many cells with the minimum number of 5, and where the results are, thus, invalid. A ‘b’ denotes where a Fisher’s exact test was used instead of a chi square test. N/A denotes a response where statistical testing was impossible due to a lack of varying responses.

The results of the chi square tests for why tourists would not bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba did not result in any statistically significant results. The ‘been before’ variable could not compute any statistical data because the ‘been before’ variable was a constant. No participants who had been to Cuba before stated that they would not bring gifts on return and, thus, the results for this test were not possible to compute. Overall, none of the variables had a role in why participants would not bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba.

4.5.3: Perceptions of Gifting Motivations

The final section, perceptions of gifting motivations, consisted of only one question. The final survey question asked participants to identify what they believed were the greatest motivations for tourists to bring gifts to local people (Table 28).

Table 28: Chi-square Test Results for Why Tourists Believe Some Choose to Bring Gifts to Local Cuban People⁸

Independent Variable	Why Participants Believe Some Tourists Bring Gifts	N	χ^2	df	Sig.
Gender	Nice/Easy to Do	157	1.055	1	0.304
	Hard to Get things	157	3.762	1	0.052
	Poor Country	157	0.834	1	0.361
	Other	157	0.874	1	0.350
Age	Nice/Easy to Do	157	4.752	3	0.211
	Hard to Get things	157	15.547	3	0.002*
	Poor Country	157	2.236	3	0.646
	Other	157	0.605	3	0.897
Residency	Nice/Easy to Do	157	2.303	1	0.129
	Hard to Get things	157	1.396	1	0.237
	Poor Country	157	6.896	1	0.009*

⁸ The Bonferroni correction shows that the relationships between age and ‘hard to get things’ and between residency and ‘poor country’ are significant.

	Other	157	1.505	1	0.220
Been Before	Nice/Easy to Do	157	0.452	1	0.501
	Hard to Get things	157	0.544	1	0.461
	Poor Country	157	0.506	1	0.477
	Other	157	2.433	1	0.119

Note: A * indicates a significant relationship between variables (95% or higher significance)

The Chi-square test indicated that only two responses were affected by a change in independent variable. The motivation ‘hard to get things’ was affected by the age of participants and Cuba being a poor country varied with residency. Cross tabulations for these two independent variables are shown in Tables 29 and 30.

Table 29: Individual Relationships between Age and the Motivation “Hard to Get Things”

Motivations for Tourists to Bring Gifts: Hard to get things in Cuba			
	Yes	No	Total
Age			
18-25	28 (65.1)	15 (34.9)	43
26-35	13 (32.5)	27 (67.5)	40
36-45	16 (59.3)	11 (40.7)	27
46-55	15 (31.9)	32 (68.1)	47
Total Age	72 (45.9)	85 (54.1)	157

Table 30: Individual Relationships between Residency and the Motivation “Poor Country”

Motivations for Tourists to Bring Gifts: Poor country			
	Yes	No	Total
Residency			
Canada	32 (41.6)	45 (58.4)	77
United Kingdom and Europe	50 (62.5)	30 (37.5)	80
Total Residency	82 (52.2)	75 (47.8)	157

Note: Row percentages are in parentheses

In the age category, the motivation of 'hard to get things' is most common for participants age 18-25 with 65% of participants in that age category listing it as a perceived motivation to bring gifts. Fifty-nine percent of 36-45 year olds believe tourists bring gifts because it is hard to get things in Cuba and 46+ year olds have the least number of participants who believe that is the reason people bring gifts, with 31.9% of the age category agreeing.

Residency plays a factor in whether or not tourists believe people bring gifts to local Cubans because they see it as a poor country. Canadians are the least likely to believe Cuba being a poor country factors into a tourists' decision to bring gifts with 42% of Canadians responding with the answer. Sixty three percent of tourists from the United Kingdom and Europe saw Cuba as a poor country being the reason for some people to bring gifts.

4.6 Other Analyses

Following the inferential analysis comparing the demographic information (independent variables) to the specific gifting questions (dependent variables), it was decided to examine some of the specific gifting questions and their relationships to one another. One question that would help to determine future gifting trends is to compare the number of participants who brought gifts on the trip when the survey was conducted and the number of participants who indicated that they would bring gifts on a return trip to Cuba. The chi-square test for this relationship yielded a value of 30.167 (df = 2) and a significance of <0.001. The number of people who would bring gifts on a return visit to Cuba was substantially higher than the number who brought gifts on the current visit (Table 31). Ninety eight percent of participants who brought gifts on their current trip would bring gifts again and 64% who did not bring gifts

on the current trip would bring gifts if they visited Cuba again. A total of 82% of participants would bring gifts if they visited Cuba again. Ten percent of participants would bring gifts if they obtained more information on the subject. This answer was most common for participants who had never been to Cuba before since many had never heard of the gifting practice before their arrival to Cuba.

Table 31: Individual Relationships between Bringing Gifts on the Current Visit and Bringing Gifts on a Return Visit

		Bring Gifts on Return			Total
		Yes	No	Yes, with more information	
Bring Gifts on Current Trip	Yes	81 (97.6)	1 (1.2)	1 (1.2)	83 (100.0)
	No	47 (63.5)	13 (17.6)	14 (18.9)	74 (100.0)
Total		128 (81.5)	14 (8.9)	15 (9.6)	157 (100.0)

Note: Row percentages are shown in parentheses.

This cross tabulation shows that the number of tourists likely to bring gifts to local Cuban people increases after a visit to Cuba. With 82% of participants indicating that they would bring gifts on a return visit, it shows that being in Cuba and learning more about the gifting practice and seeing Cuba first-hand has an impact on many people. The number of people who indicated that they would bring gifts is high, but cannot be taken as fact because of various factors that could impact the participants' decision to bring gifts in the future. Financial issues, time before departure, space in suitcases and other varying factors could influence a decision to bring gifts in the future. It is also possible that some of the participants thought they would respond in a way that would make them appear to be philanthropic in the eyes of the researcher and answered with a 'yes' because of this. Overall, however, the number of participants who are interested in the gifting practice and who would be interested in participating in it in the future increased with their current visit to Cuba.

An additional analysis was conducted to determine the relationship between gender, age and residency and whether or not participants had been to Cuba before. The gender of participants did not yield a statistically significant result with this analysis, but both residency and age did.

The residency of participants and its relationship to prior trips to Cuba was conducted to determine the level of prior knowledge about Cuba some participants might have and to see if residency had any impact on prior trips to Cuba. The results of the chi-square test showed that there is a relationship between residency and prior trips to Cuba. The chi-square value was 25.653, with a df of 1 and a significance value of <0.001. The cross tabulation of this result is shown in Table 32.

Table 32: Individual Relationships between Residency and Prior Trips to Cuba

		Been Before		Total
		Yes	No	
Residency	Canadian	37 (48.1)	40 (51.9)	77 (100.0)
	UK and Europe	9 (11.3)	71 (88.8)	80 (100.0)
Total		46 (29.3)	111 (70.7)	157 (100.0)

Note: Row percentages are shown in parentheses.

