



## Green generals, jade warriors: the many shades of green in hotel management

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# London Journal of Tourism, Sport and Creative Industries



## About the Journal

### London Journal of Tourism, Sport and Creative Industries

#### Scope of the Journal

London is one of the world's most heterogeneous and cosmopolitan cities. It is a quintessential 'global city' located at the interface of manifold networks, flows and motilities. The *London Journal of Tourism, Sport and Creative Industries* (LJTSCI) seeks to publish articles on a variety of related topics which encapsulates this diversity and the nature of its local-global intersections.

The subjects delivered at London Metropolitan University have a history of high quality research into anthropological/developmental studies and policy analysis. It is from these platforms that the journal aims to be a meeting place for research and discussion on a wealth of topics that should appeal to scholars, practitioners, policy makers and general readers. These articles can include research papers, works-in progress, case studies, developments in theory, book reviews and general reviews that contribute to the development of the subject field.

The journal addresses a broad subject field, while under the banner of Tourism, Sport and the Creative Industries it also includes, but is not restricted to, events, the arts – including music and dance, heritage, hospitality, advertising and communications, music media and entertainment. We encourage submissions relating to these topics from a wide variety of perspectives; such as all areas of anthropology, management, economics, politics, history, sociology, psychology, cultural studies and marketing. The contexts of these research papers are also broad in scope covering relevant research from public, commercial and third sector organisations and settings.

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# London Journal of Tourism, Sport and Creative Industries (LJTSCI)

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## Editorial

Embarking on a research career can be a daunting challenge for a young researcher. For the inexperienced researcher, the process of conducting research is often shrouded with mystery, so taking the first steps toward publication can be confusing and intimidating. It is widely known that the top academic journals typically reject eighty percent of submissions. Well-established academics publish in the top-ranked journals only occasionally (Bladen-Fuller, Ravazzolo and Schweizer, 2000), suffering many rejections of their manuscripts. Even Nobel Prize winning researchers have been known to suffer “the slings and arrows of outrageous referee reports” (Gans and Sheppard, 1994:169). New researchers, particularly those within institutions and departments without an established research culture, can also experience a great deal of “isolation and loneliness in their endeavours to participate in research” (Johnston and McCormack, 1997:262).

The London Metropolitan Business School (LMBS), which publishes the *London Journal of Tourism, Sport and the Creative Industries* (LJTSI) has faced many challenges in raising its research profile. As is the case with other new universities, significant numbers of the business school’s academic staff are relatively new to research. Thus at the LMBS, the struggle of the young researcher is quite familiar. This is one of the key reasons that the LJTSI has made the development of new and upcoming researchers a priority. It includes among its objectives - providing “a pathway for the development of young, new and PhD researchers” and bringing “to wider attention excellent examples of research carried out by LMBS students” (London Metropolitan University, 2008). It encourages submissions of a wide range of articles, which are reviewed with a ‘light-touch’ and published within a relatively short-time frame.

This edition is the first but certainly not the last, which the journal will publish focusing exclusively on young researchers. Articles have been written by early career academics, PhD and Masters’ students. They cover a wide range of topics which are specifically relevant to current developments within the tourism and creative industries. The first of the two research papers examines the increasingly important issue of sustainability in the hospitality industry. The second research paper re-visits the topic of team building’s impact on team effectiveness and suggests new directions for research on the subject. The case study explores the impacts of a culture-led regeneration strategy on the small business environment. The final article of the edition takes a novel approach to utilising music in education. The LJTSI is pleased to have the opportunity to publish these innovative and informative articles which signal the start of very promising research careers for the contributors. The journal closes with a book review which features a publication which endeavours to provide an accessible introduction to the subject matter examined, making it an especially useful resource for young researchers.

### **Sustainability in the Hospitality Industry**

Environmental concerns are becoming increasingly important to daily life and to the ways in which organisations do business. The tourism, sport and creative industries are also following suit. Recently, in the United Kingdom (UK), there have been a number of initiatives aimed at ‘greening’ the practices of organisations in these industries, including the establishment of the Green Tourism Business Scheme in 1997 (Green Tourism Business Scheme, n/d) and the launch of the British Standard 8901 for sustainable events in 2007 (British Standards Institute, 2009). However, as is observed by Panteledis, Geerts and Acheampong sustainable practices vary substantially amongst organisations. Even as London takes its place in sporting history as “the first Summer Host City to embed sustainability in the organisation of the Olympic Games and Paralympic Games from the outset” (London 2012, 2010), a significant number of the city’s establishments still view

sustainability concerns as an afterthought or as “an extra, affordable in a time of plenty, but disposable when hard times come” (Taylor, 1997: 120).

The study by Panteledis, Geerts and Acheampong, which focuses on the sustainability programmes at some of London’s five star hotels, reveals a great deal of variety in practices amongst hoteliers. This variability not only arising from the many interpretations of what it means to be sustainable but also because of organisational priorities and the individual organisations’ implementation of initiatives designed to support sustainability programmes. The authors note that in many cases staff and management of hotels have very different levels of knowledge and understanding of their establishments’ sustainability practices and policies. Training and communication have been identified as critical if front line employees and customers are to understand and support a hotel’s sustainability programmes.

### **Teambuilding**

At least once in their working lives, most employees will be involved in a teambuilding exercise. Historically, teambuilding has been one of the most popular interventions for organisational development (French and Bell, 1984 and Porras and Berg, 1978) and this continues to be the case today. This is despite the lack of conclusive evidence that teambuilding results in improved team performance (Druckman and Bjork, 1994). Notably, Salas et al., (1999:322) concluded that “99% of the variability in a team’s performance is attributable to factors other than whether the team had gone through a team-building intervention.” With the current economic downturn, organisations are likely to cut their expenditure on organisational development interventions such as teambuilding. During recessions companies will undoubtedly find it less important to host teambuilding and other motivational events because employees are “likely to be thankful just to be holding on to their jobs” (Mintel, 2008).

Reic’s article which investigates the effectiveness of teambuilding events is thus particularly relevant for organisations looking to get the most from their training dollars during these uncertain times. It is also pertinent for meeting planners, who currently rank cuts in budgets as their number one concern (Mintel, 2008) and want to demonstrate that their services are good value for money to increasingly discriminating clients. Although Reic concurs with previous research, which highlights the lack of evidence linking teambuilding to improved team performance, she argues that these interventions do impact individual motivation by affecting employees’ feelings about their work environment or ‘job context’. She therefore suggests that more research be done on employees’ perceptions of teambuilding events so that they can be customised to maximise their potential positive impacts on employee motivation.

### **Cultural Regeneration**

In the past twenty years or so, culture has become central to the development strategies of many European and North American cities. Adding culture to a city’s tourism offering presents many advantages. It can attract cultural tourists who typically are from affluent classes and spend more money when they visit destinations (Smith, 2003). It can also position a destination as distinct, giving it a unique and positive brand image which can indirectly promote economic competitiveness. Additionally, when culture is used as a development tool, there can be a psychological effect within a city through which self-confidence and civic pride is boosted amongst the population (Zukin, 1995).

However, as with other development strategies, there have been many criticisms levied against culture-led regeneration, chiefly that such strategies tend to generate “low-wage jobs”, whilst “benefiting elites – political, corporate, cultural or otherwise” and masking entrenched social

problems (Garcia, 2005:845). Tokarska's case study which highlights the experiences of small business owners in Brick Lane, Spitalfields, demonstrates how even with the best of intentions, cultural regeneration strategies which do not prioritise the needs of the community, end up being about economic imperatives, leaving local residents worse off.

### Using Music in Education

It has long been established that an education which includes music has several wide-reaching benefits as its relatedness to "the whole of education" and its centrality to "the whole mosaic of human understanding and culture" has been acknowledged by educators both within and outside of the field of music (Engleman, 1961:38). There have been a host of studies which have outlined music's extra-musical benefits, which include improved reading performance (Hurwitz et al., 1975), enhanced understanding of subjects requiring spatial-temporal reasoning, such as mathematics and science (Rauscher et al., 1997) and also the promotion of social development, personality adjustment and self-worth (Hanshumaker, 1980). Maloney's and Williams' work-in-progress marks a departure from the majority of studies which have demonstrated the wider benefits of exposure to music education by examining the effects of musical instruction on the development of intelligence, cognitive ability and brain function. These authors instead propose that the production of the musical instrument itself can be used to arouse interest and enhance the learning experience of a particular group of students, when teaching science and engineering-based subjects.

Before concluding this edition's editorial, I would like to say a special thank you to the journal's editorial and advisory boards. As new editor for the journal I am grateful for their support and assistance as I publish my first edition of the journal. Special thanks are also due to the reviewers who provided very detailed feedback on the articles, which was greatly appreciated by the young scholars whose work has been published. To founding editors Robert Lentell and Paul Kitchin, thanks so very much for starting the LTSCI. And, finally to you, the reader – enjoy!

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## Research Paper

### Green Generals, Jade Warriors: The Many Shades of Green in Hotel Management

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#### Abstract

This paper sets out to quantify the current practice of environmental sustainability in the hotel sector. It also seeks to identify environmental sustainability perceptions of senior management versus front line employees. The paper reviews literature on green issues and tourism and hospitality and focuses on five star hotels in London, UK. It categorises hotels by evidence of their green policies in the public domain and participation in green associations. A sample of hotels that show some evidence of green practises is identified. Twenty hotel managers, from six five star London based hotels are interviewed utilising semi-structured interviews and 139 front line employees, from four five star London based hotels, are interviewed using structured interviews. Although there is evidence of some good environmental practice in the sector, there is still a lot of work to be done. Furthermore, there is a clear discrepancy in the understanding of the implementation of such policies between senior management and lower level employees. Hoteliers will need to focus on constantly improving their sustainable practices, as well as, establishing training programmes that communicate their company values and current practices to all employees.

**Keywords:** Hospitality, green hotels, sustainability, environment

#### Introduction

The balance of the debate as to whether humans are responsible for the effects of global warming, has largely tipped towards the belief that human intervention has caused enormous damage to the environment. Since the mid 1990s, tourism and hospitality operations around the world chose to follow suit in ensuring that they too fit with the positive global message towards environmental sustainability (Withiam, 1995; Enz and Sigaw, 1999; Lockwood and Medlik, 2001 and Schaper and Carlsen, 2004). Some are driven by the power of the media, which influence potential guests' perceptions and others economic or altruistic reasons, others still are driven by a combination of all these. Tourists are becoming more aware of the environmental implications of their travel and leisure activities. This can lead to their rejection of certain operators and destinations, because of their lack of sustainable practices (Cleverdon, 2001).

The hotel industry can play a significant role in terms of how "green" a destination may be perceived. Regardless of a hotel's agenda it is becoming evident that hotel operators will need to incorporate an environmental policy if they wish to remain competitive. Customers have become more aware of their impact on the environment (Cetron, 2007) and want to reduce this impact by staying at sustainable hotels. However, there are signs that a lot of businesses are ignoring this message or are not willing to adjust their operations. Furthermore it appears that the collective public message that hotels communicate to stakeholders is ambiguous (Bonilla, Priego and Palacios, 2008).

The authors of this paper cast their focus on the UK as a case study for the hospitality industry's environmental practices. Begum (2004) shows that the sector 'Distribution, hotel and restaurant' is the UK's largest sector, accounting for 20 per cent of the total labour market. He further highlights the industry's growth from 6 million jobs in December 1998 to 6.4 million jobs in December 2003. London as a major destination city in the UK and is the focus of this paper's research not only because of the enormous impact of the industry to the city's economy but also because London plays host to a number of international chains and subsequently findings in this paper will have global implications.

Our key objectives are to identify best practice in the sector and also to identify any discrepancy between employers' messages to the public and front line employees' perceptions of such messages. It may often be the case that organisations spend enormous amounts of energy and money to ensure that the "Green" message is clearly received by the consumer but the employees responsible for delivering this message may not be well informed.

### **Environmental sustainability in the hospitality industry**

Environmental management is an important part of sustainable development. Sustainable development is defined in the Brundtland Report by the World Commission on Environmental Development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987). Sustainable development encompasses four areas: economic development, cultural development, political development and environmental protection (Holden, 2008). Hotel companies often use the word sustainability in their publications, yet they only refer to environmental sustainability in their policies.

With the hospitality industry growing (Begum 2004), the acceptance of sustainable development is growing as well. As Campbell (1996:301) argues, acceptance is inevitable because rejecting sustainability will be seen as embracing non-sustainability, and no business will dare to do that. In 1992 the hotel companies started to champion the environmental cause with the formation of the International Hotels Environment Initiative (Hawkins, 2006). Currently the initiative is known as the International Tourism Partnership (see: [www.tourismpartnership.org](http://www.tourismpartnership.org)) Also, in the Annual Report of the World Travel and Tourism Environmental Review of 1993, the writers recognised that environmental issues would become an important factor which influences customers, destinations, regulators and pressure groups. The report suggested that the industry needed to show increasing concern for these issues by developing a clear policy and mission statement on the environment, encouraging training and education to improve environmental programmes and establishing clear targets covering energy, emissions and waste management (Kirk, 1996). Furthermore, at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, tourism was not seen as an important economic sector, five years later at the second conference in New York, it was (Holden, 2008). In the Earth Summit 2002 Sustainable Tourism was even higher up on the agenda (Earth Summit, 2002).

The term 'sustainability' has won a lot of popularity with both the industry and customers, but this cannot be seen yet in the actions taken by the industry (Ioannides, 2001). Ioannides states: "Sustainability implies a situation where the economy is growing, the resulting economic growth is distributed equitably, and the environmental impacts of these actions are minimized" (2001:56) or, in other words: "an extra, affordable in a time of plenty, but disposable when hard times come" (Taylor, 1997:120). Research from Schaper and Carlsen (2004) shows that the interest in the environmental response of hospitality businesses has been scarce in the last decade. Furthermore, London hotels reveal a shallow integration of environmental concerns into business values (Knowles, et al., 1999). The Green Tourism Business Scheme is the national certification for sustainable

Tourism in the UK. The fact that only 500 of 16,000 tourism businesses have signed up, is telling enough (Tzschentke, et al., 2008 and Cleverdon, 2001).

The reasons why businesses still neglect to implement environmental policies are diverse. First, tourism is not an industry that features heavy polluting manufacturers and in that way it does not create as much pollution as other industries (Middleton, 1998). This is why a lot of tourism-related businesses appear to ignore that they also have their share of bad influence on the environment and thus refuse to implement green policies. Secondly, the industry is extremely fragmented and dominated by small businesses. This makes implementation of sustainable development till today unsuccessful. Small entrepreneurs depend on seasonal incomes and therefore are more concerned about their short-term incomes than the impact of their business on the environment and the local culture (Ioannides, 2001). Third, signals from the industry show that tourism businesses are willing to market more environmentally sustainable products if the customer is willing to pay for them (Middleton, 1998 and Kirk 1996). Finally, the term 'sustainability' means different things to different groups (Ioannides, 2001 and Holden, 2008). This is probably why till today there have been no standardised approaches that have been embraced by the industry to account for the costs of utilities and other environmental assets (Hawkins, 2006). Having said that, the definition of sustainable development as expressed in the Report of the Brundtland Commission should be a common ground for hospitality managers.

