

5-22-2006

A Comparison of Travel Behaviors of African American and White Travelers to an Urban Destination: The Case of New Orleans

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A COMPARISON OF TRAVEL BEHAVIORS OF AFRICAN AMERICAN AND
WHITE TRAVELERS TO AN URBAN DESTINATION:
THE CASE OF NEW ORLEANS

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
University of New Orleans
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Urban Studies
Urban Tourism

by

Kim Howard Williams

B.A. University of New Orleans, 1995
M.B.A. University of New Orleans, 2000

May 2006

DEDICATION

Hurricane Katrina impacted my life and that of almost all the citizens in New Orleans. I lost all of my tangible personal possessions. However, I have not lost the most precious gifts that the Lord has given to me. Without the wonderful family and friends that God places in my path each day, this chapter in my life would have never been completed.

My husband, Richard, Sr. has given me all of the love and support that any wife/student could ask. You worked so hard so that I could finish and focus on my studies. You also introduced me to another world of academic studies that I would have never considered. I now have the balance that is so desperately needed in the world today. I understand not only the bottom line, but the implications of these decisions upon people. You are the greatest! I love you.

To my kids Ashley, Richard, Jr., and Kristi, thanks for allowing mom to pursue her dreams. You are the sunshine in my life. You have so patiently watched Mom travel and study for many nights. You have served as my motivation and inspiration to continue my education. Your smiles always make everything I do worthwhile. You have also provided valuable counseling and lessons through your own words and actions that I treasure. Always believe that you can always reach the stars regardless of what roadblocks are in your way. If you dream it, you can and will achieve it! I love you!

Mom and Dad, Anita and Rene Howard, Sr., thanks for encouraging me all of my life to be the best that I could be. Your support to me and my family has been truly a blessing. For over 36 years, your marriage has been an inspiration in this world of chaos. You have both always given up everything for us while growing up, and you offer the same for my kids today. You always preached that we should go as far as we could go and you would always support us.

You have never let me down. Thanks for always coming to my rescue! Now I can return the favor. Love you Mom and Dad.

To my brother, Rene, Jr., thanks for all that you have done while here and away. You always seem to have the answers when I call on you like only a big brother could. You always make me smile no matter what I am going through. My nephew and God Child, Rene III, makes me smile the same way you do. I miss you and I love you both.

To my grandfather, Albert Johnson, Sr., thanks for all that you have done for my family while I completed school. I am still amazed at your youthfulness! You have been a wonderful voice of inspiration to me. I am so glad that I was able to achieve this degree with you by my side. Thanks for always monitoring my progress and showing your pride to others.

To my brother Chris, grandmothers Myrtle and Miriam, grandfather Henry, Sr. and Aunt Marion who could not be here physically to share this special moment with me. I know that you are spiritually present. I love you and I am always thinking of you.

To my mother-in-law, Julie Wells, thanks for helping me so that I could attend school. I truly appreciate all of your encouragement and spiritual mentoring when I needed it most. You've been there through thick and thin and I love you for it.

Mother (Odile Lewis), thanks for all that you gave to our family as well. You helped me to focus on my studies while you took care of the house. Thanks for all of the prayers and smiles that you put on my face. I miss you much.

To all of my family that is dispersed in Texas, Georgia, and Louisiana due to Hurricane Katrina, I love you, miss you, and thank you for all of your encouragement. You all have served as role models, and I cannot wait to have a family gathering again! In particular, I thank my aunts, uncles, and cousins, Alicia, Claire, Germaine, Louis, Anthony, Eric, Sharon and Wayne,

Melissa, Kai, Kelley, Kristal. I thank you for encouraging me to complete my studies. You have always been there to lend a helping hand and I will always love you for it.

To Dr. Harsha Chacko, thanks for everything. You were there until the end. I am so glad you helped me to the finish line. You have challenged me beyond my potential. You have been so wonderful, kind, and understanding. You've mentored me from the beginning, even when I taught my first class. You were there when I submitted my first article. You were there when I presented my first paper at CHRIE. You were there throughout the dissertation process. Who would have ever thought that I was your first doctoral student? I have learned so much from you. You have never let me down, and have shown me how to be a mentor to my future students. Thanks for sticking by my side. You have been a blessing!

I would like to thank the faculty in the College of Urban and Public Affairs, especially my committee members Dr. David Gladstone, Dr. Marla Nelson, and Dr. Bob Whelan for their support throughout the program. Thanks for being so wonderful to my family. You made time for me even when we all endured very trying times. You were always there. Thanks for everything.

To the wonderful faculty in the Lester E. Kabacoff School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Tourism, thanks for supporting me throughout the dissertation process. A special thanks to Dr. John Williams for his wonderful feedback, and always graciously assisting me with my research.

To Dr. Yvette Green, do not ever forget, "we will survive." You have been so wonderful to me. You are truly an inspiration for our African American generation. Your encouragement, inspiration, and mentorship means a great deal to me. Your family adopted my family and it feels like we have known each other forever. Thanks to you and your family for all the love shown to my family.

To Ms. Martha Said, thanks for always encouraging me throughout the dissertation process. You would not let me hang my head down for long (especially with all the laughs!). I appreciate all of your love and support of my family through it all.

Last but not least, I would like to encourage the victims of Hurricane Katrina and New Orleans to rebuild. Tourism can and will survive. Tourism highlights the soul of New Orleans and all that the city has to offer. We are resilient. We must have faith and know that God is always in the plan. Laissez les bon temps roulez!

I truly believe that God has put you all in my life to inspire, encourage, and challenge me. I love you all!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to give a special thanks to all of my committee members Dr. Harsha Chacko, Dr. David Gladstone, Dr. Bob Whelan, and Dr. Marla Nelson who bent over backwards for me following the aftermath of Hurricane Katrina. I would like to especially thank Dr. Harsha Chacko for serving as my major advisor and Dr. Yvette Green for serving initially as my major advisor. This research developed as a result of data collected for other organizations. I would like to thank Dr. Janet Speyrer, Ms. Marianne Hawkins Marcell, the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation, and the New Orleans Convention and Visitors Bureau for allowing me to reanalyze the data. Thanks to the faculty of both the College of Urban Studies and the Lester E. Kabacoff School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Tourism for their input and inspiration.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract	x
Chapter 1	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Purpose of Research	2
Research Questions	2
Justification of the Study	2
Growth in African American Buying Power	4
African Americans as a Travel Market	4
Growth in Minority Populations	6
Conceptual Model	7
Significance of the Study	9
Plan of the Dissertation	9
Chapter 2	11
Urban Tourism	12
New Orleans and Tourism	17
The African American Middle Class	22
Purpose of Trip	26
Research on Race and Recreation Behavior	26
Beginning of Research on Minority Recreation Behavior	27
Marginality Perspective	30
Ethnicity Perspective	35
Contemporary Discrimination Hypothesis	37
Gender and Leisure	39
Conceptual Model	40
Research Questions	41
Explanation of the Conceptual Model	42
Hypotheses	44
Conclusion	50
Chapter 3	52
Intercept Surveys	52
Advantages of Intercept Surveys	52
Limitations of Intercept Surveys	53
Survey Instrument	53
Data Collection	56
Target Population and Sampling Frame	57
Sample	58

Recoding Data.....	59
Data Analysis.....	60
Limitations.....	61
 Chapter 4.....	 65
Results.....	65
Statistical Analysis.....	67
The Effect of Race on Trip Characteristics.....	65
The Effect of Race and Income on Trip Characteristics.....	73
Lower Income Traveler Comparisons.....	73
Higher Income Traveler Comparisons.....	80
The Effect of Race and Gender on Trip Characteristics.....	86
Female Traveler Comparisons.....	86
Male Traveler Comparisons.....	92
Analysis of Variance.....	98
Gender and Race.....	98
Income and Race.....	107
Summary of Findings.....	115
Summary of Findings for Race and Trip Characteristics.....	115
Summary of Findings for Race and Income on Trip Characteristics.....	117
Summary of Findings for Race and Gender on Trip Characteristics.....	118
Summary of Findings for the Analysis of Variance.....	120
 Chapter 5.....	 121
Discussion, Implications, and Future Research.....	121
Review of the Conceptual Model.....	121
Summary of the Results.....	122
Future Research.....	137
Tourism in Post-Katrina New Orleans.....	139
 Bibliography.....	 142
 Appendices.....	 151
Survey Version A.....	152
Survey Version B.....	153
Measurement of Variables.....	154
 Vita.....	 155

ABSTRACT

After the U.S. Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s and the desegregation of public transportation and facilities and with the advancements that African Americans have gained in education, income, and employment, African Americans have greater access to travel opportunities. Today's African Americans travel in greater numbers than ever before and represent a dynamic and growing travel market segment that according to the Travel Industry Association of America (TIA) (2003) generated 75 million person trips in 2002. Although there have been several studies conducted on the differences between ethnic or racial groups with regard to their participation in outdoor recreation, research on differences between African American and White traveler behaviors in the urban tourism context is sparse. This study examined the differences between African American and White travelers who visited the city of New Orleans. Specifically, the study investigated demographic variables (income and gender) for their contribution to the differences between African American and White travelers in the modes of travel, activities participated in, sources of travel information, importance of destination activities, satisfaction with destination attributes, and spending patterns. Significant differences were found in modes of travel, activities participated in, sources of information, information of destination attributes findings (popular, African American Values, and sport and recreation), satisfaction with New Orleans on the destination attributes entertainment, African American Values, and spending. Although the findings of this study reflect the trip characteristics of travelers to New Orleans, future research should examine the applicability to other urban tourism destinations.

CHAPTER 1

After the U.S. Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s and the desegregation of public transportation and facilities and with the advancements that African Americans have gained in education, income, and employment, African Americans have greater access to travel opportunities. Today's African Americans travel in greater numbers than ever before and represent a dynamic and growing travel market segment that according to the Travel Industry Association of America (TIA) (2003) generated 75 million person trips in 2002. Although there have been several studies conducted on the differences between ethnic or racial groups with regard to their participation in outdoor recreation, research on differences between African American and White traveler behaviors in the urban tourism context is sparse. This study will explore differences between African American and White travelers who visited the city of New Orleans. More specifically, this study will investigate demographic variables that contribute to differences between African American and White travelers in the mode of travel, activities participated in, source of travel information, importance of destination activities, satisfaction with destination attributes, and spending patterns.

Statement of the Problem

As a result of the paucity of research on race and travel, there is no definitive explanation of the factors that influences the leisure-travel behaviors of African Americans. Prior research (Washburne, 1978; Floyd & Shinew, 1999; Floyd, McGuire, Shinew, & Noe, 1994, and Floyd, 1998) on the differences between African American and White travel behaviors focused on historical discrimination and a lack of economic resources resulting from limited educational opportunities, residential segregation, and work opportunities as underlying factors explaining the differences in recreational activities and the lack of participation by African Americans in

outdoor recreation. Yet, the differences in travel behavior have not been empirically identified (Gaillard, 1998).