The cross tabulation of residency and prior trips to Cuba shows that Canadians are more common repeat visitors than participants from the United Kingdom or other parts of Europe. With close to half of Canadian respondents being repeat visitors and only 11% of European participants visiting Cuba for the second (or more) time, there is a clear difference in who returns to Cuba and relationship to residency. This result corresponds to various differences

within the survey in regards to residency. These points will be further discussed in Chapter 5: Discussion.

Similar to the test of residency, the age of participants and whether or not they had been to Cuba before yielded a significant result. This test was also conducted to determine possible prior knowledge of Cuba, and gifting, in regards to age. For this test, the chi-square value was 17.230 with a df of 3 and a significance value of 0.001. This result shows that the age of a participant was a factor in whether or not they had been to Cuba on a previous visit. The cross-tabulations for this test are shown in Table 33.

Table 33: Individual Relationships Between Age and Prior Trips to Cuba

		Been Before		Total
		Yes	No	
Age	18-25	14 (32.6)	29 (67.4)	43 (100)
	26-35	6 (15.0)	34 (85.0)	40 (100)
	36-45	3 (11.1)	24 (88.9)	27 (100)
	46+	23 (48.9)	24 (51.1)	47 (100)
	Total	46 (100)	111 (100)	157 (100)

Note: Row percentages are shown in parentheses.

The results of the cross-tabulation indicate that the age of participants also has an impact on prior trips to Cuba. Participants in the upper age ranges were the most common repeat visitors with exactly half of participants over 46 visiting for the second time. The middle age ranges (26-35 and 36-45) were the least common repeat visitors with 15 percent and 11 percent respectively. The younger population (aged 18-25) had 33 percent of participants visiting Cuba

for the second time or more. These results could relate to financial capabilities as well as level of satisfaction with the trip to Cuba.

4.7 Summary of Main Findings

This section will examine the main findings of the interview and survey data and discuss any relationships between variables. It is divided into the same two sections as the survey and interview analysis: knowledge of the gifting practice and prevalence of gifting.

4.7.1 Knowledge of Gifting Practice

- The knowledge of the gifting practice for travel agents was, understandably, higher than for tourists. All travel agents had heard of the gifting practice as it is necessary for them to stay on top of what is going on in their field. Just over three quarters of the tourist population had heard of the gifting practice at the time of the survey with only 21% not knowing about it.
- More tourists who had been to Cuba before had heard of the gifting practice than those who had never been to Cuba. More Canadians (97%) than Europeans or participants from the United Kingdom and Ireland (74%) had heard of gifting.
- Word of mouth was, overwhelmingly, the most likely medium through which tourists heard of the gifting practice. Seventy percent of tourists heard of gifting in this way. Not surprisingly, through a website (including TripAdvisor and Debbie's Caribbean) was the second most common way of learning about gifting. Thirteen percent of tourists heard of gifting in this way. The internet is becoming ever more popular for

booking and choosing vacation spots, so it is not surprising that researching vacation destinations and what to bring there is also done on the internet.

- The number of people hearing about gifting through a travel agent (2%) is related to the number of travel agents discussing gifting with clients. Of the travel agents interviewed (N=11), none would discuss the practice of gifting or recommend it to a client without the client inquiring about it first.

4.7.2 Prevalence of Gifting

The prevalence of gifting section will discuss the main finding that exist for who bring gifts, what is brought and why. It also will examine if gifts would be brought on a return trip to Cuba.

- Interestingly, all independent variables (gender, age, residency and if the participant had been to Cuba before) had an impact on whether or not gifts were brought.
 - Females were more likely than males to bring gifts with 59% of females indicating that they brought gifts and 42% of males stating that they brought gifts.
 - Age category also played a role in whether or not gifts were brought. Forty-six to fifty-five year olds were the group who brought the most gifts with ages 56 and older as the second most common gift givers. This would indicate that middle aged to elderly people were most likely to give gifts to the local Cuban people. Participants aged 18-25 were the third most common age category who brought gifts.

- The residency of the participant also yielded a statistically significant result. Similarly to residency impacting the number of participants who had heard of gifting, more Canadians brought gifts than Europeans. Seventy-nine percent of Canadians brought gifts to local people and 28% of Europeans did. The difference between these groups reflects the difference in the number of people who had previously heard of gifting. With more Canadians knowing about the gifting process, it is only realistic that more Canadians would bring gifts.
- Not surprisingly, people who had been to Cuba before were more apt to bring gifts. This is likely to be because people who had been to Cuba on a previous visit had heard of the gifting practice.
- Toiletries were the most common item brought to Cuba as gifts, with clothes as the second most common item and school supplies as the third.
- Most gifts went to hotel workers (75%) instead of Cuban people working in the tourism industry as tour guides etc. or people who did not work with tourists at all (people on the beaches, in the markets or in cities)
- Reasons for bringing gifts varied, but the top three reasons tourists brought gifts to locals were because it was a nice/easy thing to do, because they saw Cuba as a poor country and because they believed that it is difficult to get things in Cuba (this answer also included responses mentioning the trade embargo)
- With approximately half of the participants not bringing gifts, they were asked why they did not bring gifts. The majority of tourists who did not bring gifts only did not because they had not heard of the gifting process before their arrival to Cuba.

- An overwhelming number of Europeans answered that they had not heard of the gifting practice compared to Canadians. Eighty-six percent of Europeans did not bring gifts because they had not heard of gifting whereas only 38% of Canadians who did not bring gifts had not heard about it. The difference between residency and the gifting practice is quite clear.
- The number of participants who would bring gifts on a return visit to Cuba shows how many participants who now know about it and saw the way Cuban people live, want to do something about it. Eighty-two percent of participants said they would bring gifts if they ever came back to Cuba and another 10% said that they would if they first received more information about it.
- Over half of participants believe people bring gifts to Cuban people because they see Cuba as a poor country. Just less than half thought people brought gifts because it is harder to get things in Cuba than it is in other places

5.0 Discussion and Conclusions

The practice of philanthropic gifting has not been properly defined, examined or understood within academic fields. This thesis has endeavoured to create a more clear understanding of philanthropic gifting by examining tourists' knowledge of the practice, the prevalence of gifting and to discover how it may affect Cuban life in order to fill a gap in the literature on the subject. However, examining the practice of philanthropic gifting and its implications on developing nations is not complete and more research needs to be done. In this section, the findings of this research are discussed, compared and contrasted to existing literature.

5.1 Academic Implications

Summary

Relationships between tourism, economic development and disparity in developing nations are well established. Some academics have begun to examine the relationship between these and forms of philanthropy such as volunteer tourism and the work of non-governmental organizations. Little has been done, however, to link tourism, development and disparity to philanthropic gifting. It is hoped that the research relating to prevalence, knowledge, economic implications and the gifting practice in general will spark an interest in continuing research in the area of philanthropic gifting and its social, economic and political implications on developing nations.