There are of course also reasons to embrace sustainable policies. First, it is shown that going green does not always result in higher costs, but can help reduce costs. The findings from a study by LEED (Leadership of Energy and Environmental Design-certification) show that buildings with their certificate cost an average \$4 more per square foot, but over 20 years these building will accrue savings of \$48.87 to \$67.31 per square foot. Further, the cost of electricity can be reduced by some adjustments, like improved construction, technology, and management. These costs can be reduced by 20 percent in existing buildings and up to 50 percent in new ones (Tierney, 2007). Hawkins (2006) even makes claims of a reduction in energy consumption of 40 percent in existing buildings, savings of 40 percent on water costs and 25 per cent on waste disposal. Second, regulations and costs relating to green issues are increasing. The European Union introduced more than 200 pieces of legislation for the environment, covering pollution of the atmosphere, water and soil, waste management, safeguards in relation to chemicals and biotechnology, product standards, environmental impact assessments and protection of nature (Middleton, 1998). Third, there is an almost constant increase in taxation. "Companies in the EU at least will be familiar with the commitment at state level to reducing emissions of carbon dioxide (...) by a tax or levy on consumption of energy from non-renewable resources" (Hawkins, 2006:266). The Carbon Reduction Commitment (CRC) is such an example where taxation directly linked to the environmental policies of a hotel will become mandatory. Fourth, there is the push from other companies who have an environmental policy and ask the same from their suppliers, which can include hoteliers (Hawkins, 2006). Finally, the reputation of a business is becoming more important. Businesses are not only measured on their financial performance in the contemporary society, but also on their ethical performance (Kirk 1996). Hawkins (2006:267) adds: "No international hotel company has yet really incurred the wrath of the environmental or ethical movement, but there are few who would want to risk their reputation and their image in the growing face of environmental concerns." Currently, consumers have a lack of trust in the industry when it comes to eco-friendliness, according to the results of a survey by the Century Research Corporation. In the survey, 37 percent of 600 respondents had the idea that businesses can 'hardly even be trusted' when it comes to the environment. Also, a Roper Organization study shows that 77 percent of the respondents felt that there is not enough environmental legislation. And in the same study, 82 percent of the respondents confirmed that they would likely purchase a product with 'green certification' (Iwanowski and Rushmore, 1994).

There are good reasons why businesses should amend their practices towards more environmentally friendly ones. As Hawkins (2006:280) states: "Most businesses that take action on the front find that they lower not only their utility costs, but they also improve the quality of their offer, reduce risk and improve their credentials with insurers, investors and some clients." Nevertheless, there are also reasons for businesses to keep on neglecting the need for sustainability, such as upfront costs, which may not be accommodated in their budget plans.

## **Methodology**

This was an exploratory study that aimed to identify best practice in the hotel sector and also identify discrepancies between employers' messages to the public and front line employees' perceptions of such "green" messages. Five star hotels have a higher probability of investing their resources in an environmental programme, since "their customers expect high standards" (Middleton 1998, 146). Customers are increasingly aware of their influence on the environment (Cetron, 2007) and for that reason luxury hotels are more likely to have a budget that specifically deals with environmental issues and policies.

Because of the variety of official bodies that rate hotels, it can be difficult to identify the number of five star hotels in London. Some hotels often use ambiguous and often unofficial rating systems (for example, some boutique hotels). The outcomes of the investigation by PricewaterhouseCoopers, states that: "in terms of the type of hotels London's room stock comprises, the lack of a compulsory system of registration makes any analysis difficult." (Greater London Authority, 2002:43). According to the report the most up-to-date estimates come from the national tourist board (Greater London Authority 2002). The national tourist board is in this case the English Tourist Board, and using their search engine through the [www.enjoyengland.com](http://www.enjoyengland.com) website 48 five star hotels in London were identified.

Early stages of this research began in February 2007 when the authors categorised the 48 hotels by focusing on three different criteria: a membership of the Considerate Hoteliers Association, a membership of the International Tourism Partnership and evidence of environmental practices on the hotel website (see table 1). The Considerate Hoteliers Association is one of the first green hotel associations in the world and "its membership has played a leading role in the development of environmental standards in the hotel sector in the UK and internationally" (Considerate Hoteliers, 2008). To become a member of the association, the hotel needs to commit itself to the mission statement of the association which involves the minimisation of the use of water, energy and materials, reducing noise, waste and pollution of air and improving health, safety, access, mobility and the use of land and habitats (Considerate Hoteliers, 2008). The Considerate Hoteliers Association has 132 member hotels in the United Kingdom. The International Tourism Partnership (ITP) was founded in 1992 by HRH the Prince of Wales. The organisation "drives the responsible tourism business agenda. Together with its members of leading global travel and tourism companies, the International Tourism Partnership assists the industry to make a valuable contribution to the countries and cultures in which they operate, to their customers, their shareholders and future generations" (ITP, 2008). The association focuses on providing the industry with practical environmental solutions to become more environmentally sustainable and economically and socially responsible. The analysis resulted in a list which helped us identify potential hotels for the purposes of this research (see table 1). The list includes all 48 five star hotels in London keeping our focus at the top end of the market.

**Table 1: Outcomes research 48 five star hotels**

Name	CH <sup>1</sup>	ITP <sup>2</sup>	Web	Total
51 Buckingham Gate	√	√	√	3
Andaz Liverpool Street			√	1
Athenaeum Hotel and Apartments				0
Baglioni Hotel Kensington				0
Brown's Hotel	√			1
Cavendish	√		√	2
Claridge's	√		√	2
Conrad London			√	1
Draycott Hotel				0
Dukes Hotel				0
Four Seasons Hotel Canary Wharf	√	√		2
Four Seasons Hotel London	√	√		2
Grosvenor House			√	1
Hilton Park Lane		√	√	2
Hyatt Regency London – The Churchill		√		1
InterContinental Park Lane	√	√	√	3
Jumeirah Carlton Tower	√	√	√	3
London Marriot Hotel County Hall		√	√	2
London Marriot Hotel Park Lane		√	√	2
London Marriot West India Quay		√	√	2
Mandarin Oriental Hyde Park	√		√	2
Millennium Hotels			√	1
No. 41	√			1
One Aldwych			√	1
Plaza on the River – Club and Residence	√			1
Radisson Edwardian Hampshire		√	√	2
Renaissance Chancery Court London		√	√	2
Royal Garden Hotel			√	1
Sheraton Park Tower				0
Sofitel St. James			√	1
Swissotel The Howard, London				0
The Bentley Kempinski				0
The Berkeley	√			1
The Capital				0
The Connaught Hotel	√			1
The Dorchester	√			1
The Egerton House				0
The Goring	√		√	2
The Halkin	√			1
The Landmark London	√		√	2
The Lanesborough				0
The Langham	√	√		2
The May Fair Hotel		√		1
The Metropolitan	√			1
The Milestone Hotel and Apartments	√			1
The Ritz Hotel	√			1
The Savoy		√	√	2
Threadneedles – The City's Boutique	√		√	2

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<sup>1</sup> Considerate Hoteliers (Considerate Hoteliers 2008)

<sup>2</sup> International Tourism Partnership (ITP 2008)

After all the information was collected, the hotels were split up in 4 groups (table 2):

**Table 2: Categorised hotels and number of interviews**

Hotel category	Policies and vision	Points	No. of hotels identified	Senior Manager Interviews	No. of hotels targeted for Employee interviews
1	No evidence of sustainability	0	10	5	0
2	Minimum evidence of sustainability	1	19	7	2
3	Some evidence of sustainability	2	16	6	2
4	Strong evidence of sustainability	3	3	2	0

An equal number of senior managers across our four categories (five per category) were interviewed during the spring and summer of 2008. The decision to conduct structured interviews with front line employees within properties that were not in the extremes of our categories was made so that the findings are representative. The reader will notice that 74% of the hotels that were analysed belonged in the middle categories with either one or two points.

## Findings

### ***Findings from Senior Management***

The following findings are from the analysis of semi-structured interviews with the twenty senior managers across the four categories. The type of questions asked ranged from generic questions about the type of environmental programmes that they currently adopt to future strategic plans in terms of environmental policies and practices.

### *Policies*

The categories as the authors defined them held true in the arena of policies within the hotels. As expected the range of policies was from nonexistent to very focused, relative to the category of hotel the interviewee was working for. However, the overall view of senior management towards environmental sustainability appears to be positive. Hotels in the first group, with no evidence for sustainability found in the first stage of the research, were more sustainable than expected. One hotel made a recent appointment to specifically review their environmental policies. Another hired a general manager who came from a category four hotel with fresh ideas on policy. At one hotel there was no environmental policy but with the implementation of a 'Green Team' later this year, this was expected to change. In terms of energy savings one manager reports *"we knew how much energy we used that was easy to find out, knowing how much energy we wasted that was an unknown"*.

The hotels in the other groups had a broad range of policies and actions to become more environmental sustainable, with the exception of two hotels in category two which had no policies. Most hotels formulated Green Teams in order to establish environmental policies. As suspected hotels in category four had very clear well established 'green' policies. A manager from a category two hotel said that *"in reality environmental issues have only been looked in the past 15 months with any seriousness, however they fast become one of the key objectives for our future strategy"*.

Recycling, reusing and minimisation of water and energy wastage appear to be at the top of every manager's agenda. One property has a plan to implement a "green room" initiative and was

investing in research and development of future green initiatives. Hotel members of associations do not seem to be able to quantify the benefits that such associations give them. A common response from many managers was that the implementation of green initiatives was a reaction to what their competitors were doing i.e. if their competitors are doing it they must follow suit. Finally an interesting use of terminology sees almost all managers using the keyword sustainability to characterise their efforts towards environmental sustainability. Whether they understood the wider context of the term remained unclear from their comments.

### *Employees*

Most hotels with an environmental policy have some form of training for the staff, with the exception of two hotels. All hotels with staff training in sustainability provide the employee with information during the induction, with two exceptions. Also seven of the hotels train their staff on the environmental policy and main procedures. One hotel has an additional training session three months after an employee has started. The purpose of that follow up training session is to confirm whether the employee has the knowledge and acts according to the policy.

All hotels have ways to include the employees in the process of keeping their environmental policies up to date. These include special suggestion boxes for employees to put their ideas in and suggestion boards where employees can write down their ideas. The majority of the hotels prefer that ideas are communicated orally to either human resources or management. In four hotels staff is updated regularly about issues to do with sustainability.

One property takes the participation of employees to the next level by providing a number of specific opportunities for their involvement and feedback. On the computer network of the hotel there is a shared folder where employees can leave ideas on green initiatives, which will be assessed by the 'Green Team'. There is also a Christmas Quiz about the environment. The same hotel also took measures such as fining employees when they leave their lights on when not around. A considerable number of managers believe that educating their staff is proving the most difficult challenge with a manager of a luxury hotel of category 4 stating *"I wouldn't be surprised if some of them did not know our policies"*.

### *Guests*

Almost all hotels have information relevant to the environment on display in their guests' rooms and/or on their websites. Generally the environmental policy is on the website and information about the reuse of linen is in the rooms. Four hotels did not have such information on their websites. According to interviewees the reason for this is that the hotel does not want its efforts to be perceived as a promotional activity. Six hotels have decided not to offer the guest the opportunity to reuse their towels and linen. The reason given for this was to appear to be *"delivering a luxury service"*. One hotel provides all guests with the book 'Change the World Nine to Five' on the first night. This charity book describes '50 actions to change your workplace and make you feel good'. The book is offered for purchase at cost price in the mini bar.

With all hotels most measures taken were measures that did not affect the guests. All measures are possibilities for the guest to participate, but are not compulsory. *"If guests refuse to participate, then that is no problem"*. The majority of the managers believe that consumers are not fully committed to green issues yet and that the hotel's commitment to green issues is not a deciding factor of hotel choice.

### *The Future*

All managers were asked to comment on the future of environmental sustainability within hotels. All managers were positive about the future of sustainability in the industry and all hotels had plans to

implement or extend their policies towards sustainability. One manager argued that all hotels in the future have to become more engaged in the sustainable cycle, since it is becoming clear that the hospitality industry can do something about the changing of the environment. Another foresees the future of sustainability as *“becoming a way of life”*. One manager was considering taking a degree in environmental studies, since he thought that in the next ten years the environmental issue will continue to grow and also the neighbourhood of hotels will become more important. Finally, one manager argued that, with every day new-build hotels, the possibilities and opportunities in sustainability will become much bigger in the future. One manager gave examples of a future property within his company with features such as the reuse of toilet and bathwater to water the gardens, the use of geothermal energy and trees to be planted as a future energy source. Most managers seem to agree on the cost saving effects of sustainable policies and argue that in the future having such policies will be not be an option as taxation and costs will continue to rise. In the words of one manager *“it is both a tool that gives us the marketing edge as well as a cost reduction tool”*. Approximately a third of managers interviewed argue that educating customers and employees will be the key for the immediate future.

**Findings from front line employees (Categories researched: 2 and 3)**

The structured interviews took place in the spring of 2008. When managers were interviewed the researchers asked for permission to conduct a further investigation and the four properties chosen were from categories two and three (see table 2) - two properties that exhibited minimum evidence of sustainability and two that exhibited some evidence of sustainability within their property.

After an initial pilot with fourteen hotel employees some of the original questions were rejected and some adapted leaving 8 key questions plus some questions prompting demographics. Random sampling amongst the hotel employees resulted in collecting a usable sample of 193 hotel employees this represents approximately 36% of the hotels’ total workforce. The sample was comprised of 51% front line level employees, 22% supervisory level employees, 19% junior management and 8% unidentified. The sample’s department breakdown was 44.5% rooms division, 29% food and beverage, 16.5% administration and 10% unidentified.

**Table 3: Summary of findings of key questions**

Q 3-5	yes	%	no	%	don't know	%
Knowledge of the hotels environmental policy:	157	81.30%	8	4.0%	28	14.50%
Knowledge specific of environmental programs:	147	76.10%	12	6.2%	34	17.60%
Has management effectively communicated such environmental programmes to you?	118	61.10%	62	32%	13	0.67%

Table 3 summarises findings of three questions highlighting that a significant number of employees feel that management could have communicated their hotels’ sustainability efforts in a more effective way. The next table (table 4) shows the type of environmental programmes that hotels are currently running and the employees’ awareness related to those. Employees were given a list of sustainable practices identified in literature and were asked to tick the ones that applied to their property. They were also asked to identify policies that did not appear on the questionnaire.



**Table 4: Top 10 environmental programmes operated in hotels**

<b>Hotel green practices</b>	<b>No of employees</b>	<b>Percentage from a total of 193 employees</b>
	No of employees	%
Paper, glass plastic recycling	176	91.19%
Towel Reuse	116	60.10%
Linen change policy	115	59.59%
Energy saving	99	51.30%
Timed heating/cooling	65	33.68%
Cooking Oil recycling	64	33.16%
Environmentally friendly product substitutes	59	30.57%
Water saving	57	29.53%
E-billing	32	16.58%
Travel/transport programme	9	4.66%

Employees were asked to comment on why they felt their employers used such policies. A significant 47.5% of employees responded that the employer cared for the environment, 45.97% saw it as a money saving exercise and only a 6.49% considered that such practices would enable the hotel to gain more business.