Purpose of Research

The purpose of this study is to examine the tourism preferences and behaviors of African American and White travelers visiting an urban tourism destination. The main objective of this research is to determine what differences exist, if any, between the trip characteristics of African American and White travelers to New Orleans. Two factors, income and gender, have been identified from the literature review as having a significant influence upon the travel characteristics of White and African American travelers. Thus, the research will examine the differences between African American and White travelers' income and gender upon their travel characteristics such as modes of travel, activities participated in, source of travel information, destination activities, satisfaction with destination attributes, and spending patterns.

Research Questions

The following questions form the foundation for the research described in this study:

1. Are there significant differences in the travel behaviors between African American and White travelers visiting New Orleans?
2. Are there significant differences in income and gender between African American and White travelers visiting New Orleans?
3. Which demographic variables (income and gender) explain the differences in trip characteristics between African American and White travelers visiting New Orleans?

Justification of the Study

Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world (Goeldner, Ritchie, & McIntosh, 2000, Plog, 2004). In the United States, tourism is the third largest industry

generating an annual \$537.2 billion in expenditures from domestic and international travelers (Travel Industry Association of America, 2002). The tourism market has become highly competitive as a result of the significance and growth of tourism.

Destination marketing organizations (DMOs) such as the New Orleans Convention and Visitors Bureau and the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation operate on limited budgets. DMOs around the world rely on effective marketing campaigns and strategies and segmenting the market into smaller profitable niche markets provides new opportunities for tourism destinations to increase visitation and revenue.

One of the important aspects of marketing is understanding the needs and wants of customers. This study will benefit DMOs from New Orleans by providing a clearer picture of the trip characteristics and behaviors of African American travelers. This research may also be appropriate for other urban tourism destinations with a substantial share of African American visitors to aid in formulating their marketing campaigns.

Understanding tourist motivations has important ramifications for the tourism industry. Knowing what types of people visit particular destinations and what activities they participate in at the selected destinations helps the industry better target their markets. DMO's can maximize their advertising dollars by utilizing the best marketing campaigns to attract those particular visitors.

Previous research regarding the differences between African American and White travelers has relied on telephone interviews or surveys to gather information about trips taken or barriers to recreation participation (Washburne, 1978; Gailliard, 1998; Willming, 2001). This study is based on visitor intercept surveys conducted at various sites throughout New Orleans. Tourists were randomly selected during their visit to New Orleans and asked to participate in an

intercept survey regarding their trip characteristics and spending. Thus, memories of trip characteristics and spending are fresh while participating in the tourism experience as opposed to recalling the information later as in telephone interviews. Additionally, this study examines those who are participating in the tourism experience versus other research methods where the propensity of African Americans to travel was measured.

Growth in African American Buying Power

In less than a decade, African Americans have increased their purchasing power by \$231 billion dollars (Whigham-Desir, 1996, and The Buying Power of African American America, 2003). In 1996, African Americans represented more than \$400 billion in purchasing power while comprising 12.9% of the U.S. population (Whigham-Desir, 1996). In 2002, African Americans represented more than \$631 billion in purchasing power while comprising 13% of the U.S. population (The Buying Power of African American America, 2003). With an increase in disposable income, better paying jobs and educational opportunities, and leisure time, African Americans are consuming a diverse range of products and services (Travel Industry Association of America, 1996).

African Americans as a Travel Market

According to the “The Buying Power of African American America Survey” (2003), African Americans spent \$2.5 billion dollars on entertainment and leisure and \$5.1 billion in travel and lodging. Entertainment and leisure in 2003 represents an approximate 40 percent increase and travel and lodging represents an approximate 20 percent increase over 1996 figures (The Buying Power of African American America, 1997). Furthermore, while other ethnic groups are growing in population, African American consumers are outspending other minorities on apparel, food and beverage, and travel (The Buying Power of African American America,

2003). In fact, it is estimated that the nation's African American buying power (the total personal income of residents that is available, after taxes, for spending on virtually everything purchased) was to have risen from \$318 billion in 1990 to \$590 billion in 2000, to \$761 billion in 2005, to \$1 trillion in 2010, an increase by 222 percent in 21 years (Humphreys, 2005). This overall percentage gain outstrips the 164 percent increase in the buying power of White Americans and the 177 percent increase in total buying power of all races combined (Humphreys, 2005). With these significant gains and influence, African Americans are aggressively being targeted by the \$537.2 billion U.S. travel industry (TIA, 2000).

Middle and upper class African American travelers present similar market opportunities as do White travelers for the travel industry. The average African American traveler takes four trips per year and spends roughly \$428 on each trip (TIA, 2000). Similarly, the average White traveler takes four trips per year and spends approximately \$15 to \$20 more on each trip than African Americans (TIA, 2000). African American travel volume grew by 4 percent from 2000 to 2002 (increasing from 72.2 million to 75.2 million person-trips) which is higher than the two percent increase for travelers overall during the same time period (TIA, 2003). According to the TIA (2003), a majority of African-American person-trips are for leisure (74%), most often to visit friends or relatives (44%). One in five (22%) African-American person-trips are taken for business, including combined business and pleasure purposes. Nearly three times as many African-American person-trips involve group tours (10% vs. 3%) compared to U.S. travelers overall. African-American households spend \$428 per trip, on average, excluding spending on transportation to their destination.

Growth in Minority Populations

Although more African Americans are being targeted by the U. S. travel industry, a review of the literature suggests that the tourism attitudes, preferences or choices, and behavior of this very large group of Americans have been given very little attention (Phillipp, 1994). The absence of research is of concern because racial and ethnic populations in the U.S. are increasingly diversifying. According to the U.S. Census Bureau's 2004 U.S. Interim Projections by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin, non-White racial and ethnic groups represent 31.6 percent of the U. S. population; however, by 2050 racial and ethnic populations are predicted to increase to 49.9% whereas the European American population will decrease to 50.1 percent (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004). The African American population is expected to increase from 12.7 percent in 2000 to 14.6 percent in 2050 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004). Because of this expected population trend, researching the factors that influence the leisure travel behaviors of African Americans will become progressively more significant and thereby justifies scholarly attention (Willming, 2001).

According to the Travel Industry Association of America, *The Minority Traveler* (2003) report, African Americans, Hispanics, and Asian-Americans as minority groups have increased substantially in the last few decades. Along with their percentage increase in the population, these growing consumer segments reflect a greater spending power that challenges the United States travel industry to better understand and better serve these particular markets. The major difference found between the minority groups and the overall U.S. travel population examined in *The Minority Traveler* (2003) was culture. Each minority group segment is comprised of various ethnic groups with their own distinct language, culture, and dialect. Thus, studying African

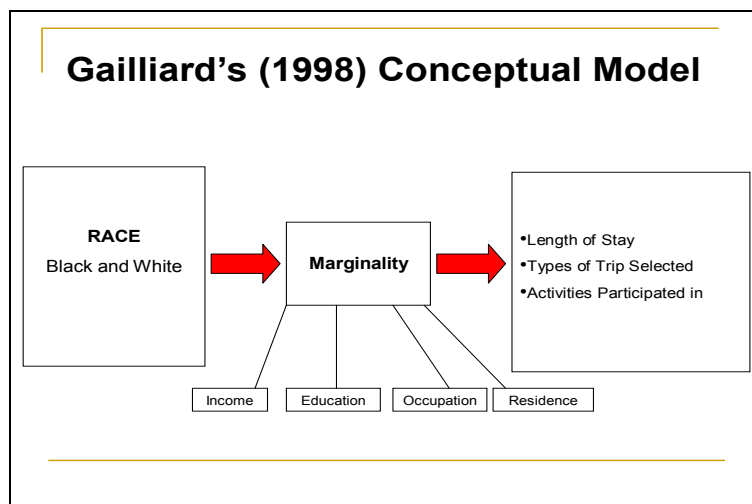
American traveler behaviors in this study reflects their own unique culture that is different from the trip characteristics or behaviors of Hispanics or Asian-Americans.

Conceptual Model

Gailliard (1998) examined the differences between African American and White travelers with respect to selected travel behavior models. Gailliard's model in Figure 1 was developed to understand the relationship between race, marginality (related to poverty and socioeconomic discrimination), and travel behavior. The variables utilized included race, predictors of marginality (income, education, occupation, and residence), and travel behavior (length of stay, types of trip selected, activities participated in).

Gailliard (1998) suggested that there was an interrelationship among the following variables: predictors of marginality and length of stay, predictors of marginality and type of trip selected, predictors of marginality and activities participated in during leisure travel, predictors of marginality and race, and race and activities participated in during leisure travel.

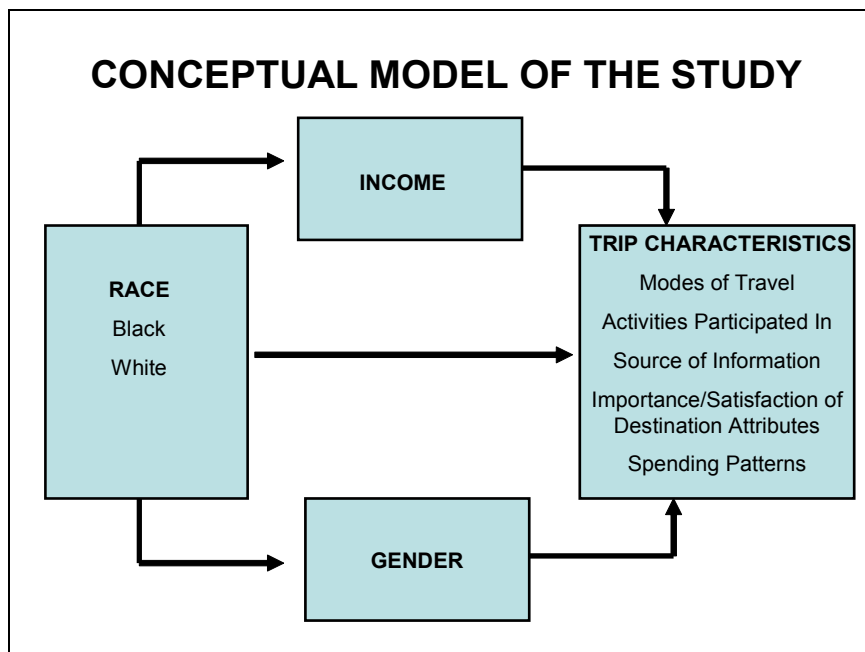
Figure 1. Gailliard's (1998) Conceptual Model of the Study



Source: Gailliard (1998)

For this study, Gailliard's (1998) conceptual model was modified and empirically tested in an urban setting, namely New Orleans. The model in Figure 2 utilizes race as the primary dependent variable; income and gender as moderating variables, and the trip characteristics of modes of travel, activities participated in, source of travel information, importance of destination activities, satisfaction with destination attributes, and spending patterns as independent variables.