The practice of philanthropic gifting is rarely mentioned in the literature, and has never (to the knowledge of the researcher) been examined as a practice of its own. Mention of the practice has been made in passing by some academics (Mesa-Lago, 2005; Elliott & Neirotti,

2008; Cravatte & Chabloz, 2008), but only in regards to policy changes or implementations and in a brief discussion of how local people in Cuba obtain 'hard to get' items. The effect philanthropic gifting has on developing nations is unknown and the extent to which developing nations experience philanthropic gifting has not been studied. The overall lack of knowledge on where the practice occurs and how many people participate in it may be partially to blame for the lack of information on the topic. While it is briefly mentioned by some academics regarding their country of study, the prevalence of philanthropic gifting worldwide is not known.

The increasing level of tourist philanthropy through various aspects of tourism (volunteer tourism, NGO work, philanthropic gifting) indicates that philanthropy is an increasingly important aspect to travel. Though much of global travel exists within developed nations, some of the tourists who choose to visit developing nations are adding a philanthropic nature to their vacations. Though some vacations are philanthropically-based, such as volunteer tourist experiences, philanthropic gifting is an easy and, usually, cost-efficient way to incorporate a form of philanthropy into an otherwise personal vacation. The tourists surveyed in Cuba were all residing on all-inclusive resorts and were spending most of their time relaxing, whether on the beach or by the pool. With half of participants choosing to participate in philanthropic gifting, it is evident that the desire to interact and potentially aid the local people during their stay was important to them.

Knowledge of philanthropic gifting was an important factor in whether or not gifts were brought. More than three quarters of the tourist population surveyed indicated that, upon learning about the gifting practice, they would bring gifts if they ever chose to return to Cuba. The practice is quite clearly viewed as a good thing to do by tourists who are visiting Cuba and

the greater number of tourists who would bring gifts on a return trip (after learning about the practice) shows that knowing about gifting influences tourists to bring gifts and to participate in the practice.

The knowledge of gifting varied between countries of residence, however. While gifting is well discussed in both the travel industry and everyday life in Canada, Europeans do not discuss philanthropic gifting. The differing amount of knowledge has led to a divide in who brings gifts to Cuba. It is recommended that the travel industry in Europe, and especially travel agents and travel forums, are educated on the subject of philanthropic gifting. Though travel agents in Europe were not interviewed in this study and thus, their overall knowledge of the subject is unknown, it would be beneficial to inform the travel industry in Europe of philanthropic gifting to lessen the differences that have been seen in this study between Canada and Europe.

Giftng, Tourism Development, and Pro-Poor Tourism

The development of tourism in developing nations is not uniform and no model for tourism development fits all nations. The goal of promoting tourism, in most nations, is to create an industry that will yield a high economic value and create wealth for the nation. In developing nations, tourism is a good way to improve economic success because of the internationality of tourism and the dollars that will enter the nation because of it. The development of tourism, however, creates changes to a developing nations' architecture, landscape, environment and people (Crespo & Suddaby, 2000). Lumsdon and Swift (2001) discuss how tourism can bring governments of developing nations, focussed on creating a draw for tourists, to create so much development that eco-systems, heritage buildings, cultural and

social structures can be left aside and vulnerable to negative implications. The rapid development of tourism in some nations in the developing world has led to many negative implications on the nation itself. The tourists in the developing nation are less likely to notice the implications of tourism development because they are part of the tourism bubble that includes all-inclusive resorts and friendly locals who do not mention the changes that tourism has brought. The literature in recent years has begun to acknowledge the various negative implications that tourism has on people and societies of developing nations and, as a result, people in the tourism industry are working to create a solution that will create benefits for both tourists and locals.

In Cuba, one such form of solution is what Bailey (2008) describes as ‘cultural’ tourism. Cultural tourism is a means for tourists to experience the local culture of the developing nation they are visiting by being immersed in the culture. Bailey uses the area of Habana Vieja, Cuba, where native Cubans go to sell artefacts and Cuban souvenirs, as an example of cultural tourism. This type of tourism enables the tourist to go to a safe place where they can interact with local Cuban people in an atmosphere that is like true Cuban culture. This type of experience benefits the local people because they are able to sell their items for a good price and have a role to play in the tourism industry. The tourists feel good because they are able to experience a Cuba that is not within the gates of an all-inclusive resort by interacting with regular Cuban people and experiencing real Cuban culture. This form of tourism can also be related to gifting because the tourists have the opportunity to meet people who do not work in the hotels and these experiences enable tourists to give their gifts to people who may not receive gifts as often.

Pro-poor tourism is becoming an important form of tourism in the literature and is starting to be implemented throughout the world. Pro-poor tourism is another type of tourism that has developed because of the inequalities that the tourism industry has created in developing nations (Ashley, Roe & Goodwin, 2001). Pro-poor tourism acknowledges that the development of the tourism industry did not take into account the lives of the people of developing nations and is working to alter the tourism experience by focussing efforts on empowerment and livelihood improvement of the poor within developing nations. Pro-poor tourism, like cultural tourism, creates a win-win situation for tourists and local people of developing nations. Tourists are able to see how their dollars are going to support the local people of developing nations, not major enterprises that may or may not be run by the developing nation. They are also able to experience the developing nation in a new way, not solely through an all-inclusive resort setting. Locals benefit through their ability to participate in the tourism industry (African Pro-Poor Tourism Development Centre (2011)). The examples of pro-poor tourism around the world, such as employment opportunities and running tourism experiences such as tours, show that the local poor of developing nations are on the front-lines of the tourism industry and are conducting business in a new way that focuses on them.

The link between pro-poor tourism and philanthropic gifting is not mentioned in the literature, as of yet, but the similarities between these practices should be addressed. The goal of pro-poor tourism initiatives is, first and foremost, to focus tourism on benefitting the poor (Ashley, Roe & Goodwin, 2001). Philanthropic gifting has created a means for tourists to reach local people of Cuba directly, not through a corporation or even through a NGO. Like pro-poor tourism, philanthropic gifting has a focus on alleviating the poverty faced by people in developing nations. This study has shown that the motivations for tourists to bring gifts stems

from Cuba's reputation in the world as a poor country and its peoples' inability to access a wide range of basic goods. Philanthropic gifting is enabling tourists to reach out to the people of Cuba through the simple act of giving a gift and help Cuban people to have the ability to sustain themselves. Many pro-poor tourism initiatives work towards enabling people of developing nations to survive without the assistance of foreign groups.

The items that are now being shipped to the developing world because of tourist demand are causing the people of developing nations to see what goods they could have and creating a desire for these items. Cuba is a good example of how tourism has created an awareness of material items that exist in the developed world. With Cuba's history as a communist nation where everyone has access to the same types of goods, the development of tourism has enabled Cuban people to see the types of items that exist in the rest of the world. An example of an item not commonly available to Cuban people, but that tourists have access to and demand are televisions and video. Pertierra (2009) discusses how the sale of televisions and video equipment is not common in formal markets within Cuba and that, when the items are available, only those with access to foreign dollars are able to afford them. Though it is unlikely that a tourist would bring a television as a gift for a local person, some participants of this research noted that they brought DVD players and other electronic devices or media to give to people as gifts or to trade with people. Of the tourists who had been to Cuba before, some made friends with Cuban people and would bring them the specific items they requested on a return trip to Cuba. VHS or DVD videos are an example of something that could be brought by tourists because of their small size and relatively inexpensive nature. The presence of tourism has allowed for new items to be discovered by people of developing nations and gifting has created a way for these people to access these items.