**Table 5: Employees Perceptions of Green Practices**

<b>Q 7-9</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>no</b>	<b>%2</b>	<b>n/a</b>	<b>%3</b>
Do you believe in the effectiveness of these programmes?	130	67.36%	31	16.06%	32	16.58%
Are you involved in these programmes	108	55.96%	57	29.53%	28	14.51%
Would you like to be more involved?	116	60.10%	16	8.29%	61	31.61%

Table 5 demonstrates that a considerable percentage of employees (60%) feel that they would like to be more involved with environmental schemes and policies. Almost 30% of employees interviewed appear to consider that they are not directly involved with such programmes or initiatives.

## **Discussion**

The word sustainability appears to be taking an eco-centric focus in hotel management circles. However, it is worth noting that sustainable development also encompasses economical, cultural and political issues, which are no less important (Holden, 2008). Hoteliers ought to consider the other aspects of sustainability within their operation. Through the interviews with hotel managers it is apparent that as media attention focuses on the green agenda, managers translate sustainability accordingly. The hospitality industry has some great examples of organisations that adopt a holistic approach to environmental sustainability such as the Acorn House (Davis et al. 2008, 135). Hoteliers can learn from such examples. They should have a clear understanding of the reasons they join green associations and it should be more than a public relations exercise. Furthermore their commitment to sustainability, if genuine, should have a more holistic nature. This lack of communication may suggest an unfocused strategy which would translate to front line employees not having a clear understanding of relevant policies and procedures.

A second important point is that the employees do not perceive environmental practices as a major unique selling point to future customers. This finding matches similar findings in the literature that suggests that travel behaviour is not influenced by environmental values due to possible lack of information (Böhler, et al., 2006). Of course this could be a 'chicken or egg' type of question, i.e. if the hotels do not attempt to educate both their front line employees and their customers, their green efforts will not materialise any further benefits apart from the obvious one of cost saving.

It is worth noting that generally speaking hotels have come a long way since the mid 1990s with new green associations leading the way and a significant number of hotels doing all the right things to support the environmental agenda. However there are also a significant number of hotels which are still at an embryonic stage when it comes to implementing environmental programmes. Some find refuge in the fact that the industry has no history of heavy pollution (Middleton, 1998). Others believe the industry is too fragmented with a lot of small and medium-sized businesses (Ioannides, 2001). Some suggest customers are not willing to pay more (Middleton, 1998 and Kirk, 1996), and the term 'sustainability' has different meanings for different groups (Ioannides, 2001 and Holden, 2008).

With most major hotel companies having their flagship hotels in London, one would expect five star hotels in London to be at the forefront of environmental sustainability. However, even in cases where hotels are going to great extremes to ensure they have such programmes, they let their employees down by not investing enough in their training. It is certainly evident that employees are willing. Our research showed that 60% of those interviewed would like to be more involved in sustainability efforts. Academics may go to great lengths to locate and identify evidence of green practices on a hidden URL but customers and employees will not. Without the knowledge readily available, employees miss the opportunity to feel pride for their property's accomplishments. Without that knowledge they also cannot in turn educate their customers, and customers will fail to make green choices when booking their accommodation because considering environmental issues will not be part of their hotel selection criteria.

Irrespective of whether a hotelier is concerned about their property's impact on the environment, they ought to be concerned at least about the ever increasing legislation and costs. The number of laws about the environment is growing rapidly (Hawkins, 2006 and Middleton, 1998) and more success stories about businesses going green are circulating (Hawkins, 2006 and Tierney, 2007), which may convince a hotel chain's head office to develop an environmental programme. However, without a clear communication strategy and a training programme to support it such a strategy will not be worth the paper it is written on.

A fair number of the hotels investigated have some good policies in place but there is little or no evidence of such efforts in the public domain. One wonders why some chose not to communicate their green strategies effectively to all stakeholders. Certainly keeping the information from the competitor may explain such a motive, but in the era of information overload, customers will be aware of environmental issues. As Iwanowski and Rushmore (1994) suggest the customer does not appear to have faith in the industry. Perhaps a more open attitude to such information is the key to reversing such perceptions.

There is certainly plenty of evidence of good practice and leaders in the race do appear to be more open about their policies and more inclusive when it comes to consulting their employees. Hotels that are in the embryonic stages of developing green policies have a golden opportunity to involve all levels of employees when setting such policies. When people feel that they had something to do with the setting up a policy, they are more likely to adopt it and pass on the message to other colleagues and customers.

Our research findings suggest three sides to the same environmental message. One is what the customers are told, the second what the managers believe and the third is what the employees may understand. Our findings highlight a clear discrepancy between what the managers believe the employees should know and understand and what the employees actually do know. This becomes evident when managers have water saving at the top of their agenda but employees in our research perceive water saving only the 8<sup>th</sup> most important policy utilised. When more than half of the employees interviewed suggest that they would like to be more involved with green initiatives it becomes evident that managers are certainly missing an opportunity to engage staff in a meaningful process that could only ensure both parties are winners. It appears that the managers are “Green Generals”, knowing and understanding their green strategy whilst their employees appear as the “Jade warriors” there in the frontline willing to attack the “enemy” but with a different shade of green in their mind.

### Limitations and recommendations for further research

According to an investigation by PricewaterhouseCooper, commissioned by the Greater London Authority, there were approximately 101,000 hotel rooms in London at the end of 2000 (Greater London Authority 2002). With limited time and human resources, it was very difficult to include a larger sample of hotels. Therefore only a representative sample of only 5 star hotels was chosen. To get a better picture of the industry, hotels of various star ratings and type of operation could be investigated. Furthermore, more in depth research is needed on the reasons why staff may not be as well informed about sustainability as their managers think they ought to be. The real reasons why hotels become member of environmental associations could be further researched. Finally a customer centric approach could unearth the influence such memberships and green policies may have on the consumer decision-making process when booking hotels.

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## Research Paper

### The Importance of Teambuilding Events in Developing Effective Teams: A Review of the Literature

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#### Abstract

This article seeks to investigate the impact that teambuilding events can have on employee and team effectiveness in the workplace. An investigation of the literature reveals that teambuilding events have a strong positive impact on internal team communication, which helps create a more positive, friendly climate, thus enriching the job context each employee is faced with and which is specific to every company. It also indicates that teambuilding events have little, if any, effect on individual employee effectiveness, which, it could be argued, depends largely on the job content, which is rarely the focus of such events. However, it concludes that because these events have great potential to influence job context, they have the potential improve overall organisational performance. It is for this reason that further research is needed which quantify the return on investment for organisations which host teambuilding events.

**Keywords:** teambuilding events, motivation, team spirit

#### Introduction

With one in three businesses failing every year (Twomey and Kleiner, 1996), in order to survive in today's marketplace and overcome the hyper-competition a company needs to both meet their customers' needs and anticipate their aspirations and future needs in order to be one step ahead and ensure that the customers will be coming back for more. The company's employees are the first point of contact for the customers. In order for the employees to get to know and understand their customers' needs, they need to be well trained and have an excellent understanding of and commitment to their company, in order to be able to present their company as meeting those needs. The company's people are what creates the company's edge and makes all the difference in today's market arena. They are essential for creating a good first impression about the company.

Since the 1990s, many organisations in both public and private sectors are being directed towards creating a "performance culture", looking to improve the contribution of individuals to the overall success of the organisation, through increasing their commitment to organisational goals and values, which leads to higher motivation and enhanced performance at the individual level (Fletcher and Williams, 1996). Following the teachings of Frederick W. Taylor (1967) on the necessity of team work within workplaces, teams are now being viewed as the pillars of organisational structure.

This article is concerned with exploring the potential impacts of teambuilding events on individual and team effectiveness in the workplace. Currently, there exists a vast variety of training programmes designed to help boost employee skills and knowledge of various relevant business areas (e.g. sales, marketing, finance, customer support, operations, etc.). However, the field of teambuilding events is a fairly under-researched one and there is still very little data available on the impact these events have on employee and team effectiveness in the workplace. Teambuilding events are supposed to help increase the cohesion and the level of trust among team members as well as facilitate better communication and bonding within the team, but to what extent they meet these expectations is still pretty much a mystery. This article by reviewing existing literature on

motivation, teams, teambuilding and teambuilding events tries to establish whether teambuilding events are indeed a legitimate and successful tool in building effective teams, or if they present just a fun day out of the office that has little or no impact on the future overall team effectiveness in the workplace.

### **Motivation in the Workplace**

The subject of human motivation has been explored and analysed since the late 19th century (see Green, 1994; Latham, 2007 and Adair, 2006) and even though there is little evidence that a satisfied worker actually works harder, there is strong support for the suggestion that organisations that nurture employee satisfaction, experience greater employee commitment, fewer absences and decreased staff turnover (Handy, 1999 and Pineda and Lerner, 2006).

Hugo Munsterberg (1913, cited in Latham, 2007) pointed to the need for overcoming “dreadful monotony” and “mental starvation” in the workplace. In the twenty-first century, with the shift from industrial to the service and even further to the experience economy, employee appetites for satisfaction in the workplace have increased, thus influencing the individual’s motivation for performing in their job role. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs still represents the most relevant benchmark for evaluating individual motivation. Maslow argues that individuals begin with trying to fulfill their lower level needs first (such as food and shelter) and then move on to satisfy higher level needs such safety, social needs and esteem. Very few though, manage to satisfy the highest set of needs – self-actualization (Adair, 2006).

Depending on the industry a company operates in, as well as on the position an individual occupies within the company, different levels of needs will influence employee motivation in the workplace. Thus, if teambuilding events are viewed as one of the tools for improving motivation in the workplace, it could be argued that it is crucial to customise teambuilding events to the particular needs of the teams they are being designed for, making sure they address the issues at hand and relate to the level of need that drives team members and their effectiveness in the workplace.

In the nineteenth century work motivation was governed by the notion of the *economic man*, who sells his labour at the best price he can get for it. In today’s labour marketplace, however, although the monetary incentives are still being used quite creatively (for example, with bonuses and profit-sharing), people also put large emphasis on the intangible aspects of their work, such as working environment and interpersonal relations with colleagues, corporate culture and climate, opportunities for career advancement and personal and professional growth (Herzberg et. al., 2008). These aspects are covered in the term *psychological contract*, as coined by Guest and Conway (1997). A psychological contract represents the perspective employees have about their employment relations and it largely depends on two types of factors: *organisational factors* (such as organisational culture/climate and human resource policies and practices) and *individual factors* (such as previous personal experiences, expectations about the future and alternatives). Positive psychological contracts are thought to lead to greater motivation and commitment, lower levels of absenteeism and intention to quit and more organisational citizenship behaviour.

Handy (1999) defined the psychological contract as a set of expectations that both the employee and the organisation have of each other. He identified three types of psychological contracts, determined by the nature of the organisation the individual is involved with. *Coercive contracts* exist mostly in prisons, custodial mental hospitals, etc. where a person is held against their will. *Calculative contracts* exist in most industrial and business settings, where there is an explicit exchange of goods or money for services rendered (i.e. individual’s work). *Cooperative contracts* exist in high-end organisations where the individual tends to identify with the goals of the

organisation and becomes creative in pursuit of these. In addition to receiving rewards for their work, individuals are also given a voice in the selection of the organisation's goals as well as in the choice of means used in achieving those goals. The level of psychological contract employees feel for the organisation they are involved with undoubtedly influences their level of commitment to the organisational goals and values, as well as their motivation for achieving high effectiveness in their job role. More and more companies and organisations strive towards creating co-operative psychological contracts with their employees, recognising that inspiring ownership of the organisational goals and values within their employees will help increase employee motivation for achieving these goals and living those values.

Organisations have the power to influence the organisational factors impacting the formation of the psychological contract – corporate culture and climate being the most relevant for this research. The most common type of activities companies use to achieve this goal are teambuilding events. They are organised with the specific purpose of either improving a particular set of skills participants are lacking, thus giving them a boost in confidence, or improving interpersonal relationships within the team, providing an opportunity for employees to socialise outside of their workplace, bond and develop a common "team spirit". An effective teambuilding event will be specifically designed for addressing particular issues within the organisation and will take into account all the elements of organisational climate which influence the level of psychological contract between the organisation and its employees.

Paul and Robertson (1970) distinguish between two main types of factors responsible for employee motivation – the *task* and the *environment*, i.e. *job content* and *job context*, as previously introduced by Frederick Herzberg. According to Herzberg (2008), it is the balance of these factors that determines the level of satisfaction a person experiences in their workplace. Many organisations tend to influence the psychological dynamic through controlling the job context by offering team members the opportunity to get to know each other and bond in social situations outside the workplace. Teambuilding events may have little or no influence on the individual job content. They do, however, have a strong influence on interpersonal relationships among team members increasing their mutual level of trust and influencing the creation of "team spirit". This "team spirit", in turn, helps increase the cohesion within the team, which is an important element of a positive job context which supports employees in performing in their job roles.

### **What is a Team?**

Every person is involved in teamwork of some sort or another every day. Even though it may not be a very structured or, indeed, a very conscious and recognisable effort, it is still there and it is still teamwork. The use of teams has expanded dramatically in response to competitive challenges and organisational needs of flexibility and adaptation (Stewart and Barrick, 2000, as cited in Pina et al., 2008). Thus, over the years many types of research have been undertaken in order to identify what it is that makes teams great and sets them apart from just collections of individuals with no common purpose and no tangible results.

Handy (1999), building on the Maslow's hierarchy of needs, states that by participating in various teams, individuals are focusing on their higher level needs such as the need for belonging (social affiliation), establishing a self-concept, gaining help and support to achieve individual objectives as well as sharing and helping in a common activity or achieving a common purpose, for example making a product, carrying out a job, having fun or giving help.

West (2004) identified two dimensions of team functioning: the *task* the team is required to carry out and the *social factors* that influence how members experience the team as a social unit. He also



states that simply re-labelling a department in an organisation as a “team” does not lead to team working, but might well lead to decreased effectiveness, innovation and satisfaction. In order for a team to truly perform as a team, its members must possess certain skills that make them work effectively together. Most theorists will agree that teams are characterised by shared goals, defined roles and effective interpersonal communication and mutual accountability to ensure the achievement of those goals (Handy, 1999; West 2004; Larson and LaFasto, 1989 and Katzenbach and Smith, 1998).

Teamwork not only promotes a sense of camaraderie within an organisation, but will also be transmitted to all clients or customers who do business with the organisation (Twomey and Kleiner, 1996). Therefore, a business with successful teams has people who work well together towards the completion of a main goal and as a result the organisation is expected to achieve success with less stress and greater enjoyment while completing the task at hand.