Figure 2. Conceptual Model of the Study



This study differs from Gailliard since marginality per se is not being tested. Gailliard examined the effects of marginality on the trip characteristics between White and African American travelers. The population studied in Gailliard's research was interviewed via a nationwide telephone survey and included African Americans and Whites who had traveled at least once in the last two years. Hence, participants were asked to recall their trip characteristics from prior vacations taken. This study focused on White and African American travelers who were currently visiting New Orleans and thus, possessed the socioeconomic means to travel. Tourists were intercepted during their visit while their memories of the trip characteristics were

fresh to gain accurate data as opposed to recalling their experiences after the trip which may result in inaccurate information. Additionally, the travelers in this study may not be reflective of the U.S. population as examined in Gailliard's study, since the sample was collected only from visitors to New Orleans.

Significance of the Study

In spite of the tourism industry being one of the fastest growing industries in the world, in the United States tourism is considered a "mature market" since approximately 80 percent of Americans travel (Norman, 2001). Consequently, DMOs and tourism industry service providers have shifted their focus to developing new niche markets for their services.

In the 1990s, DMOs viewed African American travelers as a potentially growing niche market with economic potential. According to Norman (2001), the industry began to test the African American market through targeted advertising, minority travel guides, and ethnic promotions. The Travel Industry Association of America (TIA) (2000) released a report that revealed that African American travel volume increased 16% from 1996-1999. This was extremely significant considering the fact that the overall travel among U.S. residents increased by only 1 percent during that period (Travel Industry Association of America, 2001).

Although the African American market is undoubtedly one of the fastest growing travel and tourism market segments, the present research comparing the travel behaviors of African Americans and Whites is exploratory since it is one of the first studies to compare the travel behaviors of African Americans and Whites who have the discretionary income to travel to urban destinations. Previous studies focused mostly on the differences in outdoor recreational activities between African Americans and Whites.

Plan of the Dissertation

The dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter 2 will review the relevant literature on ethnic and racial theories, African American demographics, race and leisure, and Gailliard's (1998) conceptual model that was modified for this study. Chapter 3 will present the methodology for the research. Chapter 4 will include the results of the analysis. Finally, Chapter 5 will summarize the interpretation of the results, the conclusion, planning and policy implications, and avenues for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Race and Tourism in an Urban Context

According to the World Tourism Organization (1997), tourism is comprised of the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes. Tourism is vital to the United States economy. The U.S. is the world's third leading tourism destination in terms of visitor arrivals behind France and Spain, yet, the U.S. is the world's top tourism earner based on international tourist receipts (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2003). Tourism is the third largest retail industry behind automobile and food sales. Domestic and international travelers in the U.S. spent \$554.5 billion in travel expenditures (TIA, 2003). Additionally, travel and tourism is the second largest employer providing 7.2 million jobs and this employment directly generated by travel has increased at a quicker pace than total U.S. nonagricultural employment (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2003). Tourism's vitality in the U.S. adds cost saving benefits to each household. In fact, each household would pay \$889 extra in taxes without the tax revenue generated by the travel and tourism industry (TIA, 2003). This literature review begins with a review of urban tourism and then focuses on New Orleans as an urban tourism destination. The growth and economic strength of the African American middle class is described because these factors aid in explaining African Americans greater participation in leisure activities. Next, the theories used in research on African Americans and Whites leisure preferences and differences are presented. Additionally, the existing literature on gender and leisure and purpose of trip is examined. After a review of the literature, the conceptual model is presented.

Urban Tourism

Cities in the United States faced new and continuing challenges following the World War II era. Deindustrialization created problems for many large cities. Jobs disappeared, unemployment increased, and derelict sites emerged primarily in the inner city (Law, 1996). In the United States, homeownership became more attractive in the suburbs. As higher income families relocated to their preferred location in the suburbs, the growing service sector economy followed the expanding population base (Turner and Rosentraub, 2002). By the 1980s, cities responded to decentralization by aggressively competing for events, venues, corporate locations, and economic activities to revive their economies. State and local governments spent more than \$2 billion annually on sports arenas and convention centers by the mid-1990s, and cities also invested in festival malls, urban entertainment districts, waterfront areas, and parks (Eisenger, 2000). In addition, airports, highways, roads, bridges, mass-transit systems, security, street lighting, beautification programs, and other amenities and services have been built to accommodate larger tourist flows (Judd, 2003).

Research on urban tourism's scale, importance, and significance in cities is often not recognized due to the complexity of the phenomenon (Law, 1996). Page (1995) identified three approaches in conceptualizing the different ways to view urban tourism:

1. The supply of tourism facilities in urban areas, where the categorization and inventories of facilities by geographers has led to research on the distribution of hotels, restaurants, attractions, shopping, night-life, and other tourist-related services.
2. The demand for urban tourism, where research has largely been descriptive to establish who visits urban tourist destinations, why they visit, the patterns and behavior of tourist activities, and the ways in which such destinations are perceived by visitors.

3. Policy perspectives on urban tourism, generated by planners and the private sector, which are not widely disseminated and restricted to those organizations who generate the studies or who have a vested interest in the tourism sector.

The rise of urban tourism is attributable to a number of trends in society. According to Law (1996), visitors to cities include visits to friends and relatives, short break leisure visitors, visitors using the city as a gateway, conference and exhibition visitors, and business travelers. Secondly, Law states that the combination of increased leisure time and increased affluence has resulted in the growth of leisure industries. Leisure time is defined as free time or time that a person uses to their discretion. Next, Law finds that discretionary income, or income that is available after basic living costs have been paid, has been rising rapidly for many people in society. Many households have two income earners that result in more households having discretionary income. Also, higher educational attainment has resulted in households possessing more discretionary income. As a result, the combination of free time and discretionary income enables the consumer to spend money on leisure activities. The growth of these leisure activities and expenditures is the context for the expansion of tourism as a form of leisure outside of the home (Law, 1996).

Cities are considered the major tourist destinations by international and domestic travelers in the United States. According to Blank (1996), two factors which ensure the dominance of cities in tourism are that 1) the great majority of the US population lives in metropolitan areas, and 2) cities attract travelers at an even higher per capita rate than other parts a state. Cities attract travel at higher per capita rates because cities are the center of many human activities and interactions that involve both residents and tourists. Cities have aggressively

sought tourism as a vital component of their urban economies. For many cities, tourism has regenerated the economy by creating jobs, transportation, and infrastructure projects such as hotels, retail, and leisure amenities. Thus, cities have created tourist attractions and facilities to lure back tourists.

Jansen-Verbeke (1986) notes that promoters of urban tourism include all institutions and organizations determined to develop and promote tourism flows to the destination. Their intentions include attracting more visitors to the destination, achieving a higher rate of visitors, and extending the duration of visits. Promoters of urban tourism are responsible for directly influencing tourists and potential tourists through image building of destination as a tourist place and how they inform visitors about the tourist resources that are available. Promoters of tourism intend to realize product improvement offered to tourists. By surveying tourists at urban tourism destinations in an attempt to gain insight into visitor characteristics, promoters of urban tourism ensure that their targeted visitor groups are reached and thus increase their chances of realizing their intentions.

Blank (1996) provided a classification of tourism destinations in U.S. cities based on the tourist attractions and amenities offered. The three-part classification system includes cities with high-amenity sites, specialty tourism cities, and hinterland metropolitan areas. According to Blank, whereas cities with high amenities and specialty tourism cities were once considered attractive travel destinations, hinterland cities travel appeal has altered dramatically within recent decades. Cities with high amenities possess natural resources such as mountains, water recreation, and winter sun which are ideal for sightseeing and fun in the sun and water. Two examples are San Diego, California and Miami, Florida which offer tourist beaches and sun

almost year round. Specialty tourism cities are not blessed with the advantages of high-amenity sites, but possess other characteristics which rates high as tourist destinations. These cities possess manmade and/or historical attractions, which lure tourists to their destinations. Orlando, Florida with Walt Disney World attractions and Las Vegas, Nevada and its casinos are two examples of cities with many man-made amenities. Philadelphia and Boston offer historical attractions related to the birth of the nation (Blank, 1996).

Hinterland cities such as Duluth Minnesota, lack the natural or manmade attractions offered by high-amenity sites and specialty tourism cities. Yet, their location near water, either inland lakes or rivers, provides a tremendous advantage. The disadvantage of a lack of attractions has become blurred as hinterland cities have aggressively upgraded their attractions for their residents and tourists to rival the amenities offered by high amenity and special cities. Thus, the upgrading, development, and new investment in tourism infrastructure have helped hinterland destinations compensate for their lack of resources possessed by high-amenity sites (Blank, 1989).

Blank (1996) offered that each U.S. city has a significant tourism industry, but the main purpose of visit for tourists varies greatly. Blank found the main purpose of visitation for travelers to Atlanta, Georgia (34%) and Chicago, Illinois (37%) was for business and conventions. In contrast, Blank (1996) found that the main purpose of visitation for travelers to cities such as Detroit, Michigan (39%) and Kansas City, Missouri (46%) was to visit friends and relatives and, the main purpose of visitation for travelers to Orlando, Florida was for entertainment and sightseeing (53%). Thus, this demonstrates visitors to different cities have differences in terms of their purposes of visit.

Urban tourism destinations differ in their attractions as well as the type of visitors. For example, in a study on the differences between Wisconsin's rural and urban visitors, 96% of the visitors to a rural destination were on a leisure trip, whereas only 88% of the urban visitors were on a leisure trip (Travel Tracker, 2004). Visitors to rural destinations were more likely to stay overnight (72%) than urban visitors (58%). Although urban tourists stayed an average of two nights on their leisure trips in hotels/motels or with family and friends, the majority of rural visitors stayed in hotels, but their secondary overnight lodging choice was camping. Urban visitors were more likely to visit area attractions, participate in children's activities, go shopping, and attend spectator sports events than rural visitors who preferred relaxing activities such as fall color, natural beauty, fishing, and sightseeing (Travel Tracker, 2004).

Tourists travel to cities because cities are the center of many and varied human activities and interactions (Blank, 1996). Blank proposed a model to illustrate the types of activities that are travel attractors for residents and tourists. Blank defined travel attractors for cities as personal services (health care, education), population, conventions, hospitality services, shopping, sightseeing, travel, roads, airports, government headquarters, manufacturing, trade, and commerce, community events, entertainment and cultural events, and outdoor recreation. Thus, recreation is just one attraction that is offered by cities.

Recreation consists of attractions that maintain and provide admission to indoor and outdoor facilities involving sports and other recreation activities such as swimming pools, bowling alleys, ice skating rinks, golf courses, ski resorts, hiking trails, bicycle paths, and marinas (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2003). Previous research has focused on African American participation in outdoor recreation behavior such as hiking in national parks. This differs from recreation in the urban tourism context where recreation may include sightseeing, visiting

museums, theater, concerts, art galleries, museums, cinemas, events, festivals, and shopping (Jansen-Verbeke, 1996). Other recreational activities include golf, swimming, tennis, hiking, biking, and snow sports. In addition to these outdoor recreational activities, entertainment facilities such as casinos, bingo halls, and sexshows are found in urban tourism areas (Jansen-Verbeke, 1996). The U.S. Department of Agriculture Forest Service (1997) reported on outdoor recreation in the United States based on a national survey of 68 outdoor recreation activities. The U.S. Department of Agriculture of Forest Service's survey grouped individual activities into thirteen groups: fitness, individual sports, outdoor team sports, outdoor spectator sports, viewing or studying, snow and ice activities, camping, hunting, fishing, boating, swimming, outdoor adventure, and traditional social activities (Cordell, McDonald, Briggs, Teasley, Biesterfeldt, & Bergstron, 1997).