Gifts and Tourist Philanthropy

Gifts as a form of tourist philanthropy is, for the most part, absent in the literature on tourist philanthropy. Though other forms of tourist philanthropy, most notably volunteer tourism and NGO work, have been greatly examined in the literature, philanthropic gifts has not been studied. This research has shown that philanthropic gifts has a large role in the field of tourist philanthropy. It has also shown that the social, economic and political implications of, as well as the motivations to participate in, the various forms of tourist philanthropy are related.

One of the social implications that is created through tourist philanthropy is the imparting of Western values on people of developing countries. The literature on volunteer tourism discusses the implications that volunteers can have on people of developing nations through the discussion of equality and social justice as well as reinforcing the gap between the developed and developing worlds (Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009). The gap between developed and developing worlds can be strengthened by 'othering' that can occur on a volunteer trip through a tourist showing the differences that exist between them and the local community. Philanthropic gifts can also be a display of othering. Though the tourist is likely not intentionally exacerbating the difference between them and the local population, the giving of a gift can show that the tourist has access to items that a local person of a developing nation would not. Interestingly, a NGO discussed in Cravatte and Chabloz (2008), has banned their participants from giving gifts to local people in the communities they serve. This NGO has indicated that the giving of gifts can display a superior status by the tourist. It disallowed the practice because the NGO's focus is on creating and promoting equal relationships between participants and local communities of developing nations.

Tourist philanthropy can also have a positive implication on cross-cultural understanding. Raymond and Hall (2008) examined the potential for volunteer tourism organizations to help improve the understanding between developed and developing worlds. They note that the promotion of cross-cultural understanding is the role of the volunteer tourism organization but that, if properly implemented, can facilitate stronger links between developed and developing countries. NGO work also strives to work with local communities of developing nations to improve the lives of the people there and also to help create links between the developed and developing worlds (Wearing, 2005). Philanthropic gifting is unique in regards to the issue of cross-cultural understanding. Both volunteer tourism and NGO work are filtered through organizations; philanthropic gifting is a decision by an individual tourist and is not regulated or overseen by any governing body. It is evident that volunteer tourism organizations and NGOs have worked to develop stronger cross-cultural understanding through training and preparations of participants, but philanthropic gifting practices have created cross-cultural understanding in a different way. Many tourists in this study indicated that gifts were brought to Cuba because Cuba is a poor country and that the people need the items because of their inability to obtain them otherwise. The understanding of Cuba's unique situation in the world came mainly from the word of mouth of tourists who had been there and the availability of information about Cuba on the internet. Word of mouth was a more prevalent means of knowledge of gifting, indicating that the ability to see the problems within Cuba and hear stories from Cuban people was an important factor in deciding to spread the word about gifting and the benefits it can have on Cuban people and their economy.

Tourist philanthropy has varying economic implications on developing nations. Much of tourist philanthropy strives to improve the overall social and economic livelihoods of people

in the developing world. Volunteer tourism initiatives tend to focus on infrastructure development that will aid in the economic success of a community (schools, roads etc.). NGO work spans a broad range of economic implications that tend to focus on projects and programs that will yield economic success in a developing nation through education and training (Kennedy, 2008). NGOs have a direct link to communities in developing nations and can ensure that the money they have to give goes to communities to help improve economic development. Philanthropic gifting is similar in that it is a direct exchange between persons from the developed and developing worlds, but it does differ in what is exchanged. While volunteer tourism and NGOs focus on the development of a large project that will have implications on the greater part of a community, philanthropic gifting has a much more individualized focus. The majority of tourists who bring gifts to developing nations do not bring items for an entire community - most tourists bring items to give to a few local people who they perceive to have deserved it or who are in great need of it. The economic implications of philanthropic gifting are not as broad as volunteer tourism or NGO work, but the ease of participation in philanthropic gifting has shown to be a key factor in how often it happens. The tourist also receives immediate gratification by seeing the delight of the person receiving the gift.

While volunteer tourism organizations and NGOs must organize funding, supplies, volunteers and create relationships with developing nations, tourists who participate in philanthropic gifting need only be visiting the nation while on vacation. Most tourists who participate in philanthropic gifting are not in the developing world on a philanthropic mission, they are there on vacation. The ease of participating in philanthropic gifting suggests that more people can participate in it as an aside to their vacation and, thus, the overall economic

implications of it are likely to be vast. Even though volunteer tourism projects and NGO work yield substantial improvements in the economies of developing nations through large projects, such as literacy programs and schools (Wearing, 2005; Topper, 2005), the small practice of giving a gift to an individual person in need should also be studied and taken into account when philanthropy is discussed in the developing world. This study has shown that philanthropic gifting is prevalent and the direct interaction between local and tourist enables the locals to receive items directly that they would have otherwise needed to go to great lengths to obtain. There is a clear difference between philanthropic gifting and other forms of tourist philanthropy that has just started to be uncovered. Unlike volunteer tourism, philanthropic gifting is not monitored by any organization and is solely a philanthropic decision made by individual tourists. This lack of organization makes philanthropic gifting more difficult to monitor and quite difficult to determine where it occurs without visiting developing nations and confirming its existence. Despite its inability to track, this research has shown that philanthropic gifting is likely to be a large factor in the economy of Cuba.

An interesting link between NGO work and philanthropic gifting is through the work of a NGO called 'Not Just Tourists.' This NGO works to enable doctors within Cuba to have medicine needed to help their patients. The organization delivers medicines donated to them by people in Canada to the people in Cuba through their own workers but also through tourists who are willing to participate. Tourists are invited to take a suitcase full of medicine that is packed by the NGO to distribute to doctors 'as a gift' to Cuban people (www.notjusttourists.org). The NGO states that the amount of donated medicines has surpassed the amount they, as an organization, are able to bring to Cuba. The NGO ensures that a suitcase is provided to the tourist for the supplies and also ensures that the amount of

medicine does not exceed legal limits. The role of the tourist is simply to deliver the suitcase. This form of tourist philanthropy incorporates both philanthropic gifting and NGO work.