When asked “What is the one thing people should know about teamwork?” Maxwell (2001) was right to say that the one thing to know about teamwork is that there is more than one thing people should know about teamwork. What sets high-performing, effective teams apart from ordinary teams is the degree of commitment team members feel for one another, which is manifested in the way each team member genuinely helps the others to achieve both their personal and professional goals (Katzenbach and Smith, 1998). Effective teams understand the value of working together instead of against each other, which leads to the entire organisation functioning more effectively (Hoevemeyer, 1993). Cohen and Bailey (1997, cited in Pina et al., 2008) presented effectiveness as a multidimensional concept with *three dimensions*: performance (productivity and efficiency), attitudinal outcomes (satisfaction, commitment and trust in management) and behavioural outcomes (absenteeism, employee turnover and safety). However, these dimensions are considered to differ in their importance and significance with different types of teams. The concept of “process losses” (Steiner, 1972, cited in West 2004) has been identified as the source of the gap between potential and actual productivity of a team, thus influencing a team’s effectiveness. These process losses include coordination and communication problems, poor problem solving, poor decision making and low creativity. In this respect, teambuilding events could be viewed as a tool for bridging this gap and increasing team effectiveness.

Although there are major issues in assessing team effectiveness, connected to the quality of data obtained through primary research (Pina et al., 2008), Francis and Young (1979, cited in Harris and Harris, 1996) identified five main characteristics of high-performing, effective teams: output, objectives, energy, structure and atmosphere. This was further developed by Larson and LaFasto (1989) who went on to include the right people (people with relevant technical and other skills), internal standards of excellence and principled leadership as key factors to creating and maintaining effective teams. It is, however, important to note that although these are general prerequisites for teams to become effective, there is no one formula that can be applied to all teams. As it is with motivation of individuals, each team is different in its purpose, structure and ways of operating and, therefore, managing a team should be handled on a case-by-case basis.

### **Building Teams and Teambuilding**

Teambuilding is the process of building a good team, i.e. one that performs well together. The logic underpinning the concept of teambuilding lies in the synergistic approach that says that a whole is much greater than just the sum of individual parts. Thus, teambuilding helps create and support the synergy which offers results of team efforts which are greater than the sum of efforts of all the individuals in the team, should they be working independently. Kipp and Kipp (2000) define teambuilding as a tool used often to enhance organisational performance by improving the

processes that characterise the work of a particular group. Teambuilding events can take the form of anything, from projective tests to hot tubs and folk songs. Harris and Harris (1996) give a more scientific definition of teambuilding, stating it is a behavioural science technology for achieving many of the characteristics essential to and present in high-performing, effective teams.

The origins of teambuilding exercises can be traced as far back as the medieval tournaments (Adair, 1987), when groups of knights fought against each other for entertainment purposes. Later on, as the need for it arose, these teams often stayed together and fought side by side in real battle. Today, teambuilding events can range from one-off sessions for entertainment or ice breaking at conferences, to full business management programmes, addressing organisational change or any other issue which would benefit from a fresh approach. These events can also be created purely around teambuilding activities (appropriate when the objective is to have fun together and strengthen bonds) or, when there are more specific goals for the event, a facilitator can be provided who will help the team achieve the more specific goals of the event. Most teambuilding events, as stated earlier by West (2004), focus on increasing cohesion within teams, boosting confidence and improving communication skills by allowing members of the team to step into different roles and experience new ways of working together. Higgs (1996) argues the importance of considering the way in which the context in which a team is working might be linked to the selection of an appropriate teambuilding intervention.

Adair (1987) identified three motives that lead to teambuilding. The first one is building completely new teams, the second is amalgamating two teams to form a new identity and the third is completely restructuring and revitalising an old team. According to Kipp and Kipp (2000), teambuilding is used in four specific situations: for forming new groups and improving relationships within them, resolving problems in group dynamics, overcoming barriers in goal attainment and resolving goals and game plans. In any case, the bottom line of teambuilding events is creating and maintaining open and honest communication among team members, thus influencing the promotion of *“team spirit”*.

Twomey and Kleiner (1996) state that developing a team begins with defining the team’s end goal and goes on to defining specific tasks, activities and strategies that will be undertaken in order to achieve the team’s goal. The leadership role within an effective team is to form consensus through lively discussions of divergent viewpoints, not to issue orders. This means that, at the end of the day, team members will agree to a particular approach that is perceived as the best course of action in the current situation, regardless of whether they personally agree with it or not (Twomey and Kleiner, 1996).

With the emphasis being put on teams as functioning units within organisations, as required by the constantly changing business environment, a wide variety of teambuilding events are being offered by events management agencies, specialised consultants and popular literature. Adair (1987) states that teambuilding events and programs can be based upon either (1) a substitute team task (e.g. solving a practical business case study, or spending a day or two in pursuit of outdoor activities) or (2) a real task (e.g. going away for the weekend to plan company strategy). Current teambuilding events offered by events companies are mostly built around a substitute task, whilst teambuilding activities built around a real task are highly customised and usually coordinated and delivered by specialised consultants working closely together with the client company. With respect to the level of complexity, teambuilding events based around the substitute team task allow people to focus on learning how to work more effectively together as a team and do not view success or failure to be of paramount importance. Teambuilding events based on a real task are, however, more charged and can be affected by a great level of stress arising from the task, time and team limitations.

Although there is not a lot of research done about teambuilding events, there have been some conflicting results. Some reviews of various teambuilding events have shown that, while they often have a reliable effect upon team members' attitudes towards one another, there is little impact upon team task performance (Tannenbaum, Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 1996, cited in West, 2004). Research has also shown that most teambuilding events focus on team relationships and cohesiveness, and are based on the (supposedly) mistaken assumption that improvements in cohesiveness lead to improvements in team task performance (West, 2004). Mullen and Copper (1994, cited in West, 2004) state that teams that are successful become more cohesive because people's liking increases for those with whom they experience success. On the other hand, cohesive teams are not necessarily successful. Through personal experience of building, re-building and managing teams, Wilson (1996) has seen fantastic results: over the period of three years his team's business volumes grew some 30-50 per cent per annum, costs were reduced by 30 per cent and customer satisfaction with the "help desk" had risen from 85 to 100 per cent, with compliments outnumbering complaints by eight to one. With the increased financial and other resources being allocated to teambuilding events, it would be interesting to discover whether these results are supported on a wider scale, whether teambuilding events really do have a positive impact on individual and team effectiveness, thus leading to a greater effectiveness of the entire organisation and overall business results.

### **Discussion and Concluding Remarks**

Ever since Munsterberg (1913, cited in Latham 2007) coined the term "mental starvation in the workplace", the research in psychology, sociology and other related sciences has been trying to discover how to leverage the human motivation in order to draw out the best performance of people in their workplaces, as well as in other areas of human activity. This research has revealed that the performance of people in the workplace is intrinsically linked to motivation and is influenced by two factors: job content and job context, as defined by Paul and Robertson (1970). In today's business arena, companies that wish to be on top of their game need to create the optimal combination of job content and job context, if they are to create a cooperative psychological contract (Handy, 1999) with their employees and keep them happy and satisfied in their workplaces.

Teambuilding events are not the magic wand that will automatically make everything better. They can, however, strongly influence the job context within teams and thus help eliminate the process losses (such as coordination and communication problems) responsible for poor team effectiveness as identified by Steiner (1972, cited in West 2004). And, although it is very difficult to quantify the actual impacts of teambuilding events on intangible traits such as communication, trust and collaboration within teams, it can be argued that teambuilding events can be of paramount importance in positively influencing the factors which (ultimately) help increase the overall business performance of the organisation (Vinokur-Kaplan, 1995).

Analyses of the effectiveness of time management training interventions (Green and Skinner, 2005) have found that, although such interventions are affected by context and motivation, they do appear to have a positive impact on the majority of participants. Similar logic can be applied to teambuilding events. Over the years, with increased spending on training and development programmes, including teambuilding events, a need has arisen to measure the effectiveness of these programmes and events in monetary terms. The growing budgets allocated to these events, their connection to and impact on competitive business strategies, unclear benefits and positive impacts resulting from these events, as well as the increased concern for accountability throughout all the functions within organisations and the need to justify financial and manpower expenditure on these programmes have all contributed to the increased need to calculate the return on investment of

these events hold for the organisations that are using them. This is definitely one of the most important areas for future research on this topic.

It is recommended that specific research be conducted in this area to develop a better understanding of people's perceptions of teambuilding events, as well as to further explore their impact on the effectiveness of individuals and teams in the workplace. This should, hopefully, facilitate the creation of more tailored teambuilding events that will address specific issues within each particular team. Having highly customised teambuilding events should help increase their effectiveness and create a perpetuating cycle of positive change, resulting in the increased overall effectiveness of the organisations involved, as well as improved business results, which is the ultimate goal of any corporate entity.

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## Case Study

### Perceptions of Small Business Owners of Culture-led Regeneration: A Case Study of Brick Lane in Spitalfields

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#### Abstract

This article is a case study of the impact of culture-led regeneration on the small business environment in Brick Lane. It investigates local, small business owners' perceptions of their current business opportunities and prospects for the future, after the regeneration process. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with Bangladeshi/Asian-British business owners associated with the area for at least five years. The interviews reveal that due to the resulting business environment and present-day market forces, small business owners renting their premises are struggling with day-to-day operational costs. Moreover the regeneration process has reduced Bengali culture to curry houses, creating a homogenous enclave isolated from the social life of former residents. The future of Banglatown as an ethnic neighbourhood is now under question.

**Key words:** Brick Lane, regeneration, culture-led, ethnic minorities, small business,

#### Introduction

In the 1980s property-led regeneration, managed by local authorities dominated. This type of regeneration focused on economic rather than broader social aspects of rejuvenated areas. In consequence ethnic minority groups faced significant challenges in developing their businesses and joining the mainstream economy. With the announcement of City Challenge, the UK's first major urban regeneration initiative of the 1990s, the regeneration projects were meant to be diverted from the property-led approach. The programme placed emphasised on local initiative and commitment to local involvement (Taner and Tiesdell, 1999).

Under the "City Challenge" programme, "the private sector was meant to play a significant role in competitive bidding for regeneration funding designed to strategic thinking" (Shaw et al., 2004:1988). However ethnic minority businesses have been recognised to be reluctant to seek support from external sources. Taner and Tiesdell (1999) point out that Asian business owners, in particular, are not prepared to go through the bureaucratic procedures essential to receive support from external sources such as the City Challenge programme.

The Single Regeneration Budget (hereafter SRB) was another regeneration initiative of the 1990s, which similarly to City Challenge focused on social development. SRB offered a more flexible approach to funding arrangements for programmes that were based on partnership between local agents of change. Independent organisations were meant to act as regeneration agencies (Taner and Tiesdell, 1999) marginalising local authorities, which tend to recognise touristification as a "quick-fix" solution to local economic difficulties (Smith, 2003). The initiatives adopting a culture-led approach to regeneration aimed to transform disadvantaged ethnic minority ghettos into cultural attractions that celebrate the diversity of British society (Shaw et al., 2004).

On the other hand, Smith (2007) argues that culture-led regeneration is synonymous with economic development and measured in economic terms like employment opportunity creation or an increase

of visitor numbers to the regeneration site. Cultural elements are often used as a catalyst to further property and economic-led development associated with the gentrification process. Smith recognises that the level of consideration towards a local community has risen, however culture-led regeneration aims to attract tourists and investors to the area, and therefore has an economical focus - "culture has become a commodity to be packaged and sold much like any other" (Smith, 2003:2).

Although Shaw (2007) argues that if culture-led regeneration would turn disadvantaged ethnic ghettos into friendly ethnic neighbourhoods, the host society will no longer perceive inner cities as "revenue sinks" that drain local taxes and discourage potential investors. Moreover Shaw stresses that successful regeneration of ethnic enclaves relies on local community involvement in the regeneration process. In this way "the process may help to develop social capital and foster pride in areas where low self-esteem is a factor, for many years, been reinforced by the negative perception of outsiders" (Shaw, 2007:56).

North American cities rich in immigrant enclaves recognised their ethnic neighbourhoods as an opportunity to increase economic vitality in those areas. One of the methods used to boost tourism in such enclaves is organising ethnic tours, which focus on cultural aspects of the area. The Chicago Office of Tourism established and developed a series of "Chicago Neighbourhood Tours" which includes tours of Chinatown, Greek Town, Little Italy and Ukrainian Village (Santos et al., 2008).

Santos et al. (2008) in their article "Reimagining Chinatown: An analysis of tourism discourse" suggests that the key factor to a visitor's satisfaction is representation of an ethnic quarter as safe and friendly. Santos et al. argue that commodification of an ethnic enclave helps to re-imagine the area as a welcoming place where visitors can experience oriental culture. An ideological shift towards celebration of ethnic diversity can be recognised as a market force leading to touristification of ethnic enclaves as well (Santos et al., 2008).

On the other hand Santos et al. (2008:10) state that the uniqueness of ethnic neighbourhoods should be seen as a cultural asset that should be preserved. To continue Smith (2003) argues that the inevitable consequence of increased tourism in inner cities "is often the gradual erosion of social fabric, acculturation, and irreversible destruction of natural habitats. This form of tourism can easily become a kind of cultural voyeurism in which the local indigenous population is reduced to little more than human zoo" (Smith, 2003:117).

In addition Shaw (2007) warns that the consequences of successful regeneration in inner cities may have a negative impact on the everyday life of the host community. Wealthy white middle class visitors in relatively poor ethnic enclaves may encourage prostitution, drug dealing and raise street crime and violence. Moreover as an area becomes fashionable and vibrant, it very often attracts new middle class residents who boost the property market and in consequence stimulate gentrification.

### **Historical Brief of Brick Lane**

Brick Lane in Spitalfields is located within walking distance of the City of London. Despite rich surrounding neighbourhoods, for decades Brick Lane was home to poor families and suffered from high unemployment. The history of the area is strongly linked to waves of immigrants arriving at London Docklands and seeking cheap housing. First to come were the Huguenots, protestant refugees from Catholic France in the late 17<sup>th</sup> century. In the mid 1800s Irish families fleeing poverty and famine moved to the area. Then in the 1880s they were followed by Eastern European Jews escaping pogroms. More recently, after India's partition in 1947, the Bangladeshis began arriving in

Brick Lane. Despite the capacity of the area to absorb new cultures and religions, Brick Lane has been perceived as an immigrants' ghetto with high rates of violence, poverty and unemployment (Briggs, 2000).

### **Cityside Regeneration**

Cityside Regeneration was an agency founded through the Governments' Single Regeneration Budget. The agency described itself as "partnership between Tower Hamlets Council, the local community, public and private sector organisations, including large and small businesses" (Cityside Regeneration, 2002:3). Cityside was established in May 1997 to deliver an £11.4 million Single Regeneration Budget programme called "Building Business" (SRB3) in the Western area of Tower Hamlets, which was completed in March 2002 (Cityside Regeneration, 2002).

SRB3 had strong emphasis on:

- Breaking stereotypes – through assisting local businesses to secure trading links and providing help to unemployed graduates to find jobs within large companies in the City.
- Developing and diversifying the local economy – through protecting and developing existing small businesses and supporting the creation of new businesses and new opportunities.
- Developing the visitors' economy – through developing visitor attractions, improving the environment and supporting events all designed to increase the number of visitors to the area (Cityside Regeneration, 2002).