New Orleans and Tourism

New Orleans has been an attractive visitor destination for more than a century. New Orleans "acquired a national reputation as a beautiful and gracious place, and New Orleans was the nearest thing to a foreign city that Americans were likely to see within their national borders" beginning in the early nineteenth century (Lewis, 2003, p. 154). In the early days, New Orleans enjoyed economic prosperity as a result of cotton, tobacco, and sugarcane plantations. Additionally, steamboats along the Mississippi transferred and supplied the raw materials to the rest of country. The wealthy citizens of New Orleans hosted and participated in numerous festivals, theater, banquets, parades, opera houses, and spectacular balls for the wealthy and cultured citizens of the city. Consequently, New Orleans economic stability marked the beginning of the city's reputation as a party town.

The New Orleans shipping industry marked the beginning of the “hospitality industry” as the city became a major point of entry for the country. The transient population of seamen, immigrants, and tourists supplied a lucrative demand for restaurants, theatres, operas, bars, gambling houses, and redlight establishments. The most famous of these areas was Storyville which was named after city alderman Sidney Story. In 1897, Story proposed concentrating the “houses of ill repute” into one legalized district on Basin Street. Restaurants offered various types of cuisine including the distinct local Creole cuisine which catered to many cultures. The first operas in America were performed in New Orleans in the 1790s. Ante-bellum New Orleans was also considered the music capital of America. The city also boasted two particularly opulent hotels, the St. Charles and the St. Louis, whose restaurants, bars, and shops, constituted entire small cities themselves. Each hotel occupied an entire city block and could accommodate 1,000 guests.

Several celebrations and events in the nineteenth century marketed New Orleans as a tourist destination. Mardi Gras, or "Fat Tuesday," the celebration preceding Lent, began to develop by 1823. In 1827, many New Orleanians formed private clubs, and a group of men wore costumes and marched down the street, throwing flowers to the crowds. In 1857, the Mystic Krewe of Comus was the first to stage a nighttime parade that ended with a tableau ball. In 1872, the Krewe of Rex was rapidly formed to present a parade for the visiting Grand Duke of Russia.

Around 1884-85, New Orleans city fathers decided to stage an exposition as a public relations tool to improve the local economy after the Civil War. New Orleans hosted the largest festival of the period called the World’s Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition. The event

was located on two hundred sixty four acres of what is now called Audubon Park. The fair made New Orleans a world-class city for the first time in its history by declaring an end to the Civil war and announcing the city's desire to reestablish business contacts with the rest of the world. The Exposition was credited with profoundly affecting the city's long-term growth and altering the appearance of the city towards a more exuberant Victorian architecture (Lewis, 2003).

By the early 1900s, the New Orleans economy was dominated by river-based commerce, cotton trade, and a growing market for leisure and amusement (Gotham, 2002). During this time period, areas of New Orleans were devoted to leisure and entertainment in the form of public parks, sports grounds, theatres, art galleries, and shopping. Attractors for tourists such as the city's 'red light district' and jazz music ensured their repeat visitation to experience the 'sin' industry (Gotham, 2002).

In the 1930s, the discovery of oil sparked a phenomenal growth of the chemical and petroleum industry. By World War II, New Orleans established a repertoire as a hub for military shipbuilding and manufacturing. Over the decades, "political and economic elites promoted images of New Orleans as a charming city with beautiful and historical architecture, outstanding cuisine, and excellent music" (Gotham, 2002, p. 1740). Later in 1960, the economy was composed of three main industries: chemical and petroleum industry, the port industry, and the tourism industry (Gotham, 2002, Lauria et al., 1995).

It was not until the 1970s that tourism officials were beginning to fulfill their dreams of making New Orleans a convention destination. In 1975, the Louisiana Superdome and the Hyatt Regency Hotel's grand openings fueled the surge in New Orleans tourism that industry officials anticipated. The Superdome was constructed to serve as a convention and sports arena in the

New Orleans area. Proponents of the Superdome project insisted that it was a catalyst for high rise office construction along Poydras Street near the Superdome and spurred the rejuvenation of the Central Business District (Lauria et. al, 1995). Later, other hotel and office construction projects were spurred in the vicinity of the Superdome. In 1977, the Hilton Riverside opened adding 1,250 rooms to the pool of 15,962 rooms (Lewis, 2003).

Tourism's growth was arguably spawned by the 1984 Louisiana World's Fair which was held 100 years after the 1884 World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition. Although the Fair resulted in \$120 million in debt, "it marked an important juncture in the development of New Orleans' tourism marketing efforts" (Souther, 2002, p. 339). Although the Fair left behind no signature structure like the Eiffel Tower in Paris or the Space Needle in Seattle, the Fair "encouraged the concentration of the city's tourist infrastructure within a comfortable walking distance to an extent rivaled by most American cities" (Souther, 2002, p. 339).

The Fair resulted in the construction of The Ernest N. Morial Convention Center (formerly the New Orleans Convention Center), a hotel building boom, the Riverwalk Mall, the Aquarium of the Americas, Entergy IMAX theater, the redevelopment of the city's Warehouse District, and other attractions. The convention center was a boost to the city's economy when the oil industry, corporate mergers, and decline in blue-collar manufacturing all threatened the financial stability of the city. Major hotel chains such as the Marriott, Hilton, and Sheraton built on a large scale in anticipation of tourists which would subsequently provide additional hotel space for future conventions. The Riverwalk Mall, formerly the Pavillion Hall in the World's Fair, was remodeled into a food, entertainment, and shopping complex. The IMAX theater at the Fair sparked interest in a permanent facility in New Orleans. Since the World's Fair, the Audubon Institute has spent approximately \$250 million in capital improvements in the city

(Lewis, 2003). The development along the river was the catalyst for the rehabilitation of other structures as well. Developers found the empty warehouses along the river blocked the view of the river. The redevelopment of this area includes high-class condominium housing and restaurants. Overall, the Fair marketed the city of New Orleans to the world and was the catalyst for the development and growth of tourism.

In 1975, the Bayou Classic football game became a signature event to attract African Americans to New Orleans (Souther, 2002). The Bayou Classic was held annually and featured the college football teams of Southern University in Baton Rouge and Grambling State University. The game also featured the rival marching bands of the two historically black colleges which were a major attraction as much as the game itself. Event planners realized the draw of the bands and added a Battle of the Bands component which takes place the day before the big game. The Bayou Classic still attracts African Americans from around the country and is held Thanksgiving weekend.

As U.S. cities aggressively competed for tourist dollars, tourism industry officials were attracted to the emergence of the African American middle class in the 1980s (Souther, 2002). New Orleans jumped on the bandwagon as well, and New Orleans tourism leaders began to incorporate African American local public history and perspectives into the marketing of New Orleans cultural image (Souther, 2002). The Black Tourism Network (now called the Multicultural Tourism Network) was created in 1986 to attract African Americans to the city by promoting African American culture and attractions in New Orleans. The promotion of attractions, events, and festivals such as jazz nightclubs, the African American Museum of Art, Faubourg Tremé (the oldest African American neighborhood in the United States), Essence Musical Festival, and the Creole cuisine of African American restaurants like Dooky Chase's

and the Praline Connection were all vigorously promoted by Black Tourism Network to entice African American travelers to New Orleans (Souther, 2002).

Tourism is one of the top industries in New Orleans. In 2004, New Orleans boasted record attendance and spending by visitors. According to the University of New Orleans Hospitality Research Center (2004), 10.1 million visitors spent \$4.9 billion in the city, which resulted in \$57 million in local tax revenue and 80,000 jobs in the metropolitan area. The visitation figures represented an eighteen percent increase from the previous years 8.2 million visitors. The majority of visitor's (51%) had incomes between \$50,000-\$74,000 and 32.9% of visitors had an annual income between \$75,000-\$99,000 (Hospitality Research Center, 2004). Additionally, African American travelers comprised 19% of visitors which represented a 3% increase from 2003.

The African American Middle Class

The growth of the African American middle class in the United States and its impact on the travel industry has reflected the struggle of African Americans for equality and their advances in society. African American seniors, baby boomers, and many older generation "Xers" were not welcomed or permitted at many leisure travel destinations and facilities by Whites especially in the South prior to the Civil Rights movement of the 1960s (Floyd, 1999). After the Civil Rights movement, African Americans obtained significant gains in education and income. According to the *African American Travelers* report (1998), the African Americans' progress in the professions with gains up to 470 percent between 1972 and 1991 in areas such as accounting, engineering, computer programming, law, medicine, journalism and management. As a result of better educational opportunities, African Americans have received better paying jobs. With the better employment opportunities, African Americans have disposable income

which has afforded them the opportunity to travel for leisure. African Americans represent more than \$631 billion in purchasing power while comprising 13% of the U.S. population (The Buying Power of African American America, 2003).

African Americans economic prosperity is reflected in their increase in educational attainment and household income. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2004), record levels in educational attainment for African Americans were documented with 81% of African Americans age 25 and over earning at least a high school diploma in 2004 compared to 73% in 1994. In 2004, 18% of African Americans had attained at least a bachelor's degree compared to 13% from 1994. For African Americans age 25 and older, 1.1 million have advanced degrees (e.g., Master's, Ph.D., M.D. or J.D.) representing a 56.7% increase (624,000) from 1994. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2000), 27.4% of households headed by African-Americans have incomes of \$50,000 or more compared to 41.9% total U.S. households. Additionally, 5.9% of African American households reported incomes over \$100,000 out of the 12.3% of total U.S. households. Thus, of the 12,023,966 African American households in the U.S., 709,413 African American households possess incomes of \$100,000 or greater (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). The educational and economic advances gained by African Americans make them an extremely lucrative market for tourism industry officials and providers. Ensuring that African Americans receive the proper mix of attractions and services at tourism destinations will ensure their repeat visitation and satisfaction with the tourism product.

Goodrich (1985) was the first to study the leisure travel behaviors of African Americans (Willming, 2001). Goodrich found that African Americans preferred to travel to learn more about their own culture and lifestyles (89%), encounter new experiences (61%), experience the beauty of the country (40%), visit friends, relatives, and the land of ancestors (31%), and to

conduct business (5%). Additionally, African Americans cited a lack of money and time to travel, fear of flying, fear of change and being alone, poor health conditions, contentment in their community, and fear for their safety in unknown places as barriers to selecting vacations destinations. Although the sample included only African Americans, Goodrich concluded that African American travel behaviors were similar to that of White travelers.