The political implications of tourist philanthropy are not as well documented as the social and economic implications. Volunteer tourism and NGO work have not been shown to have large political implications on developing nations, likely because these forms of philanthropy are carried out by organizations that work with governments and communities of developing nations. Philanthropic gifting, however, is not moderated and discussed with the governments of developing nations. Though the political implications of philanthropic gifting have not been documented worldwide, the political implications of gifting in Cuba are clear. It was noted that in 2005, regulations were enacted by the Cuban government that restricted Cuban people from accepting gifts from tourists (Mesa-Lago, 2005; Taylor & McGlynn, 2009; Sixto, 2006). Though this policy did not come with explanation, this study has shown that gifting in Cuba is widespread and is having a large implication on the nation. It is likely that the law evolved from the fact that Cuba is a communist society where every person is supposed to have the same rights and be treated equally. Philanthropic gifting likely strengthens the societal differences between people working in the tourism industry and those working outside of it. The government has more of an ability to stop its people from accepting the gifts than from forcing tourists to not bring gifts and, thus, the policy was created to ensure the communist system within Cuba remains strong. This study has shown that, despite the restrictions, gifting in Cuba remains prevalent. As well, it is evident that the restrictions on accepting gifts are not stopping the Cuban people from graciously accepting the gifts tourists bring in order to obtain the items to which they would otherwise not have access. The Cuban policy on accepting gifts is not working and the possibilities for new policies that will benefit a

larger number of Cuban people exist. Instead of disallowing the acceptance of gifts, the Cuban government could establish a policy whereby hotels have a room or drop-box for gifts where tourists could deposit their gift or where gifts received could be brought. The gifts could then be distributed to a wider range of people in Cuban society to better aid the government's equality policy. Disallowing the acceptance of gifts is not preventing the disparity that the government is hoping to curtail; it is possible that allowing the acceptance of gifts through a managed system will dissolve disparities instead of exacerbating them.

The overall motivations for bringing gifts to people in Cuba were predominantly related to Cuba's status as a developing nation and also its special status as a nation with no trading ties to the United States. The number one reason for bringing gifts to Cuban people was because Cuba is a poor country, with slightly higher than half of the participants stating this. This implies that, had Cuba not been a poor nation, fewer or no gifts would have been brought at all. Since participants were able to select more than one reason for their motivations for gifting, the second most common reason for bringing gifts, with slightly less than half of participants agreeing, was that material items are hard to get in Cuba because of the US trade embargo that has been placed on the nation. The idea of tourists helping people in developing nations because they are less fortunate is not new. Scholars in the field of volunteer tourism have noted that many motivations for volunteer tourism involve the volunteer feeling that populations in developing nations are less fortunate than they are and they feel that if they can help combat various forms of poverty and poor living, they should do so (Simpson, 2004; Sin, 2009; Brown, 2005). The motivations for gifting in Cuba are similar. Many tourists who choose to give gifts did so because they saw Cuba as a poor nation and they felt they were able to help by providing something that Cuban people may not have otherwise been able to obtain.

The one difference within Cuba, compared to the majority of the world, is that Cuba is under a trade embargo by the United States (MacAulay, 1994), and the findings of this research showed that the embargo was one of the main reasons why tourists brought gifts to Cuban people.

5.2 Applied Implications

Summary

Tourism in Cuba is a booming industry that has only increased in size since tourists started to arrive in the nation once again after the fall of the Soviet Union. Tourism has had large implications on the nation and its people greatly and directly through employment, infrastructure improvements and economic successes. The indirect implications of tourism, such as philanthropic gifting, are less easy to examine but still have large implications on the nation.

Philanthropic gifting in Cuba and its political implications have already been noted with a policy from the government restricting Cuban people from accepting these gifts from tourists (Mesa-Lago, 2005). This policy, as has been shown by the research, has had little effect on the Cuban people. The study showed half of participants giving gifts to Cuban people. This indicates that Cuban people likely want or need the gifts and are either uninformed about the law restricting them from accepting gifts or disregard it. Whichever reason it is, Cuban people are evidently accepting of gifts and are happy to receive the items from tourists. Philanthropic gifting is likely an important aspect of the Cuban economy, as well as the black market. Despite efforts to restrict it, it has not diminished, and with the prevalence of gifting by tourists visiting Cuba shown in this study, it is not likely to stop anytime soon.

This study has shown that philanthropic gifting by tourists to local Cuban people has the potential for significant implications on the lives of people who receive the gifts. The study has also shown that the potential for disparity is greater with the giving of gifts. The economic divide between tourism employees and those who do not have any form of interaction with tourists could be widened. The access to tourist gifts not only enables tourism employees to receive items, but it also provides them with items to trade or sell on the black market. Elliott and Neirotti (2008) mention the growing black market in Cuba and its expansion with tourist dollars. They note that tourism workers have access to tips and hotel supplies to trade on the black market for other items they may need. The prevalence of gifts is not noted in the article, but one can assume that gifts also have the potential to be used as items to trade or sell on the black market.

Philanthropic gifting likely has substantial, yet largely unrecognized, implications on the economies of developing nations. Within Cuba, this study has shown that slightly more than half of tourists brought gifts to the local Cuban population. The economic implications of gifting as a whole can be seen when these results are applied to the entire tourist population within Cuba. In 2009, the Caribbean Tourism Organization lists Cuba's total tourist arrivals at 2,429,809 (CTO, 2009). Extrapolating from the data in this study and, using the CTO's data of total arrivals in 2009, the number of tourists who brought gifts to Cuba in 2009 would be 1,287,799. With the possibility of over one million tourists bringing gifts to Cuba, the possible economic implications of gifting are undoubtedly great. The possible implications on Cuba's economy are discussed in both positive and negative terms, and an overall evaluation of gifting on the economy of Cuba is discussed.

Positive Aspects

The numbers of gifts entering Cuba in a given year have been shown to be significant, and the possible implications of these gifts can have many positive implications economically. One of the positive implications of these gifts is the possible economic assistance and development that they can provide for Cuban people. The rationing system within Cuba does not allow for immediate access to the goods and services Cuban people need:

Food is rationed in Cuba, but the monthly government food rations last only about ten days. While fruits, vegetables, meat, and even lobster are available at farmers markets, most Cubans cannot afford them due to their high prices. The following are typical rations for one person per month:

Rice (*arroz*) 6 lbs.
Sausage (*chicaro*) 20
Refined sugar (*Azúcar refinado*) 3 lbs
Raw sugar (*A. crudo*) 2 lbs.
Salt (*Sal*) 3/4 lb.
Bath soap (*Jabón Baño*) 3/4 bar
Cooking oil (*aceita*) 1/2 lb.
Coffee (*café*) 20 oz.
Soup noodles (*fideos*) 8 oz.
Canned beef 8 oz./six months

Approximately all of a person's monthly rations can fit into two plastic bags (Roberg & Kuttruff, 2007: 787-8).

The list of rations shows that a person cannot survive very healthily without some form of supplementation. The gifts given by tourists to local people can undoubtedly have a tremendous implication on the lives and livelihoods of Cuban people. Receiving just one bottle of shampoo or one piece of clothing could enable the Cuban person to save their much-needed money for something else they may require. Gifts given to Cuban people allow for a greater economic independence of the individual Cuban person.

The types of rations people receive do not include all types of material items people would need for day-to-day life. For instance, clothing is not mentioned on the typical list of rations. Roberg and Kuttruff (2007) also note that,

[a]s with medical supplies, soap, toilet paper, and cleaning products are in very short supply for the average Cuban, if these items can be found at all. Clothes are extremely expensive; a pair of jeans can cost as much as 1,500 pesos or approximately \$60 (US) on the black market. This is much more than an average Cuban makes in a month. Moreover, socks and underwear have practically disappeared (Roberg & Kuttruff, 2007: 787).