### **Banglatown**

Cityside focused on re-presenting Brick Lane as a cultural and ethnic cuisine quarter. The agency decided to promote the area as Banglatown. In consequence the physical appearance of the streets have been adapted to be more Asian, with new brighter Bengali style street lamps, signage and ornamental gateway arches (Shaw et al., 2004). To help local businesses, Cityside run the "Visual Merchandising" project, which focuses on "make-over" shop window displays. The intention was to help owners to maintain a more inviting and encouraging image of their shops. The next step in the project was creating recipe cards for fruits and vegetables with information about cooking, which aimed to enable Western visitors to prepare Bengali food themselves (Briggs, 2000).

The agency recognised the restaurant sector in the area as one with the potential to grow and attract more visitors. As the restaurateurs used to compete largely through lowering prices, Cityside identified the need for training in areas including quality, marketing, health and hygiene. Therefore, a series of workshops and free training courses were organised. Interest and participation of local restaurant owners was high and in a period of a few months improvements were visible in new approaches to products, upgraded decor or changed menus. To promote Bengali culinary delights, the agency funded leaflets where restaurateurs had free entry. However, they were asked to think carefully on how to market their products (Briggs, 2001).

### **Fashion Hub**

The second stream to increase business in Spitalfields was linked to the area's roots in the textile industry. The fabric, clothes and silk shops also benefited from the "Visible Merchandising" programme. Cityside aspired to develop the area as an important hub of cultural production with a strong emphasis on fashion. Young designers were invited to set up their workshops and boutiques in the newly adapted Truman's Brewery, which has been converted into a complex of bars, galleries and retail spaces. Furthermore, Cityside together with Cordwainers College set up a Clothing Project to help formulate links between local clothing manufacturers and local designers. The agency included in the programme improvements and promotion of local markets together with initiating the Spit Lit event and Alternative Fashion Week (Cityside Regeneration, 2002).



### ***Networking and Promotion***

Cityside established a number of centres and organisations, which would continue to work on formulating business links and supporting ethnic events in the area after closing SRB3. Moreover the agency began projects which aimed to attract web and graphic designers (for example, the Spitalfield Print and Design Network) together with music and entertainment related artists (for example, the Unsigned UK talent show) to the area. In consequence the calendar of events in the area became very diverse, ranging from ethnic cuisine to culture and design to music related festivities (Cityside Regeneration, 2002).

### ***Implications of the Programme***

Cityside Regeneration transformed the area from an ethnic ghetto to Banglatown – curry capital. The central area of Brick Lane was designated as a Restaurant Zone where food outlets were favourably considered. During the agency's operation, 41 new cafés/restaurants were opened in the area, making Brick Lane the largest cluster of Asian restaurants in the UK (Shaw et al., 2004).

Re-imagination of Brick Lane as Banglatown has been narrowed to Asian ornaments on the street facilities, the establishment of the Restaurant Zone and commencement of Bangladeshi culture related festivals. As Cityside Regeneration admitted, there was a lack of a flagship attraction in the area:

“A Cultural Heritage Centre will provide the area with its missing flagship attraction. It will foster a sense of pride amongst the local community and promote an image of London as an exciting and vibrant multicultural city... The unique and beautiful listed building in Fashion Street, interconnected with above, provides almost 100 000 square feet and could provide major “bazaar/souk”. This will act as a key motor to the local economy, providing the missing “ethnic” shopping experience (City Corporation, 1996:14 cited in Shaw and Karmowska, 2003:1991).

In practice, those proposals never materialised as the site owner decided to turn the buildings into a lively mix of uses that did not include the cultural heritage centre. Currently the former brewery hosts 250 design studios, two bars/nightclubs, cafes, galleries, specialty retailers and a large exhibition centre (the same businessman was given permission to convert Moorish Market into studios and loft-style apartments). Cityside Regeneration remarked that such use of the old brewery contributed greatly to the “vibrant visitor economy” (Shaw et al., 2004).

### **Methodology**

The research aimed to evaluate local, small business owners' perceptions of changes to their quality of life over the past 10 years, recent developments and of the future of the area as Banglatown. The timing of the research was appropriate, as it occurred 10 years after Cityside Regeneration began implementing SRB3. The researcher focused on Bengali businesses as they contribute to the image of the area and are therefore crucial for the future of Banglatown as an ethnic neighbourhood. The objectives were:

- To analyse the impact of Brick Lane regeneration programme on business environments from the perspective of a small business owner.
- To evaluate Brick Lane as an ethnic neighbourhood.
- To assess the Brick Lane regeneration programme as a social development project

### ***The sample***

The interviews were conducted between 17 and 22 August 2008 in English. All respondents are male, five of Bangladeshi origin and one Asian-British. The chosen sample illustrates the most common businesses in the research area and all interviewees were associated with Brick Lane for over 5 years.

**Table 1:** Interviewee sample

<b>THE SAMPLE</b>				
<b>Interviewee</b>	<b>Industry</b>	<b>No of employees</b>	<b>Premises</b>	<b>Since</b>
Mr. A	Eatery	5	Leased	2000
Mr. B	Textile shop	2 (family members)	Leased	1980
Mr. C	Bookshop	2 (family members)	Leased	1972
Mr. D	3 Restaurants (2 on Brick Lane) + properties	15+	Owned	1999
Mr. E	Grocery shop	3 full time + 1 part time	Leased	2000
Mr. F	Restaurant	5	Leased	1998

The research was narrowed to Brick Lane as this is the main street in Banglatown, which benefited the most from the regeneration programme and re-branding of the area. As the research focused on perception of Bengali business owners on Brick Lane as a business environment, the researcher approached establishments targeting both, western and Asian, customers. The researcher searched for businesses operating since the year 2000 at least, however the sample includes two exemptions:

- Mr. A – the business has been established 3 years ago only, however the owner grew up in the area and his brother ran a neighbouring business for over 10 years.
- Mr. E – manager for 4 years, former resident of Brick Lane.

On one occasion one respondent was referred to the researcher by another respondent. All interviews were tape recorded except business F where the owner did not give permission for recording. The interviews took from 40 minutes to 3 hours.

### **Findings, Analysis and Discussion**

#### ***The Local Authority***

The London Borough of Tower Hamlets and the London Development Agency took over the responsibility for delivering the goals stated by Cityside Regeneration after the closure of SRB3 programme. As the agency pointed out in its final report, Brick Lane experienced significant problems for small businesses in terms of affordable workspace and access to finances (Cityside Regeneration, 2002). Cityside Agency recognised the need for facilities' improvement in the area as well. However, interviewees indicated that the council did not offer any support to their businesses:

**Table 2:** Interviewees views on local council support 10 years after SRB3 began

Affordable work space	All interviewees complained about increasing rates, rents and taxes. Mr. B mentioned that his rates increased over 3 times in the last 10 years. Mr. B admitted that currently his rates and rent amount to £65, 000 per annum – all paid to the local council.
Delivery issues	Mr. B expressed his concerns about the new legislation which does not allow a lorry to come to Brick Lane with deliveries. Now he needs to order small commercial vehicles to stock up his shop which is more costly for the business.  Mr. E. complained about delivery charges. Every time he gets a newspaper delivery he has to pay a fee of £8. He has two suppliers as he could not find one that would be able to supply him with all the required titles.
Parking space	Mr. A commented that whenever he delivers groceries to his eatery he has to pay £3.50 per hour for parking his car in front of his premises.  Mr. B commented that local business owners have to pay for the parking facilities via private permits from the council, which works out more expensive than paying by the meter.
Other comments	Mr. A, B and F commented that the council is not making enough effort to keep the area tidy. Mr. A commented on poor lighting facilities as well.

Urban regeneration engages increasing levels of demand for property stock, which results in strong rents' inflationary tendencies and spiraling property prices. Local authorities should intervene to protect local small businesses, which usually provide a sense of place. Therefore special zoning, rent controls and effective planning control over the change of use should be implemented to ensure that the availability of affordable workspace in the area (Shaw et al., 2004).

The London Borough of Tower Hamlets took over the responsibility to prolong Cityside Regeneration's operation to tackle the needs of affordable workspace, access to finances and facilities improvements as identified in the final report. However the interviewees complained that the council constantly increases rates and leases. Accordingly Bangladesh Caterers' Association claims that 15 restaurants in Banglatown were forced to close due to rents and rates rise. The association argues that "in the last four years rent was doubled and rates are up at least 60 per cent. Restaurants are not surviving" (Saini, 2007). In the same way, parking restrictions, fees and private permits increase costs of business operation. Delivery charges, like those paid by Mr. E for daily newspapers, restrict opportunities of local shops to expand offered stock.

### **Safety**

All interviewees complained about crime and drug problems in the area. Additionally Mr. A, D and C complained about prostitution. However when asked whether is it linked to new residents from the City and Western visitors, they strongly disagreed, commenting that Bengali youths are involved as well. White middle class residents and visitors are seen as potential high spending customers. Therefore rising crime levels, drug problems and prostitution seem to be necessary evils for increased financial profits. However Mr. A in his initial narration about crime levels in the area commented:

*“The public comes from the City here and also comes the crime, you know, you got drug related, red light district, you got improper lighting system (...) to be honest I think that local authority doesn’t do as much as they should be doing.”*

Mr. C felt that there were not enough police officers. Specifically he felt there was a lack of police patrols, especially in the evenings when touting begins. LB Tower Hamlets attempted to tackle the problem of touting on Brick Lane through enforcement of a new bylaw banning such activity (Taylor, 2008a). Both, touts and restaurateurs should be penalised and their names together with addresses of restaurants should be publicised (Taylor, 2008b). However it was revealed during the research that touting still continues on a large scale on Brick Lane.

Santos et al. (2008) argue that in order to attract visitors to an inner city, one has to be perceived as friendly and safe. Moreover Shaw et al. (2004) states that ability to tackle crime and disorder should be the priority of local authorities in an inner city, in order to present positive images to the outside world. Saini (2006) suggests that touting may put people off from returning to the area as touts often harass and intimidate visitors. LB Tower Hamlets, with such limited police forces in the area, is not capable of enforcing the bylaw introduced in September 2006.

### **Competition**

Competition is very high for any Bengali business in Brick Lane. On just one street a visitor can find at least 3 ethnic bookshops, 4 textile shops, 3 sweet shops and no less than 6 groceries all surrounded by restaurants and eateries. All interviewees commented that in the area there is not enough parking facilities to accommodate all potential visitors.

Moreover Mr. E. has concerns regarding a newly built supermarket, which has free parking spaces for its customers. Mr. E. claimed that prices in his shop are the exactly same as in the supermarket but people routinely think that supermarkets are always cheaper. He commented that permission for a supermarket with parking spaces should not be given in such a quarter like Brick Lane as the area suffers from lack of parking facilities anyway. This places local groceries in an extremely disadvantaged position.

Interestingly, despite the number of curry houses in the area, interviewed shop owners pointed out restaurants as the most profitable businesses. Mr. B admitted that there are far too many restaurants in the area, however if he could, he would convert his textile shop into a curry shop. He complained that as Brick Lane is promoted as a ‘curry lane’, visitors do not even realise that other businesses are prospering in the area. Similarly Mr. A, C and Mr. E commented that curry restaurants dominate and therefore determines the profile of visitors to the area. Mr. B also stated:

*“The only thing what is (doing) good at the moment is restaurants. But even they complaining now that council has been giving them a loads of grief by, the, the government because the freedom, freedom of licenses meaning that the owner could have a restaurant every 5 to 10 shops. One restaurant for 5 - 10 shops. Now is a restaurant, near restaurant to restaurant. I would prefer a bit diversity on Brick Lane from restaurants (...).Whoever comes down to Brick Lane doesn’t realize that I’m in Brick Lane. All they see on the map is restaurants. Curry. Curry-Lane! That’s it. The curry lane. Even in the tour guides they say curry-lane.”*

Mr. F commented that there are too many restaurants in the area. When walking down the street, a visitor will be touted whenever they walk past any of the food outlets. To attract customers the restaurateurs continue cutting down their prices offering 3 course meals for as little as £8 or even

below. The Restaurant Zone caused an abnormal concentration of various food outlets just on one street. In order to survive in a highly competitive environment, restaurateurs decrease prices and tout for customers promising cheap deals for meals. Saini (2006) comments that *"It began with just one or two touting for business but this started to affect some other restaurants so badly that they had to start doing the same and before long the situation spiraled."*

Ironically during its operation, Cityside Regeneration organised courses and training in order to prevent competition by price. The agency was meant to develop and diversify the local economy. However throughout the Restaurant Zone and related marketing activities re-presenting Brick Lane as the curry capital, the profile of visitors to the area has been narrowed to ethnic cuisine enthusiasts. In consequence other industries, like formerly well established textile shops, have been marginalised in the local economy.

Moreover Shaw et al. (2004) argue that "the self-conscious sign-posting and marketing out of cultural and ethnic difference creates an anodyne homogenous landscape of consumption, disconnected from the social life of the local population". The authors stress that "in time, this will create an isolated, tourism orientated enclave; a sharp and cruel contrast of the poverty of adjacent inner-city areas that are less appealing to the gaze of visitors" (Shaw et. al, 2004:1997). Similarly, Smith (2007) suggests that ethnicity, in the process of culture-led regeneration, is often reduced to function as a catalyst to economic development. In order to maintain an image of ethnic attraction, the Bengali community turned their culture into a 'curry lane'.

### **Support**

Cityside Regeneration stated that the SBR programme was meant to have strong emphasis on supporting and developing local small businesses, the interviews included questions about received support and opportunities to get grants or advice from any organisation in the area. However only Mr. D was satisfied with the support provided in the area. He cooperates with a number of organisations providing training for his employees. Mr. D mentioned he takes any opportunity to gain some training or advice. He confessed he has never sought financial support. Another interviewee, Mr. C admitted that he was offered financial support, however his business did not meet the requirements:

*"They did come up couple of time with the business people, but that was not the condition. The condition was if we can proof them that for last 2 years our business is not doing well (...). But if my business was not doing well, I would not be surviving. 2 years is a very long time. It was around 15 years before."*

Other interviewees stated that if they could get a grant they would improve their business opportunities. Mr. A and Mr. F would invest in improvements of their restaurants' facilities. Mr. E would expand his stock. Mr. B would re-brand his store as he does not find the textile industry profitable any more.

However, awareness about organisations that offer funding support operating in the area is very low. Only Mr. D could mention some of them. The interviewees do not seem to be actively seeking any help or advice. If they ever needed any additional funds, they admitted that they would just approach a bank. Mr A stated:

*"No, but I have to be honest here, it takes two hands to clap. I suppose I can't really blame them, I gonna take some responsibility. But (...) they giving me impression that they are not interested."*

Accordingly Taner and Tiesdell (1999) states that ethnic minority businesses often are reluctant to seek and receive business support from external sources. He found out that business entrepreneurs regarded the use of such support as “shameful” and even the suggestion of it may be deemed as “insulting” (Taner and Tiesdell, 1999:1739). Taner and Tiesdell point out that particularly Asian business owners, are often not prepared to go through the bureaucratic procedures essential to receive support from external sources. Moreover ethnic minority businessmen often assume that the businesses they run are not in the target group of business supporters (Taner and Tiesdell, 1999). To continue, as offered support is free of charge, many business owners perceive it as of low quality or not adequate to their businesses’ specific needs. In addition, a number of initiatives running in particular areas may be confusing to a small businessman who does not have time to investigate them. Moreover many of the small business owners do not have time to participate in offered seminars and training (Taner and Tiesdell, 1999).