Philipp (1993) questioned why Goodrich's work was the last research in a major journal devoted to African American tourist behavior since research was lacking in this particular area and since many African Americans possessed managerial, professional, and technical occupational backgrounds. Philipp further examined the differences of African Americans' and Whites' perceived attractiveness of tourism destination characteristics. In Philip's study, respondents were asked to rank three sets of photographs pertaining to types of destinations, interests, and cultural resources using Spearman's Coefficient of Rank Correlation and chi-square tests to analyze the results. Overall, strong positive correlations were found between African Americans' and Whites' rankings of the three research areas. Philipp's findings suggested that African Americans and Whites "are not very different in what they find attractive about tourism destinations" (p. 301). Philipp called for empirical documentation of African American visitation rates at great numbers of tourism destinations. This research would clarify if African Americans are under-represented at tourism destinations and earlier developed theories sufficiently explain the differences in African American and White tourism destination visitation rates. Additionally, the research would document the African American tourist experience in specific tourism destinations, and identify African American's comfort levels in these particular destinations.

In 1996, the Travel Industry Association of America published the *Minority Travel* report. According to Willming (2001), the report was the most comprehensive assessment of the travel behaviors of African Americans. The *Minority Travel* report identified the typical African American traveler as 46 years old, educated, married (50%), and more affluent than non-travelers. In 2003, an updated version of the *Minority Traveler* report was issued by TIA. The study indicated that 22% of U.S. African American households took a trip each month and generated 75.2 million person-trips compared to 31% of the total U.S. households generating 1,021.3 million trips. African American travelers were more likely to travel to destinations in the southern census divisions, specifically to the South Atlantic (37%), West South Central (15%), and East South Central (13%). The most popular states for African American travelers were, in order of popularity, Florida, North Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, Texas, South Carolina, Louisiana, Tennessee, and Mississippi, California, and New Jersey. Ten percent of these trips had expenditures of \$1000 or more, excluding transportation to the destination. The majority of trips taken were by owned car or truck. However, about one tenth of all African American travel included a rental car as a primary mode of transportation. One in seven trips included air transportation. The most common form of lodging used was hotels, motels, or bed and breakfasts similar to all U.S. travelers. However, African Americans were more likely to stay at friends or relatives homes and more likely to list their primary purpose of travel as visiting friends or relatives than total U.S. travelers. Shopping was the most popular activity (41%) compared to overall U.S. travelers (34%). Other popular activities for African American travelers included nightlife or dancing (13%), visiting historical places or museums (12%), attending cultural events or festival (12%), visiting amusements parks (12%), and gambling (12%). Group tours were more popular among African Americans (10%) compared to the

overall U. S. travelers (3%). African Americans were more likely to visit family and friends (44%) compared to total U. S. travelers (40%).

Purpose of Trip

People travel for many different reasons. Goeldner and Ritchie (2000) created a comprehensive classification of tourists. The classification included a detailed profile of tourists and their primary purpose of travel. Goeldner and Ritchie subdivided the main purposes of travel into four categories: business, visiting friends or relatives, other personal business, and pleasure. The primary activities regarding business travel included consultations, conventions, and inspections. Secondary activities for business travelers included dining out, recreation, shopping, sightseeing, and visiting friends or relatives. The primary activities for visiting friends or relatives include socializing, dining in, and home entertainment. The secondary activities for visiting friends or relatives include dining out, physical recreation, shopping, sightseeing, and urban entertainment. The primary activities for other personal business include shopping, visiting a lawyer, and medical appointments. The secondary activities for other personal business include dining out and visiting friends or relatives. The primary activities for pleasure include recreation, sightseeing, and dining out. The secondary activities for pleasure include visiting friends or relatives, convention, business, and shopping. Often just examining the primary reason for travel is a misleading since many travelers visit destinations for a combination of reasons such as combining business with vacation. (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2000).

Research on Race and Recreation Behavior

Researchers studying the differences between the recreation behavior of African Americans and Whites mainly utilized three theories. The first two theories have been widely used in the literature to illustrate the differences between the participation of African Americans

and Whites in recreation. These are the marginality perspective theory and ethnicity perspective theory. Washburne (1978) first introduced the marginality perspective theory and the ethnicity perspective theory to explain African Americans' underparticipation in outdoor recreation after analyzing the results of a 1969 survey of urban California African American and White residents. The third theory was the discrimination theory that emphasized the effects of contemporary discrimination on African Americans leisure preferences.

Beginning of Research on Minority Recreation Behavior

Research by social scientists and resource professionals on the differences between African American and White recreation behavior began in the 1960s and early 1970s when social turmoil was occurring in America. The National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (1968) report on race riots in urban ghettos found that the discriminatory practices that barred minorities from recreation resources and programs were factors contributing to the civil unrest occurring in major U.S. cities. Policymakers and resource professionals identified discrimination in recreation and leisure services as in other societal institutions such as housing and education. Consequently, research was undertaken at all governmental levels to determine the extent of African American and White differences in leisure participation and identify other factors responsible for the differences (Johnson et al, 1997).

Hauser (1962) was the first to mention the issue of recreation resource access and cost while describing African American underparticipation in outdoor recreation activities in the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) report. Hauser found that the African Americans' participation rate was lower than the White rate because of the high cost or the lack of suitable facilities.

Lindsey and Ogle (1972) later formalized Hauser's explanation by proposing the opportunity theory as an explanation for the differences in outdoor recreation that persisted while controlling for income. The opportunity theory states that minorities who were discriminated against and denied equal housing, residential segregation, and educational opportunities would become participants if these barriers were removed. Lindsey and Ogle (1972) researched African American recreation participation patterns in urban areas. They cited physical availability and costs as factors inhibiting African Americans' leisure while utilizing the opportunity theory to explain the phenomenon. Lindsey and Ogle believed that controlling for cost would eliminate differences between local and high income groups and equalize the activity participation rate. The opportunity theory was modified and adapted by Hendee (1969) to explain the lack of participation by African Americans in recreation. Hendee's original definition of the opportunity theory did not mention nor consider segregation, discrimination, nor matters pertaining to ignorance of opportunities for recreation.

Similarly, Craig (1972) researched African American participation in urban areas. He identified distance and cost as major impediments to leisure travel of African Americans. Craig noted that African Americans in the Deep South historically faced limited recreational experiences because few offerings were available to African Americans. Craig argued that the previous discrimination practices, low income, and lack of leisure time experienced by African Americans are the important restraining variables responsible for the differences in leisure patterns between African Americans and Whites. Thus, African Americans' leisure activities ultimately developed as a result of the constraining forces in place. Further, Craig emphasized the extent to which one identifies with a particular ethnic/racial group as an important variable to study (cited in Gomez, 2002).

Lee (1972) was among the first leisure researchers to steer discussions of ethnic recreation away from “merely reporting correlations of demographic variables and activities to more comprehensive discussions that linked recreation behavior to broader theories of social organization” (cited in Johnson et. al, 1997, p.2). Lee borrowed from the ethnic subculture theory which is the study of the meanings various ethnic groups place on recreation locations or activities. The important aspect of this theory centers on the definitions a group assigns to leisure behavior which are shaped by their everyday life experiences (Johnson et. al, 1997). Johnson et. al (1997) concluded that Lee’s work provides insight into the profile of people that visit recreation places or participate in recreation activities, and how these different groups behave in the recreational setting. Further, Johnson et. al (1997) found that a participant in recreational settings must decide if the real or imagined behavior of other visitors is compatible with his or her own expectations.

Antunes and Gaitz (1975) argued against African American underparticipation in outdoor recreation activities utilizing the compensation theory as the theoretical framework. Myrdal and others (1944) first presented the compensation theory when both de jure and de facto segregation of social activities existed. The compensation theory considers that African Americans’ leisure patterns reflect societal inequities; however, African Americans often overparticipate in outdoor recreation activities. Thus, African Americans marginal position in society causes them to aggressively participate in social and political activities organized and supported by other African Americans to minimize the effects of institutionalized racism (Johnson et. al, 1997). Further middle class African Americans have greater freedom of choice since the discriminatory practices that occurred in the past are not nearly as prevalent today. Therefore, middle class

African Americans may be less likely than African Americans of the 1940s to feel the need to personally compensate for societal inequities (Johnson et. al, 1997).

Marginality Perspective

Washburne was the first researcher to provide recreation researchers with conceptual definitions for ethnicity and marginality as explanations of underutilization of recreation resources by African Americans (Gomez, 2002). Washburne offered a formal theoretical framework that grounded the differing perspectives of race versus socioeconomic factors in socioeconomic theory. Further, he broadly interpreted marginality and ethnicity and categorized the various socioeconomic explanations of underparticipation or nonparticipation as marginality and racial/ethnic/subcultural explanations as ethnicity (Johnson et al., 1997).

The marginality perspective suggests that African Americans' lower participation rates in outdoor activities are a result of preventive factors such as poverty and socioeconomic discrimination (Washburne, 1978). The marginality perspective attributes the differences in recreation behavior to social structure barriers such as lack of discretionary funds, lack of transportation, and inadequate information about facilities (Johnson et al., 1997). Although the marginality perspective was initially developed to explain the differences in the rate of recreation participation between Whites and African Americans, the theory recognized that past sanctioned and unsanctioned discrimination prohibited racial and ethnic minorities from participating in society's major social and cultural institutions (Floyd, 1999). Washburne ultimately concluded that the marginality theory provided a limited understanding of leisure preference differences between African Americans and Whites as a result of employment and educational advances.

Washburne cited limitations with the secondary data he used to test the marginality and ethnicity perspectives. The 1969 data on leisure behavior of California residents in urban areas

surveyed African Americans and Whites with very low incomes and other disadvantages. Thus, he warned that the results were not reflective of larger state or national populations. Yet, Washburne felt that the data was a useful and rare attempt to analyze the leisure differences of African Americans and Whites with the same economic background.

Floyd (1999) found that an appealing aspect of the marginality perspective was that indicators of differential access to socioeconomic resources were easily measured. Income, employment and occupational status, access to transportation, social class, number of children, age, sex, education, residence, and homeownership have been used as marginality indicators previously (Gailliard, 1998; Johnson et al. 1997; Scott and Munson 1994; West 1989; Woodard, 1988).

To test the marginality theory, the rates of participation in outdoor activities between Whites and African Americans (or any other minority group) were compared while controlling socioeconomic factors (indicators of marginality). Since the marginality theory assumes that differences between the two groups were related to socioeconomic factors, Whites and African Americans of similar socioeconomic status were expected to show similar participation rates. If empirical testing was consistent with this expectation, the marginality theory was supported. If differences in participation rates remained after controlling for socioeconomic factors, then factors other than marginality were responsible for the interracial differences (Floyd, 1999).

Gailliard (1998) conducted a study to determine if differences existed between African American and White travelers with respect to travel behavior. The study examined the preference in activities participated in during leisure travel, types of trips selected, and length of stay in explaining the differences between African American and White travelers. Additionally, the study explored whether differences in travel behavior between African American and White

travelers were attributed to the social conditions of marginality (lower income status, lower educational status, lower occupational status, and segregated residence). The Gailliard (1998) study stated the need for research that focused on the empirical differences in the general travel behavior differences of African Americans and Whites participation patterns in recreational activities during leisure travel.