The types of items that are in high demand within Cuba are noteworthy to relate to this study. For tourists, toiletries and clothing were the most common items that were brought to Cuba. Toiletries included shampoos, soaps, razors, feminine hygiene products, diapers and medicines. The items brought to Cuba by tourists indicate that tourists have a knowledge of what is needed most in Cuban society. Interviews with travel agents also noted that toiletries were the best item to bring if a tourist chose to bring gifts. It can be expected, therefore, that tourists have either discussed the need for certain items with local Cuban people or have researched what items are in high demand in Cuba and brought those items to help resolve the availability issue.

These possible positive implications of philanthropic gifting show that the practice creates considerable benefits for the people in Cuba who receive the gifts. The short supply and inability to purchase items that are considered basic necessities in the developed world creates a situation in Cuba where material goods are indispensable. Philanthropic gifting could be providing a means of obtaining these items and truly benefitting the people who receive gifts. The motivations for most tourists to bring gifts were to improve the lives of Cuban people because they are seen as poor by people of developed nations. A closer look at the potential for

improved livelihoods has shown that the intentions of tourists are likely leading to an easier life for the people in Cuba who receive gifts.

Ashley, Roe and Goodwin (2001) examine various pro-poor initiatives in the developing world that enable people to create their own livelihood and escape the poverty that the development of tourism can cause. Though philanthropic gifting does not place people of Cuba into jobs where they run a business or guide tours, philanthropic gifting enables Cuban people to have the potential to escape poverty through the receiving of items that they would otherwise have to purchase on their own. The rations that Cuban people receive on a monthly basis were discussed, and it was noted that the rations do not provide enough to survive without difficulty. Philanthropic gifting could enable the poor to have more control of the money they receive from employment or other means by providing items that they would have had to spend that money on. Philanthropic gifting is a means of empowering people in developing nations to have more financial freedom and helps to improve their economic situation. Like pro-poor tourism, philanthropic gifting creates a win-win situation for both tourists and locals. The local people are able to reap the benefits of increased access to goods and tourists are able to feel good about helping local economies of developing nations while enjoying a beachfront vacation.

Negative Aspects

One possible negative implication of philanthropic gifting is the inequality it can create within society. The inequality created can be on both a social and economic level. This research noted that seventy-five percent of participants gave their gifts to people working directly in the tourism industry. Other gift recipients were local people on the beaches, in

markets or in the cities, but these recipients were not as common. Receiving a gift from a tourist is likely to greatly implicate the lives of Cuban people. The inequality caused by gifting can occur in two ways: stratification between types of employment and stratification by region.

The inequality that exists between people employed in the tourism industry and those employed in other areas of the economy has been well documented. Scholars have noted the desire of local people of developing nations to work in the tourism industry because of its direct access to tourists, and tourist dollars (Cabezas, 2008; Lumsdon & Swift, 2001). The desire to work in the tourism industry is quite common in Cuba. Toro-Morn (2002) noted that a sizable degree of stratification exists between people who work in the tourism industry and those who do not, because of the access to tourist dollars that those employed in tourism have. This research has shown that it is not only access to tourist dollars that creates stratification within Cuban society; it is also the prevalence of gift-giving to employees of the tourism industry. The access to gifts that exists for tourism employees likely also acts as a draw for Cuban people to obtain employment in tourism.

The availability of goods discussed can also help to explain the large number of Cuban people who strive to work in tourism. Roberg and Kuttruff (2007) noted that many items were hard, if not impossible, to obtain even on the black market. The tourist population provides a potential source for these items, such as toiletries and clothing, and many Cuban people will strive to gain as much access as they can to tourists. When asked who gifts went to in Cuban society, maids and waitstaff were the most common recipients of gifts. These are the positions within a hotel that tourists are most likely to have interaction with on a daily basis and, thus, the most likely people tourists would become friends with and leave gifts with. These positions

are highly sought-after and have created a new social hierarchy. Tourism employees have the greatest access to wealth, even when compared to a typical high-power career in the developed world such as a doctor or lawyer (Taylor & McGlynn, 2009).

It has been shown that over half of the tourists sampled in this study bring gifts to local people during their stay. The amount of gifts entering Cuba on any given day is, therefore, quite large, and it is probable that those gifts are going to tourism workers. The giving of gifts to tourism employees is likely to further increase the stratification between tourism employees and those outside the tourism industry. Toro-Morn (2002) calls this disparity, in regards to access to tourist dollars, between types of employment an ‘unexpected new class of rich service workers’ and the access to gifts is undoubtedly making this class of workers even wealthier. The stratification between types of employment can be seen quite clearly in Cuba because of the communist system that still exists there. All people within society are deemed equal; all citizens receive the same rations of food and receive the same education possibilities and health care. The influx of tourism and the stratification that exists within Cuban society relative to access to tourists has enabled the disparity between tourism workers and others to become quite visible.

In attempting to combat the issue of tourist dollars in the Cuban economy, the government of Cuba has further divided the citizens of the country between those employed in tourism and those working in other industries. The access to tourist dollars through the form of a tip created a large influx of foreign currency in the Cuban economy. The government of Cuba needed a way to capture the tourist dollars that had been given to Cuban people so that the money did not go to the black market (Taylor & McGlynn, 2009). In an effort to obtain the hard currency, the government created retail outlets where citizens with tourist dollars could

spend their money and obtain items that were basically unobtainable otherwise. Taylor and McGlynn (2009) discuss how this creation of stores has actually widened the gap between those with access to tourists and those without because these stores house a “variety of foodstuffs, alcohol, cigarettes, televisions, cameras, electronics, toys, jewellery and other imported items at high prices and these items were available only in the dollar stores” (408). However, these stores are not accessible to all of the Cuban population. Only Cubans with access to tourists, and therefore, tourist dollars can use them, thus further creating disparity within society. Gift-giving in Cuban society, however, could enable the Cuban citizen to bypass the need to purchase an item. A direct gift, such as a toy or piece of clothing, goes directly into the hands of the Cuban person and they do not need to spend their money to obtain the item. They could also have the option to sell the item for further financial gain. This shows that gifting could be widening the gap between citizens with access to tourists and those without because of the direct access to items that gifting provides.

Disparity also exists within Cuba in the form of regional disparity. Not only are tourism workers given greater access to tourists, and tourist dollars and gifts, regions within Cuba that have a strong tourism industry are more likely to receive the benefits of tourism than regions that have little to no tourist visitors. Regional disparity because of tourism has been documented by case studies showing areas of tourism development having strong growth while other areas of the country, even surrounding towns, not seeing the same growth and development (Lumsdon & Swift, 2001; Zhang, Ding & Bao, 2008; Zoomers, 2008). The research conducted on philanthropic gifting supports the existing literature on regional stratification. As noted, the majority of gifts given to local people are received by tourism employees, but the remaining quarter of gifts are given to people in the market, on the beaches

or in towns that the tourists visit. Tourists who gave gifts to this second group of people promote the regional stratification that exists because of gifting. The markets and beaches that tourists visit were still within the same city as their resorts. Even though the tourist left their resort and gave a gift to a non-tourism employee, the gift was still given to a person living, or working, in an area of high tourism activity. Tourists who gave gifts to people in cities noted that the city was a place where they went on a day trip that was organized by their all-inclusive resort, most notably Holguin (close to Guardalavaca) or Havana (close to Varadero). Even though these tourists gave their gifts to non-tourism employees, the gifts went to people in towns where many day trips visit and many tourists not staying at all-inclusive resorts travel through daily.