In the same way Mr. D admitted that seminars may benefit the owners, however very often they simply do not have enough time to participate in them. The other interviewees agreed that as they run their businesses themselves and they do not have time for meetings or training. Mr. D argued that agencies like Cityside Regeneration should focus more on promotion of the area instead of on consulting activities. Mr. D would like to see Brick Lane marketing actions to be more aggressive and broadly based:

*“There have to be more marketing like Visit London. There is Visit Brick Lane but it is no good. Not as good as Visit London. (Cityside) they just come and blah blah blah. But that did not make money. I want them to do marketing, leafleting, marketing worldwide and make internet, go to media and make people coming here. Like Visit London. They are pushy. Go to pushy people and make them spend the money. The seminars do not create a job.”*

Transformation of the area into Banglatown did not benefit small business owners in the period of 6 years since the completion of the SRB3 programme. As the interviewees pointed out they are not convinced that their businesses would survive the next 10 years in the current business environment.

In the current climate, property owners benefit from the regeneration process of Brick Lane. Although as the interviewees commented, the Bengali community owns only approximately 10% of the premises in the area. Therefore the majority of ethnic establishments are tenants. Moreover the interviewees indicated that LB Tower Hamlets, due to constantly rising prices of leases and rates, benefits from property and economic upturn on Brick Lane. In the eyes of the interviewees, the council does not justify the costs in the form of provided facilities, quality of statutory services and contribution to economic growth of the area.

Interestingly LB Tower Hamlets has taken over the responsibility of supervising and delivering SRB3’s remaining objectives after the closure of Cityside Regeneration. The agency stated in its final report that Brick Lane experienced significant problems in terms of affordable workspace, access to finances and local facilities (Cityside Regeneration, 2002).

The SRB3 programme was introduced in the 1990s together with the City Challenge initiative. Both projects have the same underlying approach to urban regeneration which focuses on social aspects of regeneration. The initiatives have been introduced as an alternative to property and economy led regeneration that dominated in the 1980's, with local authorities acting as regeneration agencies. The old approach did not focus on social needs of communities in developing areas, narrowing its operation to economic development (Taner and Tiesdell, 1999). Therefore Cityside Regeneration, as

an ideological twin sister of City Challenge, should not hand over any parts of its statutory operation to LB Tower Hamlets due to SRB programme's underlying ideology.

The regeneration programme had a strictly economically focused statement narrowed to "developing and diversifying the local economy" and "developing the visitor's economy". According to Smith (2007) culture-led regeneration programmes aiming for economically measured goals, in practice turn into economic development programmes. To continue, the culture-led approach seems to be used as a catalyst to further property and economic-led development of the area, which is associated with the gentrification process.

Smith (2003) argues that local authorities frequently identify the regeneration process as a "quick-fix" solution to boost the local economy. Culture has been recognized as a catalyst for the economic development process. As Van Eckhardt (1980) observes "Good cultural planning, like good city planning must be good economic planning" (cited in Smith, 2003:154). However in practice too much emphasis is placed on the economic imperative where social, cultural and welfare issues confronting local community are often overlooked.

Within a decade Brick Lane turned from an ethnic ghetto into a fashionable area. Representation of the enclave as Banglatown has centralised business to various gastronomic points with curry houses dominating. Re-imagination of the area has been undoubtedly successful as the white middle class has started relocating into Brick Lane. However, such economic development has resulted in accelerated property values and spiralling rent rates. Currently the Bengali community is shrinking in the area, as the cost of living overwhelms their means. However, there are still functioning Bengali businesses, very often run by families. Moreover, as the area accomplished the regeneration 6 years ago, local authorities want to benefit from its rebirth as a fashionable quarter. As a result of strong local property inflation, small business owners, who previously contributed to the re-imagining of the area, became victims of displacement. As Keith and Rogers (1991) state: "Gentrification benefits selectively, takes away with one hand as it gives with another, bestowing respectability at a cost of displacement. The inner city is transformed, but for whom?" ( cited in Smith, 2003:156).

## **Conclusion**

Brick Lane, Spitafields, underwent a culture-led regeneration programme with a budget of £11.4 million. Cityside Agency claimed in its programme strong emphasis on welfare and expanding opportunities of existing small businesses. However, the initiated Restaurant Zone isolates other businesses from main stream economy, narrowing the marketing profile of Brick Lane to curry houses. The agency did not prevent commercial gentrification in the area. As a consequence ethnic small businesses suffer decline in prosperity due to constantly growing overhead costs. Six years after the accomplishment of the Cityside Regeneration programme 15 restaurants have been closed due to the rise of rents and rates, and an abnormal concentration of food and beverage outlets in the area.

The current market forces and social situation turns Banglatown into a "tourist bubble" where experience is predictable - a visitor comes and has a curry meal. There is no flagship ethnic culture related attraction. It is just a commercial lane with curry houses next to one another. Moreover neither Cityside Regeneration nor LB Tower Hamlets prioritised ethnic businesses' interests during the process of economic development of Brick Lane. In consequence the promise of a new approach to urban development issues turned out to be yet another economic-led initiative marginalising and creating challenges to local ethnic businesses. Sadly, Banglatown's culture-led regeneration can be summarised in Klunzman's (2004) words "each story of regeneration begins with poetry and ends with real estate" (cited in Evans, 2005:959).

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## Research Paper

### Pedagogy of the Pan

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#### Abstract

There is an economic imperative to increase the level of innovative activities in the UK economy and universities have been encouraged to increase the number of science and technology graduates. One of the approaches used by universities is the encouragement of minority students, in particular, Afro-Caribbean students into undergraduate engineering. However, to realise the potential of these students, programmes need to build understanding of engineering principles in a manner that appeal to their particular learning styles.

The steelpan, an instrument invented in Trinidad and Tobago, can provide a possible solution. The technology of the steelpan is multidisciplinary and requires knowledge in the areas of materials science, production processes, acoustics, vibrations and music. By decomposing the production of the instrument into these underlying bodies of knowledge, an ideal opportunity is provided in which engineering principles can be explained and demonstrated at low cost. This paper, a work in progress, outlines opportunities for engineering concepts that can be presented using the steelpan. With further development, the steelpan can be used to encourage secondary students from Afro-Caribbean backgrounds into the engineering profession.

**Keywords:** steelpan, Afro-Caribbean, pedagogy, engineering

#### Introduction

Science and technology education is seen as critical to the future economic growth of the United Kingdom (UK) economy (Bils and Klenow, 2000). Highly skilled engineers are seen as essential to creating innovative products and services and positioning the UK as a global leader in emerging sectors such as renewable energy (Frenz and Ietto-Gillies, 2009). However, in the UK, interest in undergraduate degrees in engineering is in decline (Bowen et al., 2008). The UK government has expended considerable effort in reversing this trend with a number of interventions aimed at increasing interest and access to engineering education (Melville-Ross and Langlands, 2009).

One particular grouping, Afro-Caribbean males, has been a target of many of these efforts. These students perform poorly at secondary school science, and exhibit little interest in undergraduate programmes (Osborne, Simon, and Collins, 2003). This tends to limit their access to professional and entrepreneurial opportunities. Stimulating interest in engineering programs in this group, particularly in areas targeted for development, can bring economic and social benefits (Barrett, Jones, and McEvoy, 1996). However, the way in which some of these programmes, for example mechanical engineering, are taught, excludes many students (Tobias, 1999). To improve demand for these courses at undergraduate level, earlier interventions aimed at attracting students need to show relevance to student's personal interest (Locke, 2008). The next section of this paper will therefore highlight some of the domains in which a student's interest may reside. This will then be followed by a consideration of learning styles, before proposing the steelpan as a tool, which not only demonstrates engineering concepts, but if used well, can also generate student interest in engineering while appealing to several learning styles.

## Knowledge Domains in Engineering Education

There are currently four learning domains in education. Some are hierarchal in structure while some are not. In practice, engineers apply scientific principles in an innovative manner to create solutions (Duckworth and Lewin, 1981). This creates a difficult challenge for educators since programmes need to deliver instruction that builds competencies in these domains of knowledge (Wankat and Oreovicz, 1993). These domains include:

### 1) Cognitive Domain:

This domain is concerned with the acquisition of knowledge along with the development of intellectual abilities and intellectual skills (Furst, 1981). Researchers have created a taxonomy of this process (Krathwohl, Bloom, and Masia, 1964), consisting of 6 levels. The lowest level in the cognitive domain is the ability to retain and recall facts. Comprehension or the ability to demonstrate understanding is the next level in this taxonomy. Application is concerned with the application of theoretical ideas to practical situations. A student that demonstrates the next skill, analysis, can reduce complex problems to a level where they can be solved using engineering principles. Synthesis takes the opposite path to analysis, in which solutions are created from assembling simpler components. Finally, evaluation is the ability to judge a solution against internal or external criteria.

### 2) Affective Domain:

The affective domain (Krathwohl et al., 1964) is concerned with the development of interest, attitudes, and values. The first level is receiving and attending which indicates that an individual confirms receipt of a given stimulus. In responding, the student acts on a given stimulus. In the valuing process, students attribute some worth to a given object or behaviour. In the next stage – organisation - students arrange values in a hierarchy. Finally, in the characterization stage, the hierarchy created in the organisation stage is used to guide future actions.

### 3) Psychomotor Domain (Kibler, Barker, and Miles, 1970; MacDonald-Ross, 1973):

This domain covers the development of coordination and communication skills. While this skill is critical to the performance of experimental and testing work, it has been de-emphasized in recent years in favour of cognitive areas (White, 2009). Early work in this area was done by Kibler, Barker et al (1970), who created a taxonomy including gross body movements and speech. Later researchers classified psychomotor skills as physical manipulation only, arranging them from recognition of tools to management of operations (Ferris and Aziz, 2005).

### 4) Problem Solving

Engineering research and practice commonly requires the generation of solutions to problems (Isermann, 1997). A taxonomy has been generated based on the complexity of problem to be solved (Clancey, 1984). It has been arranged from simple application of routines to creation of processes to solve problems.

Engineering programmes need to cover a number of knowledge domains. This may be difficult, however, as most programmes in this area focus on cognitive development (Dede and Barab, 2009). Educators have been searching for interventions that both appeal to students learning styles and meet engineering learning objectives (Carlson and Sullivan, 1999) as well as address the subject's various knowledge domains. The question of interest is how the use of the steelpan can take into

account students' learning styles and interests. An attempt to answer this question will be made after considering various learning styles and the process of sinking of the steelpan.

### **Engineering Education and Learning Styles**

Educators also need to be aware of how students acquire engineering subject knowledge. Learning of science and engineering concepts takes place in two steps: reception and processing of information (Felder, 1993). During reception, internal and external information becomes available to students who then select the information they deem important. Processing may take several forms incorporating memorisation, reasoning, reflection or action (Cagiltay, 2008) and researchers have classified them into five learning styles (Felder, 1993). The first basis of classification for learning styles is the type of information that the student prefers to receive. Information can be perceived through sensory means or interpreted through intuitive means. The second is the preferred mode through which sensory information is received, which can be either visual or verbal. The third is the way in which information is organised, which can be either inductive in which empirical observations are given and engineering principles are inferred or deductive in which principles are given and outcomes are determined. The fourth is the way in which the student prefers to work with information either actively or reflectively. Finally, the last dimension is how students build understanding either through incremental steps or sequentially or through larger, global stages.

The learning styles of many students are incompatible with how engineering concepts are taught and demonstrated (Lumsdaine and Lumsdaine, 1995). Many of these students are visual, sensing, inductive, and active learners while others with strong design skills are global rather than sequential thinkers. However, most engineering education is auditory, abstract (intuitive), deductive, passive, and sequential in nature. To improve student performance, active, team-based activities have been recommended to introduce students to the practice of engineering. In particular, programmes that integrate theoretical concepts and practical applications have improved retention rates in minority engineering students (Carlson and Sullivan, 1999).

There is a need therefore to design interventions to meeting the objectives of technology education that engage a wider range of learning styles. This solution may be found in the steelpan. The steelpan has been adopted by educators to teach music in schools (Svaline, 1995) and this has been done across schools in London as early as 1970. The next section presents an overview of the origins and operation of the instrument along with its suitability as a teaching device for engineering purposes.

### **Steelpan Origin**

The steelpan or steel drum has been described as "one of the world's newest and most unusual folk instruments" (Seeger, 1958: 52). It is traditionally made by cutting off the end of a fifty-five gallon oil drum and selectively heating and cooling the remaining surface until different sections make sounds of varying pitches when hit with a rubber tipped stick. Its unlikely invention is truly a remarkable testament to the innovation of the Trinidadian people. Re-discovered in 1498 by Christopher Columbus, Trinidad and Tobago remained a Spanish colony until its conquest by the British in 1798. For the largest section of the population, African slaves, percussion instruments were utilised in religious and other ceremonies (Barre, 1999). After emancipation, conflict between the British colonial government and former slaves resulted in the banning of these instruments in 1883. Alternative instruments were made from the local grass bamboo, and they were known as '*Tambo Bamboo*'. Bamboo stems of different lengths and diameters were used to make sounds of varying pitches (van Koningsbruggen, 1997). These were also declared illegal, and so the drummers developed instruments made from a range of discarded items (Maxime, 1997).

Searching for alternatives, local musicians soon realised that discarded biscuit and paint tins could be shaped to produce different notes when struck. Further experimentation extended the range of these instruments, enabling them to play melodies. Winston 'Spree' Simon, a local drummer, began playing melodies on the crude tin instruments in 1939, refining the instrument's shape into a convex (dome-shaped) steel pan (Barre, 1999). Music played on these pans became popular, with the biscuit and paint tins being replaced with larger drums discarded from the local oil industry. In 1946, another musician, Ellie Manette created the first steel drum in its concave form, made from a fifty-five (55) gallon oil drum, which remains the dominant design today (Gay, 2005).