In her study, Gailliard (1998) used socioeconomic variables including income, education, occupation, and residence to explore the role of marginality in the behavior of African Americans and Whites. The marginality predictors were the mediating variables used to explain how race impacts or influences travel behavior (i.e. types of trips selected, length of stay, and activities participated in during leisure travel). Gailliard's (1998) model suggested five interrelationships among the variables: (1) predictors of marginality and length of stay; (2) predictors of marginality and type of trip selected; (3) Predictors of marginality and activities participated in during leisure travel; (4) predictors of marginality and race; and (5) race and activities participated in during leisure travel.

Gailliard (1998) found that length of stay was a function of marginality. The study revealed that there was a significant difference between income and length of stay and that income predicted length of stay. Although race alone was not significantly associated with length of stay, the interactive effects of race and income had a significant association with length of stay (Gailliard, 1998). Higher income travelers were not found to stay longer on a leisure trip than lower income travelers. Additionally, White travelers were found on average to stay longer on vacation than African Americans except when visiting family and relatives.

Gailliard (1998) also found that the type of trip selected as a function of marginality suggested that travelers' selection of different trips was influenced by income and occupation.

Higher income travelers were found to take shorter, more expensive leisure trips such as cruises, specialty trips, weekend packages, and several mini-vacations. Contrarily, lower income travelers were more likely to take trips visiting family and relatives. Blue collar workers stayed a shorter length of time during pleasure trips than white collar workers. Gailliard hypothesized that these differences occur since blue collar workers lack the income and vacation time to stay longer on trips.

Gailliard (1998) ascertained that measures of marginality such as income influenced the types of travel activities in which subjects participate. Outdoor activities, hunting and fishing, fine arts, camping and hiking, mobile activities, golf, risk skill activities, and boating and skiing were all significantly associated with income. Respondents with incomes over \$75,000 were more likely to participate in all activities than other income groups except for camping and hiking. Respondents with incomes of \$50,000-\$75,000 participated in camping and hiking at a higher rate than other income groups. When these same activities were controlled for income by Gailliard, race became a main effect in the influence of participation in camping and hiking. Whites were three times more likely to camp and hike than African Americans. This was the only activity when controlled for income that race made a significant difference in the rate of participation.

Gailliard concluded that participation in activities during leisure travel was varied based on interest rather than income or affordability alone. Race or education did not make a difference in the participation rate of outdoor activities, hunting and fishing, fine arts, mobile activities, golf, risk skill activities, and boating and skiing.

Gailliard (1998) determined that African American travelers differed from White travelers in other ways such as the type of trips selected. Each race ranked trips differently.

However, both groups ranked visiting family and relatives as their first selection. Additionally, White travelers reportedly stayed longer regardless of the type of trip selected than African American travelers except while visiting family and friends. Thus, African Americans were suggested to possess stronger family connections or cultural kin than White travelers. For activities, African Americans were more likely to participate in immobile activities such as resting, enjoying television, radio, or other media during leisure travel than were Whites. Gailliard suggested that African Americans may prefer activities that facilitate quality time with family and friends during their vacation.

Gailliard (1998) found that African American and White travelers were significantly different for income, education, occupation, residence, marital status, type of trip, preference for immobile activities, popular art, camping and hiking, risk skill activities, boating, and water skiing. Overall African American and White travelers differed in their travel behavior and these differences were attributed to income, education, occupation and residence, and in some instances to race.

Although the marginality hypothesis provides some perspective on reasons for low participation in outdoor recreation among minority groups, Floyd (1999) found several flaws with the theory. First, historical discrimination was taken into account, but it was not suggested how contemporary discrimination (actual or perceived) impacted minorities' visitation patterns. Second, the marginality hypothesis is not applicable to cases where income or other socioeconomic constraints were less pertinent. Thus, the marginality hypothesis does not provide an explanation for why affluent individuals who have the economic means to participate in outdoor recreation refrain from participating. Finally, the marginality hypothesis was

developed to explain differences between Whites and minority groups; yet, the theory does not account for variation within specific minority populations (Floyd, 1999).

Similarly, Philipp (1993) suggested that there was difficulty in using any theories to explain African American leisure patterns, including leisure travel behavior. Philipp found that these problems were attributed to: 1) the difficulty in characterizing an entire race; 2) the history of discrimination and segregation against African Americans, which has created a unique African American identity with a greater need to travel in groups and a stronger orientation toward collective values and behaviors than exists among Americans; 3) the inability to measure prejudice and discrimination; and 4) the lack of empirical evidence in the leisure literature to support theoretical arguments.

Ethnicity Perspective

Washburne (1978) also offered the ethnicity perspective as an alternate explanation to explore the differences in recreational patterns between African Americans and Whites. According to Washburne, the ethnicity perspective or subcultural hypothesis states that the leisure patterns of African Americans are reflective of their subcultural style or ethnicity even though African American leisure undeniably was shaped by a history of marginality. Floyd, McGuire, Shinew, and Noe (1994) suggested that according to the ethnicity perspective cultural processes were more important in explaining variation between African Americans and Whites in leisure participation patterns rather than socioeconomic standing.

In Washburne's study (1978) of urban California residents, the case for the marginality perspective was weakened and the ethnicity perspective was offered as a possible alternative explanation. Washburne found that marginality was ineffective in explaining African American underparticipation in outdoor recreation with advancements gained in employment, education,

and access to other amenities by African Americans. Contrarily, African Americans were found to participate based on choice in spite of growing opportunities to participate in leisure providing support for the ethnicity theory. Washburne called for future research concentrating on recreation activities that African Americans do in fact participate, exploring the travel patterns to the sites of these activities, and measuring participation within the African American community.

Subcultural influences are synonymous with processes which lead to the preservation or maintenance of ethnic identity (Floyd, 1999). Washburne and Wall (1980) found that African Americans exhibited significantly lower participation rates for camping, hiking/backpacking, and hunting than Whites. However, significant findings were not evident for fishing, off-road vehicles use, picnicking, and driving for pleasure. Washburne and Wall (1980) also examined the effects of marginality on participation rates in outdoor recreation. Using the dimensions of money, time, transportation, and information about outdoor recreation areas, no significant differences were found except for one dimension. African Americans were more likely to cite a lack of transportation as a barrier to participation in outdoor recreation. Washburne and Wall (1980) found ethnic groups might use leisure activities and sites as a way to distinguish and contrast themselves from other groups. For example, African Americans have consistently been found to participate in fishing more than Whites. Gramann (1996) found that lower income African Americans may fish more than Whites since African Americans may use fishing as sustenance and fishing has a long tradition for African Americans dating back to slavery. In addition, some activities and sites might be defined as inappropriate because they do not reinforce an ethnic group's collective identity. Likewise, researchers have argued that leisure may play a critical role in maintaining subcultural identity in a multi-cultural society (Floyd & Gramann, 1993).

Klemm (2002) examined the tourism participation behaviors of Asian citizens in the United Kingdom since mainstream travel companies ignored many ethnic groups. Klemm concluded that although there were differences in the types of trips preferred by Asians as compared to the U.K. population as a whole, the differences were not as great as expected. Asians were found to take the same number of vacations and their motivation for wanting vacations were not significantly different from the British population as a whole. Klemm found some support for the ethnicity theory and ultimately concluded that the differences in travel behavior were a result of the Asian group feeling that vacations were promoted to the White population only. Thus, Asians felt excluded from vacations that were perceived as attracting Whites and had no problems with the destination itself. Asians declared that it was more important to present different types of vacations available in a culturally appropriate manner than simple offering a variety of vacations. For example, the respondents found that the people presented in advertisements lacked the appropriate clothing (people undressed) and food types were unappealing in marketing campaigns. Thus, Klemm added that a new dimension to the ethnicity perspective was “one in which the product is acceptable to ethnic groups but the marketing is not” (Klemm, 2002, p. 91).

Contemporary Discrimination Hypothesis

The marginality theory was intended to explain the phenomenon occurring during the 1960s when the concept of Civil Rights was not well established. The discriminatory practices and behaviors that existed then are less prevalent today. Thus, the discrimination hypothesis reflected the changes that the marginality and ethnicity framework could not explain. The discrimination hypothesis differs from the marginality hypothesis in that the discrimination hypothesis focuses on contemporary rather than historical discrimination stemming from contact

with other visitor groups or management personnel (Floyd, 1999). Gobster and Delgado (1992) reported that 1 in 10 minorities frequenting Chicago's Lincoln Park stated they had been discriminated against in the Park. African Americans (14%), Asians (9%), and Hispanics (7%) cited incidents of discrimination by police and other users.

Phillipp (1994) examined the significant differences between African Americans' and Whites' tourism preferences using the marginality/ethnicity framework. Philipp found that African Americans differed from Whites in their preferences to travel in larger groups to familiar areas, patronize hotels and restaurants with familiar names, avoid unfamiliar streets, make few unplanned stops, and continuously move from one activity to another to avoid being in any particular place too long. Philipp indicated that these findings could be the result of subcultural differences between African Americans and Whites. Yet, Philipp concluded that the differences could also be understood by considering the effects of decades of prejudice and discrimination and historical/social factors.

Willming (2001) examined the travel behaviors of college educated African Americans in terms of their perceptions of racial discrimination and the influence of social class, gender, and life stage on leisure travel behaviors. Willming concluded that African Americans perceived racial discrimination in the travel services and activities they used or participated in the most during their leisure travel. Additionally, in spite of their perception of discrimination, African Americans rarely changed their leisure travel behaviors. Willming found that measuring racial discrimination or the perception of racial discrimination presents challenges for researchers because of the sensitivity and challenges of the issue itself. Little research had been conducted that provided empirical support or a comprehensive analysis of how discrimination ultimately

impacts visitation (Floyd, 1999). Furthermore, Floyd found that *how* discrimination occurs and *how* discrimination ultimately affects the selection of activities and sites for recreation is unclear.

Gender and Leisure

Gender has a significant influence on travel demand (Collins and Tisdell, 2002). Gramann (1996) summarized three basic views of the literature regarding gender and leisure. First, women have traditionally occupied a lower status than men in society. Second, the primary obligations females face in daily life (e.g., child care) were often markedly different from those of males. Last, as a consequence of women's social inequality relative to men, women's perception of what constituted leisure, as well as their leisure schedules and activities, frequently deviated from that of men. Although Gramann did not provide empirical support on gender differences in leisure behavior, he concluded that gender and ethnic background may exert a strong influence on leisure patterns, and the "usual social context experienced by African American women in the U.S. could lead to dramatically different views of appropriate leisure behavior than the usual social context experienced by White women or by African American males" (Gramann, 1996).

Floyd et al. (1994) examined the effects of leisure preferences by race and gender while controlling for class. White males and African American males who identified themselves as members of the poor or working classes did not differ significantly in their favorite leisure activities, supporting the marginality hypothesis. In contrast, White and African American women who saw themselves as being poor or working class differed considerably. Therefore, Floyd et al. indicated that the interaction of race and gender have a major impact on leisure (cited in Gramann, 1996). Specifically, White females ranked outdoor activities and camping second and third in their leisure preferences, while African American females ranked the same activities

seventh and tenth. African American females preferred home-centered activities such as resting, watching television, visiting friends, and participating in church and other voluntary organizations.