Havana is a tourist hub and fits with the regional stratification of areas of high tourism development. Holguin is less of a tourist attraction, but many tourists visit the city with tours organized by tour operators and the people who receive gifts there have a much greater access to tourists than other parts of the country. Zhang, Ding and Bao's study (2008) showed that tourism development occurred in a small town in rural China and that the people living there experienced a growth in income. The people of neighbouring villages, however, did not experience the same type of growth because they did not have the same access to tourists. The same type of disparity exists in Cuba. Cuban people living in tourist hubs or areas where tourists visit frequently have a much greater access to tourists dollars and the gifts they bring than people living in rural Cuba.

Another way in which gifting has possible negative implications on the Cuban economy is through the black market, or informal economy. Because of the rationing system within Cuba, the availability of goods is not as great as other areas of the developing world.

Many Cuban people have been forced to turn to the black market to obtain the food and material items they need to survive. Elliott and Neirotti (2008) note that the poverty within Cuba that was created with the fall of the Soviet Bloc has led to a vast black market that Cuban people rely on for “food, household goods and medical supplies” (385). They also note that the money from tourism is a factor in fuelling this black market. Workers of the tourism industry have been known to steal items from their place of employment to sell on the black market for profit (Elliott and Neirotti, 2008). In knowing that Cuban people steal from their jobs in the tourism industry to have items to sell on the black market, it is likely that gifts from tourists also go to the black market. Thus, gifts given to Cuban people that are not kept by the person are likely helping to fuel the black market within Cuba since they have the potential to be sold or traded on the black market. Despite this fact that gifts can help to fuel the black market, it must be noted that the black market is quite prominent in Cuba and is more important than the official economy in some ways, such as getting basic supplies (Elliott and Neirotti, 2008). Gift-giving, in this case, is enabling Cuban people to have access to goods to which they would otherwise not have access.

Overall Economic Implications

The overall possible economic implications of philanthropic gifting on the economy of Cuba have been proven to be significant. The number of gifts entering Cuba can have tremendous implications on the lives and livelihoods of the people who receive the gifts. This thesis has suggested that gifting can cause negative economic implications such as disparity and increased illegal activities within Cuba. It has, however, also suggested that the gifts

received by Cuban people can go a long way to providing a better life for the people in Cuba. The sparse list of rations for Cuban people on a monthly basis illustrates the level to which people in Cuba depend on gifts and food or material items from a means other than through the Cuban government. Though gifting can cause and further strengthen disparity within Cuban society, it is also creating a means for Cuban people to access goods they would otherwise not have access to, or have access to but cannot afford. With a pair of jeans costing 60 US dollars on the black market, one can only imagine the difference receiving a pair of jeans as a gift would make in the life of a Cuban person. Their money could then go to purchasing food, medicine or other items that are needed for survival. The gifting practice could create a greater sense of independence for Cuban people and can also allow them to obtain items that are otherwise unobtainable.

The disparity that gifting can cause is an important aspect of gifting. Most tourists visiting Cuba reside in all-inclusive resorts and have limited interaction with Cuban people outside of their resort. Cuban people, especially in rural areas, have practically no access to tourists because the tourists do not visit their part of the island. The creation of a ‘tourist bubble’ has led to the disparity in who receives gifts that has been discussed. The issue of disparity is one that needs to be combated so that ideally the majority, if not all, of Cuban people can have access to and be able to receive gifts. In order to ensure gifting has positive implications on the majority of Cuban people, it is necessary to develop a means for gifts to be more widely distributed.

In many places in the world, in both the developed and developing world, organizations have been created to ensure that people of all economic and social levels receive the items they need to survive. These organizations tend to be government sponsored or run by non-profit

agencies that work to create equality. It has been noted that the Cuban government has banned Cuban people from accepting gifts from tourists. The policies of the Cuban government are communist and promote equality. With the Cuban government's policies in mind, philanthropic gifting can be both positive and negative for the government. Currently, the government is interpreting the implications of gifting as negative. Philanthropic gifting is creating increased inequality and a class of tourism workers who have better access to gifts than other people in Cuba. This researcher, however, sees the possibility for gifting to be positive for both the Cuban people and the Cuban government because of the potential for the economic and social development of all people in Cuba. It is true that gifting, can and has, created a strengthened disparity in Cuban society, but if gifts were channelled through an organization or agency that strives to distribute gifts to all of Cuban society, the opportunity for a wealthier and healthier Cuba exists. The extrapolation of this study's results to the tourist arrivals in Cuba in 2009 inferred that over one million people would bring gifts to Cuba in a year. If all of the gifts these people brought were distributed to people across the country and not just in the tourist-rich areas, the benefits for people would be great. The Cuban government strives for an equal society and if gifting was channelled through an organization to distribute gifts to more of Cuban society, equality could be preserved and Cuban people would have access to more of the goods that they need and desire.

Overall, philanthropic gifting is likely having largely positive implications on the people in Cuba who receive gifts. The major negative implication of gifting is the possible disparity and inequality created between people in the tourism industry and those outside of it. The potential for philanthropic gifting to have an even more substantial positive implication on Cuban people and the economy within Cuba is great. Organizations have enabled the local

people of countries around the world to have access to goods, and the potential for Cuban people to have the same access to goods exists. A push towards making philanthropic gifting recognized as a positive practice by the Cuban government is needed to ensure that gifting can reach the local people in Cuba who otherwise cannot access tourists and their gifts.

The disparity that philanthropic gifting is likely creating is an important point to note. The inequalities that philanthropic gifting is possibly causing in Cuban society need to be addressed in order to overcome the issue. It is recommended that potential solutions be examined to enable gifts from tourists to reach more members of society. An organization could be created that people who accepted gifts could go to and deliver gifts to be distributed to the Cuban society on a broader level. The clear disadvantage to this is that Cuban people who accept gifts may decide to keep them for themselves and not register the gifts with the organization. Another option could be for tourists to deliver gifts to a certain place in a resort or in the marketplace where they could be certain their gifts would go to a wider range of Cuban people, not just tourism employees. Churches or schools could be potential drop-off places since they would have access to a larger part of society. The issue with organizing a gift-distribution centre comes when looking at Cuba's situation and its government controls. The Cuban government disapproves of accepting gifts, and would likely be unsupportive of this type of organization. It has been assumed that the Cuban government has a policy against accepting gifts because of the inequality it causes in society. An organization such as this could be a solution to this problem for the government. If there are organizations that will ensure gifts go to people throughout society, including those in rural areas of Cuba, perhaps the government of Cuba would approve of gifting because there could be assurance that all citizens

are receiving gifts. This type of organization would also create reassurance for tourists that their gifts are going to those who truly need them

5.3 Recommendations for Further Research

Further research is warranted to examine the role of gifts on Cuban society from the perspective of local Cuban people. This form of research may examine how Cuban people perceive gifting and if they feel that it results in disparity. It would be recommended that Cuban towns that are both in a prominent tourist area and outside of the typical tourism area be visited to determine the differences, if any, that exist because of philanthropic gifting. It would also be important to determine the level to which Cuban people are familiar with the restrictions placed on them in regards to accepting gifts from tourists. This thesis is a start to looking at the practice of philanthropic gifting as a whole.