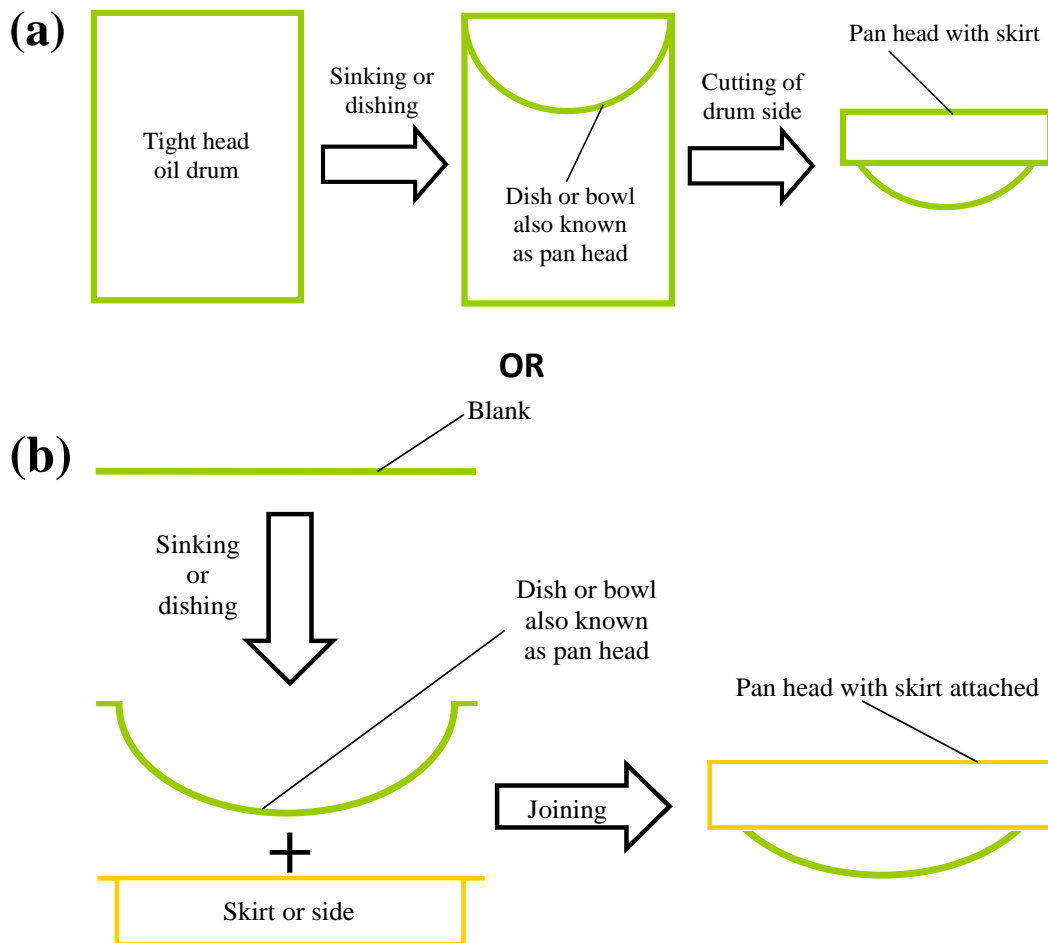
As the only new instrument to be invented in the 20th century (Seeger, 1958), steel drums have attracted considerable attention. While they are seen as symbols of Caribbean culture (Stuempfle, 1997), the steel drums' versatility and unusual sound have also enabled musical acceptance outside of Caribbean genres (Pinckney, 1992). These aspects, along with ease of use, have enabled educators to use the instrument as an accessible means of teaching music to a wide range of students (Svaline, 1995). It has been particularly useful in educating Afro-Caribbean students (Mixon, 2005), and has been widely adopted in urban music programmes. While the steel drum is a significant musical innovation, it also represents an important technological development. This perspective attracts considerably less attention and only recently have a loose coalition of scientists and engineers begun exploring the scientific and engineering aspects of steel drums (Wu, 1998).

### **Steelpan Production Process**

Steelpan are today largely produced by traditional handcrafting which begins by dishing the top of a tight-head oil barrel. The following stages are described below:

1. *Sinking or dishing*: This involves stretching the drum head with a sledge hammer to create an evenly dished surface. Instead of using an oil drum, some pan makers use a metal disc or blank which they form into the pan head. This is shown in Figure 1 below.
2. *Creation of note regions*: This is where the pan maker divides the dished surface into sections that will be used for placement of the various notes.
3. *Grooving*: This is the process in which each note region is defined by a boundary that consists of a continuous line of punch marks on its perimeter.
4. *Cutting the drum*: The side of the drum is cut to length in accordance with the steelpan type under production. Bass pans usually retain the entire side of the drum.
5. *Firing*: This is typically done by placing the drum upside down on a wooden or kerosene-fired heat source for several minutes so as to remove any paint or oil on the surface.
6. *Tuning*: This is where a few modes in each note region are tuned (making adjustments to the shape of the note region by hammer peening) until the desired frequencies (fundamental and harmonics) on the musical scale are achieved.

**Figure 1:** Sinking or dishing of the steelpan



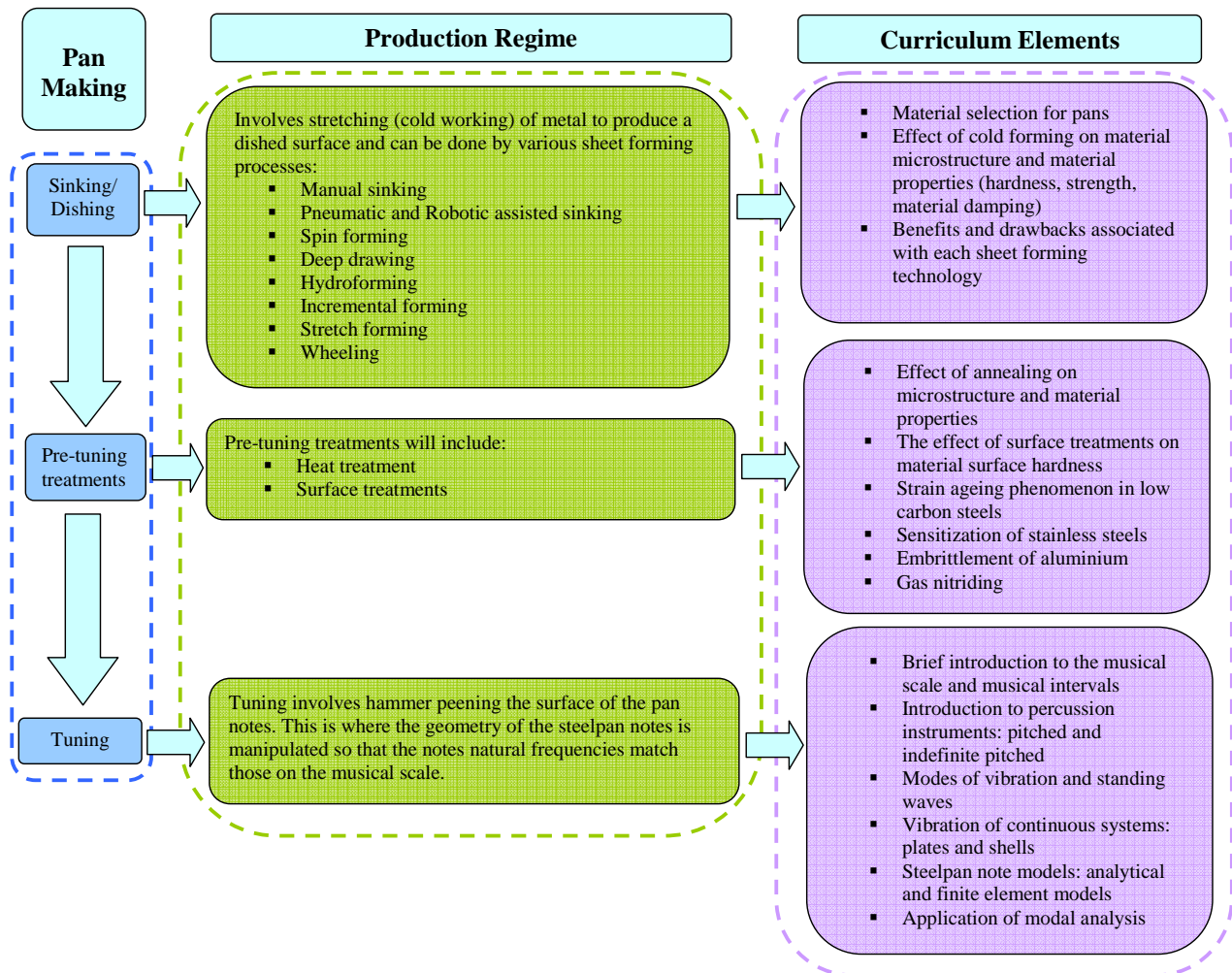
**Source:** The authors

### Steel Pan and Engineering Concepts

The integrative nature of the pan, linking materials, metallurgy and vibrations offers significant promise for science and technology education. Further, the familiarity of Afro-Caribbean students with the instrument will make it a stimulus to which they may pay attention. These aspects provide an ideal opportunity for introducing engineering concepts that is both comprehensive and appealing. On this basis, educational objectives can be designed that incorporate a wide range of learning domains, an approach that educators have been recommending for some time (Howard, Carver, and Lane, 1996).

Figure 2 highlights some engineering science elements that are associated with each stage of the steelpan production process.

**Figure 2:** A curriculum which involves use of the steelpan to illustrate engineering science elements



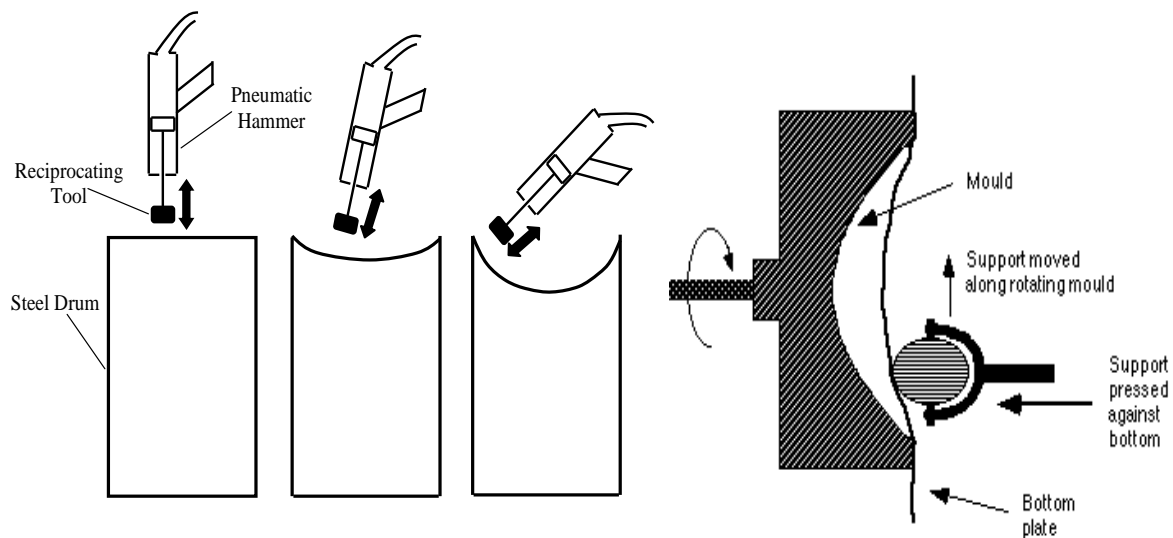
**Source:** The authors

It is not assumed that the following list is complete but it is sufficient as a foundation to which further elements can be constructed.

1) **Pan Sinking** (Sheet metal forming)

Pan sinking can be done via several sheet forming processes, some of which are manual, part-automated or fully automated (see figure 3).

**Figure 3: Pan sinking technologies**



**Adapted from:** Kronman, 1991:75

The left of the diagram shows pneumatic sinking in which a reciprocating hammer is used to provide the forming force, whereas the right shows spinning (Kronman, 1991) in which a roller-head tool provides the forming force: These sheet forming techniques involve plastic stretching of the material during formation of the pan dish.

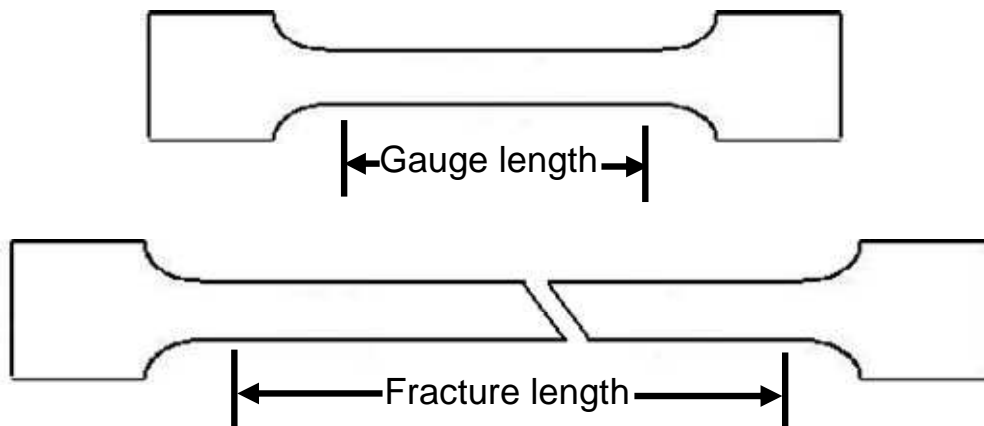
While each of these technologies use a different mechanism for sinking, the entire range of sheet forming technologies exploited for pan sinking, result in forming or deforming of the material. The average depth of a steelpan dish is 150mm, which indicates considerable stretching of the metal during the forming operation. Therefore, students can envisage that metals selected for pans must be able to stretch or elongate significantly without fracturing in the process. This will inevitably appeal to students who learn through visual means. Additionally, students will appreciate the high noise levels generated through the manual sinking of steel pans.

It can be envisaged how the sinking of the steelpan can fall into several learning domains (see figure 1). For instance, in the cognitive domain, students can recall that steel pans are sunk primarily by hand. Students can be asked to identify some of the problems associated with hand sinking. These problems range from high noise levels which make pan sinking a public nuisance, noise induced hearing loss in pan makers and problems in the hand and arms of steelpan makers. After identifying some of these problems, students can be asked to suggest alternatives which would alleviate the problems associated with manual pan sinking. This will appeal primarily to their problem solving skills in which they are challenged to deliver a new method or routine for the sinking process of the steelpan.

## 2) Force Extension Curve

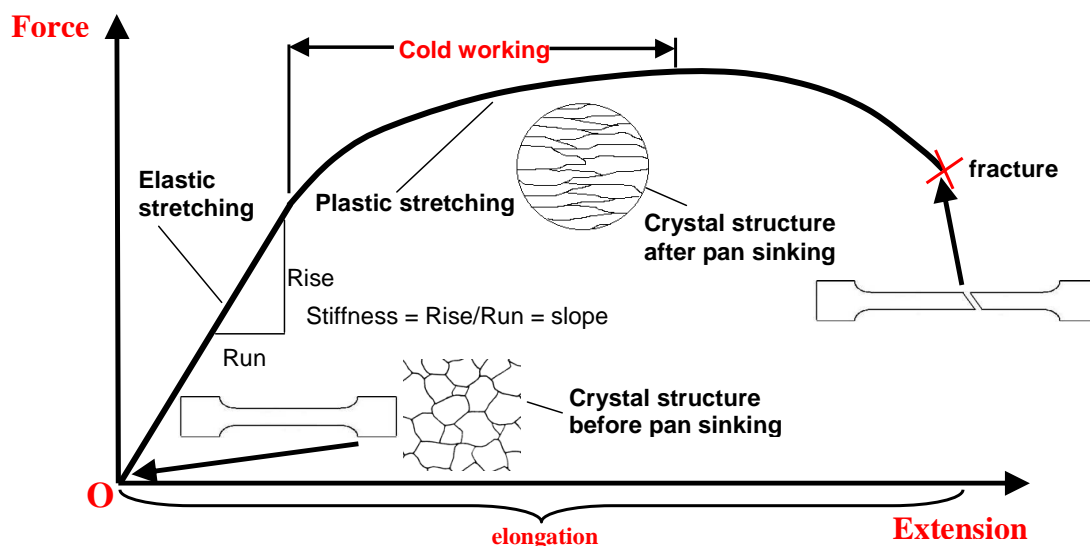
Another important characteristic of all engineering materials is known as the force-extension curve. This curve illustrates the behaviour of a material up to the point of fracture and it can be used to deduce several mechanical properties that are important to metal forming. This curve is obtained by stretching a tensile specimen (see figure 4) while simultaneously recording the stretching force and extension. Figure 5 is a typical force-extension curve for a metal and it illustrates the general behaviour of the metal when it is under the influence of a stretching or tensile force, similar to the forces which the steelpan material experiences during forming.