Waters (1998) conducted a study of U.S. men and women to determine if any travel differences existed. Waters found that men were more likely to travel for business. Women, on the other hand, were more likely to travel for leisure. According to Waters, the types of activities participated in also differed by gender. Men were action and adventure seekers while women preferred security and cultural and educational experiences.

Collins and Tisdell (2002) examined the effects of gender and the purpose of travel among outbound Australian travelers. Collins and Tisdell found that men traveled more often than women for business and work-related travel. Contrarily, women traveled more often for leisure purposes which included traveling to visit friends and relatives. Collins and Tisdell concluded that both purpose and gender are important predictors for long-term demand for travel.

Conceptual Model

Phillip (1993) cited two general observations in contemporary America: 1) tourism is vital to many communities, states, and regions economic welfare, and 2) African Americans in “middle class” or even “affluent” status doubled from 1980 to 1990. Yet, Phillip stated that the literature could not explain how “African American tourist perceptions, opinions, values, and decisions differ from White tourists, and how might that empirical data specifically figure into the tourism planning and development process” since so many areas depend upon tourism (p. 290). In addition, Dwyer and Hutchinson (1990) found that the recreation literature lacks research regarding the preferences and patterns of African Americans residing in urban areas.

Race, income, gender, and purpose of trip have been identified as key determinants in explaining the differences between African American and White travelers. The marginality theory examined the effects of race and income. Floyd (1999) found that a particular strength of the marginality perspective was that the indicators of differential access to socioeconomic resources were easily measured. Income, employment status and occupational status, access to transportation, social class, number of children, age, sex, and homeownership have been used as marginality indicators previously (Gailliard, 1998; Johnson et al. 1997; Scott and Munson 1994; West 1989; Woodard, 1988). Based on these research findings the conceptual model for this study is presented in Figure 3.

The purpose of this research is to examine the relationships between race, demographics, and trip characteristics of visitors in an urban context. As indicated earlier, the review of the literature has shown that research in this area is sparse.

Research Questions

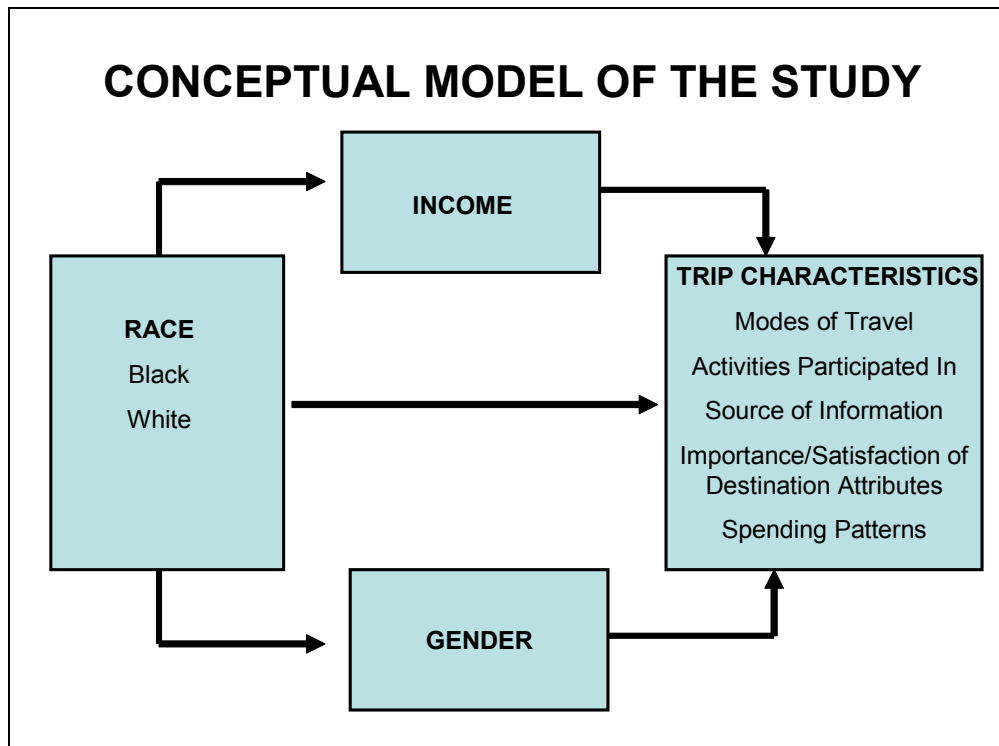
The following research questions guided this study:

4. Are there significant differences in the trip characteristics between African American and White travelers visiting New Orleans?
5. Are there significant differences in income or gender between African American and White travelers visiting New Orleans?
6. Which variables (income and gender) explain the differences in trip characteristics between African American and White travelers visiting New Orleans?

Explanation of the Conceptual Model

The conceptual model in Figure 3 represents the relationships of the constructs examined. The model utilizes the constructs of race, income, gender, and trip characteristics. The dimensions of trip characteristics are modes of travel, activities participated in, sources of information, importance of destination attributes, satisfaction of destination attributes, and spending patterns.

Figure 3. Conceptual Model of the Study



Visitors were asked their mode of transportation used to arrive to New Orleans. Activities participated in was measured by asking about places visited or activities participated in while in New Orleans. Respondents were asked to list a maximum of six activities participated in while visiting New Orleans. These activities were grouped into 6 major categories. The five

categories are shopping, restaurants, attractions, sightseeing and the French Quarter. The sources of information were measured by asking the visitor their primary sources of information used to make the decision to come to New Orleans. The importance of destination attributes measures the importance placed upon various trip characteristics when planning a trip to any destination. The factors include exciting, adult destination, popular, unique, family atmosphere, entertainment, African American Values, affordable, sport and recreation, safety, cleanliness, and friendly people. These attributes were considered important destination image attributes by the New Orleans Convention and Visitors Bureau and the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation; however, African American Values was added by the two tourism organizations to evaluate the city's image in terms of the attractiveness of the African American attractions offered in New Orleans. The importance of destination attributes were measured on a Likert scale from 1 the lowest to 5 the highest. These factors were not defined in any manner to the visitor. The meaning of each attribute was strictly based on each visitor's perception of the definition. Similarly, the satisfaction with destination attributes measured a visitor's satisfaction with New Orleans on the same importance attributes. The Likert scale of 1 (the lowest) to 5 (the highest) was used again to measure satisfaction ratings. Spending patterns were measured by asking visitors how much they spent on restaurants/meals, bars/nightclubs, gambling, recreation/entertainment, shopping, and local transportation. These constructs were identified as key elements in understanding the travel behavior differences of African American and White travelers. First the differences between race and trip characteristics are compared. Secondly, the intervening variables, gender and income are combined with race to further examine their effects upon trip characteristics.

Hypotheses

Three main hypotheses align with the research questions guiding the study. Each major hypothesis is followed by sub hypotheses to account for each dimension within the model in Figure 3. The research hypotheses are as follows:

H1: Race has an effect on trip characteristics.

H1a: There are differences in the modes of travel used by African American and White travelers.

African American travelers are predicted to travel more by automobile to New Orleans than White travelers. Based on the literature (*Minority Traveler*, 2003), African Americans were more likely to travel by owned car or truck.

H1b: There are differences in the activities participated in by African American and White travelers.

African Americans and Whites are predicted to exhibit similar participation rates while visiting New Orleans. Gailliard (1985) found that race did not affect the participation rates of outdoor activities such as hunting, fishing, fine arts, mobile activities, etc. Gailliard (1985) concluded that African Americans participation in activities was varied based on interest rather than race or income alone.

H1c: There are differences in the source of travel information used by African American and White travelers.

The differences in the source of travel information have not been explored in prior studies. However, Klemm (2002) found that Asians preferred marketing sources for destinations more appealing if they reflected their culture. Klemm also found that Asians avoided destinations that marketed themselves to Whites and ignored their cultural preference lending support for the ethnicity theory. Similarly, African Americans may use different sources of travel information that reflect their own cultural style instead of the source of travel information used by White travelers.

H1d: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American and White travelers.

The rating of importance factors when planning any trip by White and African American travelers has not been explored in the literature. However, African American and White travelers are predicted to rank the importance of destination

attributes differently due to cultural differences as found by Klemm's (2002) research.

H1e: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American and White travelers.

Although the satisfaction ratings with specific destination attributes for New Orleans or other destinations has not been studied in previous research, African American and White travelers are predicted to rank the satisfaction of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences as found by Klemm's (2002) research.

H1f: There are there differences in the spending patterns by African American and White travelers.

Although African Americans were reported to spend \$15 to \$20 less on trips than White travelers (TIA, 2000), these differences were not explored in an urban tourism context.

H2: Race and Income have an effect on trip characteristics.

H2a: There are differences in the modes of travel used by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Although the modes of travel used by lower income travelers by race has not been investigated in the literature, lower income African American travelers and White travelers are expected to travel by automobile since the marginality theory states that Whites and African Americans of similar socioeconomic backgrounds have similar participation rates and also possess similar barriers to participation such as transportation. Both groups may use the automobile as opposed to flying due to the higher cost associated with air travel.

H2b: There are differences in the activities participated in by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

According to the ethnicity theory, Whites and African Americans of similar socioeconomic backgrounds were expected to exhibit different rates of participation in recreational activities. Thus, a significant finding is expected and would lend support for the ethnicity theory.

H2c: There are differences in the sources of travel information used by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Although the differences in the sources of travel information used by race and income have not been studied in previous research, a significant finding is expected. Klemm (2002) found that Asians preferred marketing for destinations that reflected their culture. Similarly, African Americans may prefer sources of travel information that reflect their cultural style which may be different from the sources use by White travelers lending support to the ethnicity theory.

H2d: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

The rating of importance factors when planning any trip by White and African American travelers has not been explored in the literature. However, African American and White travelers are predicted to rank the importance of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences providing support for the ethnicity theory.

H2e: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Although the satisfaction ratings with specific destination attributes for New Orleans or other destinations has not been studied in previous research, African American and White travelers are predicted to rank the satisfaction of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences providing support for the ethnicity theory.

H2f: There are differences in the spending patterns by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Although the spending differences between lower income African American and White travelers has not been investigated in the literature, African Americans were reported to spend \$15 to \$20 less on trips than White travelers (TIA, 2000).

H2g: There are differences in the modes of travel by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

The differences in the modes of travel used by higher income African American and White travelers have not been researched in the literature. However, both groups are expected to travel by airplane since they possess the financial means to travel by air.

H2h: There are differences in the activities participated in by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

Although Gailliard (1985) found that African Americans and Whites with incomes over \$75,000 generally participated in the same activities, her study was not tested in the urban tourism context.

H2i: There are differences in the source of travel information used by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

Although the differences in the source of travel information used by race and income have not been studied in previous research, a significant finding is expected. Klemm (2002) found that Asians preferred marketing for destinations that reflected their culture. Similarly, African Americans may prefer sources of travel information that reflect their cultural style which may be different from the sources use by White travelers lending support to the ethnicity theory.