While this thesis has examined the prevalence of gifting within resort areas in Cuba, further research should be done to determine how these gifts infiltrate Cuban society. It was mentioned that the participant observation section of this research showed young children wearing clothing that was brought from overseas; it would be important to examine how gifts are distributed once given to Cuban people to fully understand the practice. For example, do Cuban people share the gifts they receive? If they receive something they are not in need of or do not like do they give them to family and friends or sell them? Questions such as these will help to determine what happens to the gifts once they are in the possession of Cuban people.

Though the motivations of tourists participating in philanthropic gifting have been examined, a more in depth approach to understanding why tourists choose to bring gifts to Cuban people is recommended. This research focussed on the practice as a whole, but

examining the motivations as an individual topic would further link philanthropic gifting to the existing literature on tourist philanthropy through other methods, such as volunteer tourism. To better situate philanthropic gifting with the existing literature on philanthropy, more research needs to be conducted to determine why tourists bring gifts and what motivates them to obtain more information on the practice and participate in it.

This study has focussed on one geographic area, Cuba. Further research may help to expand the understanding of philanthropic gifting by examining the practice in other areas of the developing world. As was mentioned, philanthropic gifting is a choice of the individual tourist but is difficult to document relative to other forms of philanthropy, like volunteer tourism, where organizations determine where tourists go. Philanthropic gifting in Cuba is a unique situation because of the US trade embargo. Evaluating the level of philanthropic gifting in other areas of the world will help to ascertain why it happens and also establish if Cuba's distinct situation is truly a large factor in why gifts are brought to Cuban people. The large number of tourists who were motivated to bring gifts because of the embargo suggests that Cuba may be a unique case, but further research needs to be conducted to determine if this is indeed so, or if Cuba is just one of many developing nations where philanthropic gifting occurs.

5.4 Conclusions

This research examined the practice of philanthropic gifting in Cuba and the possible implications of the practice on the Cuban economy and Cuban people. The study showed that philanthropic gifting was prevalent within Cuba with over half of tourists bringing gifts to local Cuban people. Many tourists knew about the practice and those who did not were anxious to

learn more about it to see how they could help the people of Cuba while on vacation. In relation to the economic development of Cuba, the main conclusion drawn from the research indicated that philanthropic gifting likely has large implications on Cuba's economy and its people. Philanthropic gifting was shown to be both positive, because of its ability to improve the lives of those who receive gifts, and negative, because it is a factor in strengthening the divide between tourism employees and those citizens working outside the tourism industry. While tourists' motives are strictly philanthropic in nature, the implications of their actions are proving to be divisive. Philanthropic gifting likely creates access to goods that have been shown to be unobtainable within Cuban society. Those who receive the gifts develop a form of economic independence that they would otherwise not have. The divide between groups of people in Cuban society who receive gifts does create a greater inequality within society and, as a communist state, Cubans are supposed to be equal.

The future potential for philanthropic gifting to benefit a greater number of Cubans throughout the nation, not just in tourism hubs, is great. The distribution of gifts to all Cubans would be possible with the development of organizations to collect and distribute gifts more widely and the acceptance of the benefits of philanthropic gifting by the Cuban government. Philanthropic gifting is currently improving the lives of Cubans who receive gifts and, with the help of organizations or government agencies, more Cuban people could reap the benefits of philanthropic gifting.

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Appendix One

List of Travel Agent Interviews

List of Travel Agent Interviews

Interview 1: Anonymous (SellOff Vacations Travel Agent) – August 10, 2010

Interview 2: Anonymous (Sears Travel Travel Agent) – August 10, 2010

Interview 3: Anonymous (Independent Travel Agency Travel Agent) – August 12, 2010

Interview 4: Anonymous (Marlin Travel Agency Travel Agent) – August 12, 2010

Interview 5: Anonymous (Independent Travel Agency Travel Agent) – August 12, 2010

Interview 6: Anonymous (Sears Travel Travel Agent) – September 8, 2010

Interview 7: Anonymous (Flight Centre Travel Agent) – September 8, 2010

Interview 8: Anonymous (Marlin Travel Agency Travel Agent) – September 8, 2010

Interview 9: Anonymous (SellOff Vacations Travel Agent) – September 8, 2010

Interview 10: Anonymous (Flight Centre Travel Agent) – September 9, 2010

Interview 11: Anonymous (Goliger's TravelPlus Travel Agent) – September 14, 2010

Appendix Two

Semi-structured Interview Themes for Travel Agents

Semi-structured Interview Themes for Travel Agents

Travel Agent:

Date:

Themes:

- Expertise of travel agent (how long working there/in industry etc.)
- Knowledge of travel to developing nations (how many people go etc.)
- Number of tourists who inquire about gifting (average number)
- Number of tourists who inquire about what to bring (average number)
- Are there any resources given to tourists who inquire about this?
- Do you suggest tourists bring gifts to Cuba? Why/why not?
- Why do most tourists inquire about gifting? (If known)
- Do you know about 'Not just tourists' or similar organizations?

Appendix Three
Survey Questionnaire

Tourist Gifting Survey

Demographic Information

1. Gender: M F
2. Age: 18-25 26-35 36-45 46-55 56-65 66+
3. Nationality: _____
4. Residency: _____

Travel to Cuba

5. Have you been to Cuba before? Yes No
- a. If yes, how many times (including the current visit)? _____
6. Where in Cuba have you stayed, other than here?
- _____

Interaction with Local Population

7. Have you had interaction with the local population? Yes No
- If yes, who have you had contact with?
- _____
8. Have you heard about tourists bringing gifts to locals? Yes No
- a. If yes, where did you hear about it? (Check all that apply)
- Word of mouth (friends, relatives, colleagues, etc.)
 - Travel Agent
 - Tourist Guide Book
 - Magazine/Newspaper Article
 - Saw it happening
 - Website (which one? _____)
 - Other (please specify) _____
9. Have you ever brought gifts to give to locals? Yes No
- a. If yes:
- i. What did you bring? How much/many?
 - _____
 - ii. Who did you give gifts to?

iii. Why did you bring gifts?

b. If no, why did you not bring gifts?

10. If you come back to Cuba, would you bring gifts to locals?

Yes No

a. If yes, who would you give the gifts to?

b. If no, why would you not bring gifts?

11. Why do you think tourists bring gifts to locals?

Thank you for your participation in the survey!