**Figure 4:** Two tensile test specimens – one before pressure applied (above) and one at failure point (below)



Source: The authors

**Figure 5:** Typical force-extension curve for a metal



Adapted from: Hosford, W.F. 2005:41

This curve for metals generally has two distinct regions: (1) the elastic region in which the metal returns to its original shape after the removal of an applied load and (2) the plastic region in which the metal remains permanently stretched or deformed after the removal of the deforming force. The characteristic material property known as the Young's modulus of elasticity ' $E$ ' can be deduced (see figure 5) from the linear portion of the force-extension diagram for the material. Students will also be shown that the process of pan sinking deforms the metal into the plastic region such that after the removal of the forming force the metal retains the final shape. The concept of elongation can be demonstrated to students with the help of the force-extension curve. The elongation as shown in figure 5 is the amount of extension experienced by the material (or tensile specimen) before failure.

A measure of a material's ability to stretch or elongate without fracturing is known as its ductility (Higgins, 1998; Hosford, 2005). The ductility is usually measured by stretching and recording the



initial (or gauge) and final lengths of a test sample (also known as a tensile specimen) taken from the material (see figure 4). The ductility also known as the percentage elongation can be expressed as:

$$\text{ductility} = (\text{extension} \cdot \text{at} \cdot \text{fracture}) / (\text{original} \cdot \text{length}) \times 100\%$$

or

$$\text{ductility} = (L_f - L_o) / L_o \times 100\%$$

where  $L_f$  and  $L_o$  are the length at fracture and original or gauge length respectively (Hosford, 2005). Some metals elongate or are more ductile than others. However, metals typically used for steel pans are able to stretch as much as 33% to 50% more than their original lengths before failing.

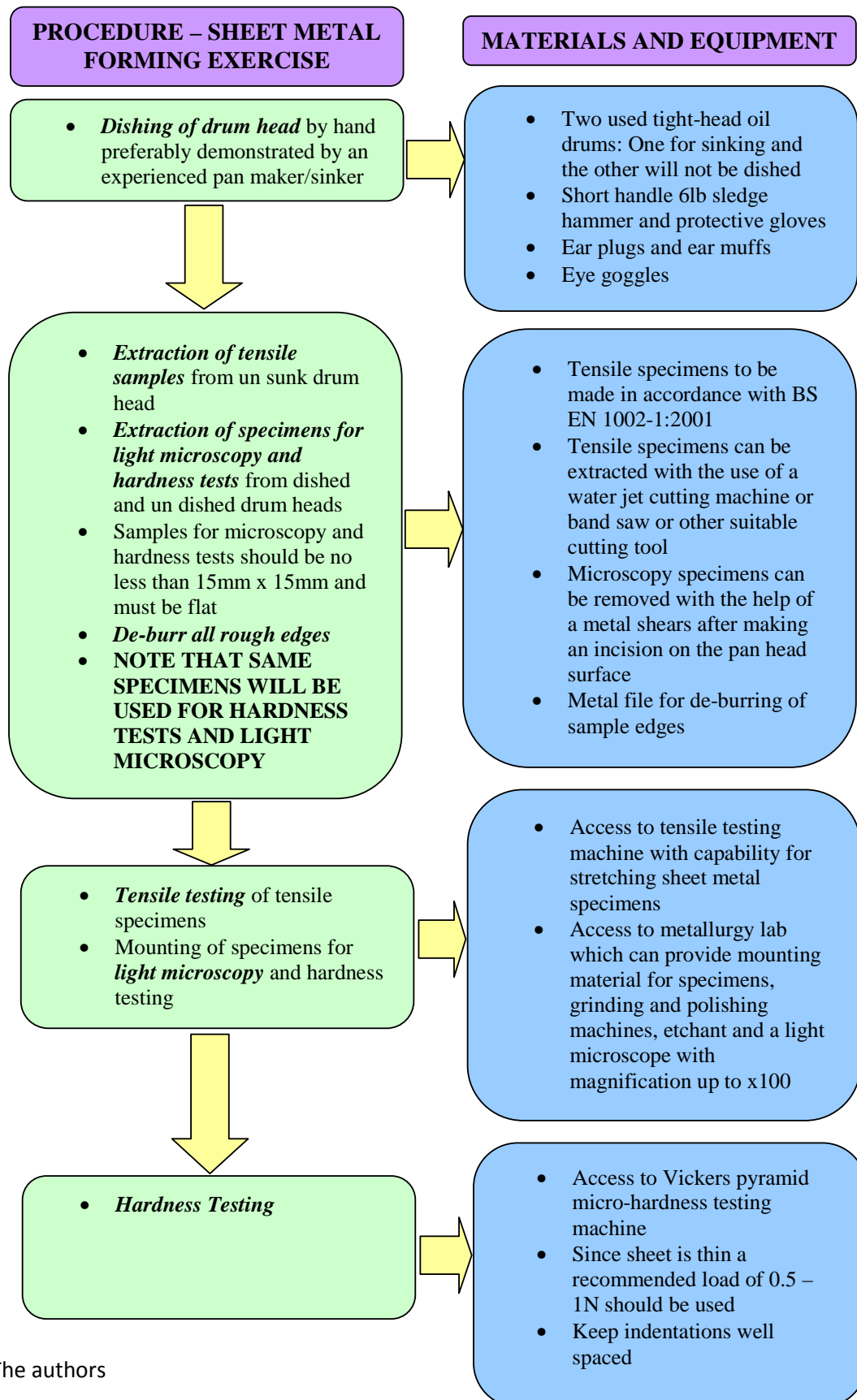
The producing of a force-extension curve creates more opportunities in which the pedagogy of the steelpan can appeal to several learning styles. The visual and auditory channels would be appealed to during the stretching and fracture of the tensile specimen. Students would see the force-extension curve as it is simultaneously created during the stretching of the specimen. Additionally, students would learn through active engagement as a tensile test requires the co-operation of at least two individuals for it to be conducted.

The tensile test can be expanded to include a variety of materials and students could be given the opportunity to determine on the basis of the force-extension curve, which materials would be suitable or unsuitable for steelpan making. This would give the students exposure to data analysis in conjunction with problem solving.

### 3) Effect of Manufacturing Process on Metal Grain Structure

Another concept that can be introduced is the effect of metal forming (stretching) on the microstructure or crystal structure of the metal. This can be done by looking at the microstructure of the metal under a light microscope. In this exercise students will be introduced to basic metallographic preparation of metal samples for light microscopy. Metal samples are taken before and after the material is stretched into a pan dish. An illustration of what is expected to be seen under the microscope is shown in figure 5. The crystal structure of the metal before cold forming will appear as approximately equiaxed polygons whereas the microstructure of the stretched metal would appear stretched or elongated. This exercise would provide a visual aid that would help to reinforce the concept of stretching of the material during cold forming. Figure 8 below gives a step by step approach together with the necessary equipment required for demonstrating the concept of cold forming through steelpan sinking.

Figure 6: Pan Sinking Exercise



Source: The authors

## Discussion and Conclusion

In response to the demands for increasing involvement of Afro-Caribbean students and integrative modules, this paper proposes that an aspect of Caribbean culture, the steelpan can be used as an avenue for engineering education. The steelpan is capable of playing a wide variety of music and several schools have introduced steelpan playing courses alongside programmes already offered for classical instruments (La Rose and McCalman, 2001). However, this paper focuses not on the musical aspects of the pan, but as a teaching tool for secondary school students, such as those pursuing A-level physics, to encourage the uptake of undergraduate engineering programs. The steelpan can also be used as a tool in some of the engineering taster programs offered during the summer for ethnic minority students by the Sutton Trust, Headstart, HEFCE (Higher Education Funding Council for England) and GEEMA (Group to Encourage Ethnic Minority Applications)

The paper highlights an exercise that can be demonstrated based on aspect of the pan production process. The example is based on a single aspect of pan production, pan sinking, which illustrates the effect of manufacturing processes on material properties and incorporates several major knowledge domains, mainly: cognitive and problem solving. In the cognitive area, students can gain familiarity with and apply engineering materials concepts such as ductility. Through discussions during the execution of the example show in Figure 8, students may be able to acquire the basic skill, knowledge. Presentation of findings from the exercise provides the opportunity to demonstrate comprehension and analysis, higher level skills.

Simultaneously, psychomotor skills, such as tool knowledge, gross and fine body movements are required to shape the pan surface and perform experimental testing. The act of shaping a metal surface provides all students with the opportunity to deploy lower level problem solving skills of routine execution and diagnosis during metal forming and testing. Students will be required to follow instructions, assess the surface and adjust their actions as necessary. However, for advanced students, there may be the option to design an appropriate experimental testing scheme. This aspect will require research and analysis, enabling the demonstration of a higher level of problem solving skills. Students therefore get the opportunity to build cognitive, psychomotor and problem solving skills in a single exercise using an ethnic instrument with which they are familiar.

Additional exercises may be done to introduce other simple engineering concepts. For instance the exercise can be extended from metal deformation and microstructure to evaluate a new material property, hardness. Here the students will be introduced to: (1) the effect of cold forming on metal hardness and (2) techniques that are used to extract material hardness. By measuring the hardness of the metal before and after pan sinking, students will appreciate that cold forming leads to an increase in metal hardness (Hosford, 2005).

While the UK government has expended significant effort to encourage interest in Science and Engineering programmes, the uptake among Afro Caribbean students remains low. To encourage interest among this group, interventions are required that present abstract concepts using familiar, concrete examples. One avenue that holds considerable promise is ethnic musical instruments, the area explored in this paper. They are familiar to the target group as a component of a cultural festival. Further, their construction and operation enables the demonstration of manufacturing processes and engineering concepts in an integrative manner. Combined, both factors enable the creation of an intervention that covers a range of learning domains and styles that is carefully targeted at a difficult to reach, high risk group. Further work in the form of a pilot study is required, however to realise this potential.

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## Book Review

**Connell, J., and Page, S. (Eds.) (2010). *Event Tourism: Critical Concepts in Tourism*. Oxon: Routledge**

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Event Tourism has only fairly recently been identified as an area for serious academic study. However, in just over twenty years Event Tourism has expanded rapidly and gone from being described as “an emerging giant” (Getz and Frisby, 1988:22) to a phenomenon which occupies “significant status” in both domestic and international mass tourism markets (Picard and Robinson, 2006:p2). Events that are cultivated for tourism audiences have also become increasingly popular with governments because of their “reputation for being versatile events” that can be used to derive “inward investment, urban regeneration, and infrastructural improvement” (Gold and Gold, 2005:5). Even if the impacts generated remain difficult to quantify, the increasing significance of Event Tourism is undeniable. Countries, governments and communities around the world have embraced Event Tourism as part of their tourism and economic development strategies.

Research in the field has grown exponentially. Academics in a variety disciplines have used a range of approaches to study this rapidly expanding area of tourism. Connell’s and Page’s *Event Tourism: Critical Concepts in Tourism* marks the coming of age of this once fledging field. Their four-volume collection compiles seventy-four seminal works on Event Tourism which highlight the considerable growth in research output that has taken place, particularly, within the last two decades. Journal articles and other key studies have been drawn from publications based in subject areas which include leisure, cultural studies, tourism, geography, sociology and medicine.

Each volume highlights a major theme in Event Tourism, which is further divided into a number of sub-themes. A cursory glance at the table of contents of this collection enables even a novice to quickly make sense of the key of concepts, approaches, applications and directions that have shaped this relatively new topic thus far. For academics already engaged in research in the area, it provides a useful history of the work that has already been done and highlights potential research gaps and alternative perspectives to be explored. The collection also provides a useful base from which practitioners such as event managers, visitor attraction managers, urban planners and environmentalists can gain a deeper appreciation of the range of issues involved in developing Event Tourism strategies.

Event Tourism literature includes contributions from both academics and practitioners writing about many specific event types (Getz, 2008). Connell’s and Page’s four-volume collection, which comprises ‘The Evolution of Event Tourism’, ‘Effects, Role, and Significance’, ‘Event Tourism Destinations’, and ‘Managing Event Tourism’, encapsulates a range of theoretical and practical perspectives on cultural, arts and entertainment, business and trade, educational, sporting, recreational and private events. The collection succeeds in providing a remarkably representative sampling of the diversity of research published in the field. Admittedly, there is a focus on destination tourism, and on mega and hall mark events, such as international sporting competitions, but this is keeping with key trends currently driving Event Tourism. The growth in international tourism has been phenomenal in the last two decades and the sporting industry continues to dominate global leisure activity, with the international sport industry shifting from being “a niche in the sport market place to constituting the very foundation of the sport enterprise” (Fay and Snyder, 2007: p.186).

The editors, both leading scholars in the field, have also included a helpful introduction to the collection, which in addition to providing an overview to each volume, provides readers with a feel for the major themes identified. It highlights the various conceptualisations and classifications of events, both historically and more recently. Also outlined, is the early development of event tourism, from the ancient Olympic Games, which provides one of the first recorded examples of sport and event tourism (Weaver and Lawton, 2006), to the first international expo - The Great Exhibition - held in 1851 and the establishment of the early professional Event Management bodies. Additionally, some attention is paid to the increasing significance of events both in terms of their role in tourism and economic development strategies and the range of impacts that they derive. The one improvement that could be suggested to the collection would be to have separate introductions to each of the volumes so that readers could gain a deeper appreciation of the individual themes explored.

Connell's and Page's *Event Tourism: Critical Concepts in Tourism* is truly a useful resource, which gives readers, whether students, academics or practitioners, an accessible roadmap into a field which intersects disparate discourses to bring together "diverse communicants" to a common table (Getz, 2008:422). It provides synthesis, structure and valuable insights into a rapidly expanding area research which has grown exponentially and will continue to be of great significance to scholars, students and professionals within the field for some time to come.

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The Creative Industries have been receiving a great deal of attention within public and private sector institutions and also academia recently. These industries encapsulate a wide range of institutions which vary substantially in size, scope and function. Additionally, the term “Creative Industries” has been interpreted in a number of ways in discourse. The LJTSCI is issuing a call for papers from academics, researchers and practitioners which contribute to an understanding of the Creative Industries and highlight the diversity, and dynamism of organisations operating in this sector. As usual the journal welcomes a variety of submissions, including research papers, case studies, research notes and works-in-progress. See the following pages for our editorial policies.

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