H2j: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

The rating of importance factors when planning any trip by White and African American travelers and income has not been explored in the literature. However, African American and White travelers are predicted to rank the importance of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences.

H2k: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

Although the satisfaction ratings with specific destination attributes for New Orleans or other destinations has not been studied in previous research, African American and White travelers with higher incomes are predicted to rank the satisfaction of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences providing support for the ethnicity theory.

H2l: There are differences in the spending patterns by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

Although African Americans were reported to spend \$15 to \$20 less on trips than White travelers (TIA, 2000), these differences were not explored in an urban tourism context.

H3: Race and Gender have an effect on trip characteristics.

H3a: There are differences in the modes of travel used by African American female and White female travelers.

Although women were more likely to travel for leisure (Waters, 1998), the differences in the modes of travel used by female travelers have not been examined in the literature.

H3b: There are differences in the activities participated in by African American female and White female travelers.

Waters (1998) found that women travelers preferred cultural and educational experiences more than their male counterparts. However, this study did not examine the impact of race on these preferences.

H3c: There are differences in the sources of travel information used by African American female and White female travelers.

Although the differences in the sources of travel information used by race and gender have not been researched in previous research, a significant finding is expected. Klemm (2002) found that Asians preferred marketing for destinations that reflected their culture. Similarly, African Americans females may prefer sources of travel information that reflect their cultural style which may be different from the sources use by White travelers lending support to the ethnicity theory.

H3d: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American female and White female travelers.

The rating of importance factors when planning any trip by White and African American female travelers has not been explored in the literature. However, African American and White female travelers are predicted to rank the importance of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences.

H3e: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American female and White female travelers.

Although the satisfaction ratings with specific destination attributes for New Orleans or other destinations has not been studied in previous research, African American and White female travelers are predicted to rank the satisfaction of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences.

- H3f: There are differences in the spending patterns by African American female and White female travelers.

Although Gailliard (1985) studied various differences between African American and White travelers, the study did not examine differences in spending.

- H3g: There are differences in the modes of travel used by African American male and White male travelers.

The differences in the modes of travel used by African American male and White male travelers have not been the focus of previous research. Since men are more likely to travel for business, males are expected to use airplanes as their mode of travel.

- H3h: There are differences in the activities participated in by African American male and White male travelers.

Waters (1998) found that male travelers were adventure seekers; however, the study did not breakdown the results in terms of race.

- H3i: There are differences in the sources of travel information used by African American male and White male travelers.

Although the differences in the sources of travel information used by race and gender have not been studied in previous research, a significant finding is expected. Klemm (2002) found that Asians preferred marketing for destinations that reflected their culture. Similarly, African American males may prefer sources of travel information that reflect their cultural style which may be different from the sources use by White travelers.

- H3j: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American male and White male travelers.

The rating of importance factors when planning any trip by White and African American male travelers has not been explored in the literature. However, African American and White male travelers are predicted to rank the importance of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences as found by Klemm's (2002) research.

H3k: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American male and White male travelers.

Although the satisfaction ratings with specific destination attributes for New Orleans or other destinations has not been studied in previous research, African American and White male travelers are predicted to rank the satisfaction of destination attributes differently due to cultural differences as found by Klemm's (2002) research.

H3l: There are differences in the spending patterns by African American male and White male travelers.

Although male travelers seek similar activities such as action and adventure (Waters, 1998) and travel for the same purpose (Collins and Tisdell, 2002), the differences in spending patterns by African American male and White male travelers have not been examined in prior studies.

Conclusion

Prior research on African American underparticipation in outdoor recreation (Floyd, 1998; Floyd, McGuire, Shinew, & Noe, 1994; Floyd & Shinew, 1999; Washburne, 1978) cited historical discrimination and a lack of economic resources resulting from limited educational opportunities, residential segregation, and work opportunities as barriers to participating in outdoor recreation. These studies also focused on visitation patterns to national parks and did not address the travel patterns and behaviors of African Americans to other tourism destinations. With more education, income, and access to better job opportunities, African Americans exhibit similar travel behaviors as that of the overall U.S. population, a difference from earlier studies. Today's African Americans travel in greater numbers than ever before and represent a dynamic and growing travel market segment that, according to the Travel Industry Association of America (TIA) (2003), generated 75 million person trips in 2002. Research (Goodrich, 1985; Philipp, 1993; TIA, 2003) indicates that African Americans'

travel behaviors mirror total U.S. travelers on many key travel behaviors. However, there are also some differences. According to the *Minority Traveler* report (2003), African Americans traveled most often for leisure purposes by owned car or truck. Popular activities for African Americans include shopping, nightlife or dancing, visiting historical places or museums, attending cultural events or festivals, visiting theme or amusement parks, and gambling. Phillip (1993) identified the need for research at various tourism destinations documenting the African American travel experience and how this experience differs at all from White travelers.

CHAPTER 3

Research Methodology and Design

The research methodology and the research design of the study are described. The chapter begins with an explanation of the survey instrument. After that, the data collection and analysis methods are described. Finally, the limitations of the study are presented.

Intercept Surveys

Intercept surveys are a form of questionnaire surveys which are the most commonly used surveys in the tourism industry (Brunt, 1997). Intercept surveys are used to gain information from people or respondents who answer questions about themselves, their knowledge of a particular subject, and their opinions. The secondary data used for this study is based on intercepts conducted by Survey Communications, Inc. on behalf of the New Orleans Convention and Visitors Bureau and the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation. Visitor intercepts were conducted with 3,020 visitors to New Orleans between January 1, 2004 and December 31, 2004.

Advantages of Intercept Surveys

Several advantages are identified with intercept surveys. According to Brunt (1997), intercept surveys offer personal contact with the respondent where verbal explanations can be given by the interviewer as necessary since respondents' misunderstanding of survey questions may result in inaccurate responses. Inaccurate responses are minimized since the interviewer can gauge if the respondent has understood the questions or probe unhelpful or inadequate replies. Missing data or incomplete surveys are reduced since the surveyor reads the questions and records the answers directly on the survey. Intercepting respondents minimizes the time lag between questions about behavior and opinions and the actual behavior taking place. Lastly, intercept surveys have notably high response rates which typically average 95%.

Limitations of Intercept Surveys

Intercept surveys have several disadvantages. According to Brunt (1997), intercept surveys may be subject to interviewer bias such as not asking difficult questions or avoiding questions that makes the interviewer feel uncomfortable. Bias can be reduced by properly training and educating interviewers (Brunt, 1997). Also, intercept surveys are usually costly to implement. The use of secondary data limited the expenses associated with data collection for this study. Since intercept surveys are usually conducted in the field, they are required to be kept relatively short—normally less than 20 minutes. The survey used for this research was designed to answer specific questions for two tourism organizations in the New Orleans area. Thus, two surveys, versions A and B, were created to obtain both quantitative (amount of money spent) and qualitative data (importance and satisfaction with destination attributes) required by both organizations and also keep the survey under 20 minutes.

Survey Instrument

Secondary data (2004 UNO Visitor profile) collected by Survey Communications, Inc. on behalf of the New Orleans Convention and Visitors Bureau and the New Orleans Marketing Corporation were utilized for this study. Singleton and Straits (1999) found that secondary analysis of surveys affords many advantages such as the lower cost of obtaining the data for analysis, and the data is obtained from professional polling and research centers with the resources to obtain high-quality information.

The visitor profile survey included questions on trip characteristics, demographics, the importance of various attributes when planning any trip, and satisfaction levels of visitors to the New Orleans area. The importance and satisfaction with destination attributes dealt with

questions on visitors' important attributes when planning any trip and their satisfaction ratings of New Orleans on the same attributes. These attributes were friendly people, cleanliness, safety, adult destination, affordable, exciting, popular, entertainment, African American Values, unique, sport and recreation, and family atmosphere. These attributes were measured on a 5 point Likert scale from 1 (lowest) to 5 (highest). Version A (Appendix A) and Version B (Appendix B) were alternated each day throughout the data collection process. The survey was designed by the staff at the Hospitality Research Center at the University of New Orleans and Survey Communications, Inc. after receiving input from the New Orleans Convention and Visitors Bureau and the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation.

Since 1987, Survey Communications, Inc. has conducted data collection services and analysis for research projects and other targeted programs for political, commercial, governmental, and health care clients. Survey Communications, Inc. has conducted full, statewide research in every state in the U.S. Survey Communications, Inc.'s quantitative data collection methods include Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI), online web-based interviewing, and targeted direct-mail interviewing. Qualitative data collection methods include focus group interviewing, one-on-one in depth interviewing, intercept interviewing, and secret shopping. In 2005, Survey Communications, Inc. conducted over 280,000 telephone interviews, over 88,000 online web-based surveys, over 26,000 intercept (exit) interviews, over 19,000 secret shops, and conducted over 240 focus groups (Survey Communications, Inc., 2006).

The University of New Orleans Hospitality Research Center is a collaborative effort of the Lester E. Kabacoff School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Tourism (HRT) Administration and the University of New Orleans Division of Business and Economic Research at the University of

New Orleans. The Hospitality Research Center provides research services including visitor profiles, advertising effectiveness, economic impact of tourism and special events (e.g., events and festivals in New Orleans such as the Super Bowl, Sugar Bowl, French Quarter Festival), convention booking trends, impact of promotions on tourism intermediaries, and tourism-related studies for hospitality, tourism, and travel organizations. The Hospitality Research Center has been consistently recognized for research productivity in the hospitality field (The Hospitality Research Center, 2006).

The New Orleans Convention and Visitors Bureau and the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation contracted The Hospitality Research Center and Survey Communications, Inc. to create a visitor profile of tourists to New Orleans. Both tourism groups were interested in visitor demographics, expenditures, activities, and other trip characteristics of domestic and international visitors to New Orleans. Two versions of the survey were alternated each day during the data collection process. Both versions contained the same questions except version A contained questions regarding spending patterns and version B contained questions regarding the importance and satisfaction of destination attributes.

After pretesting the survey, the completed Version A questionnaire consisted of 27 questions and Version B questionnaire consisted of 31 questions. Version A asks visitor spending patterns questions whereas Version B asks importance and satisfaction destination attributes questions. The survey design is a trend study, asking the same questions to different samples of the target population at different points in time. However, the analysis that will be conducted in this study is cross-sectional. Only select questions were analyzed for this study.

The questions that were selected from the questionnaire and that are relevant to the study are summarized in Appendix C.

Data Collection

Visitors were first screened by surveyors from Survey Communications, Inc. to ensure that only those who reside outside of the New Orleans area were included. Zip codes were used by surveyors to determine if a respondent lived outside of the New Orleans area. Only those respondents who lived more than 50 miles outside of the New Orleans with zip codes other than those beginning with the first three digits 700, 701, and 704 were asked to complete the survey. A second screening question was also asked to determine if the visitor had plans to leave the New Orleans area within 24 hours. Only those visitors with plans to leave within 24 hours were surveyed to minimize repeatedly surveying visitors who stay a relatively long time and to help capture an appropriate proportion of day visitors. A second reason for the screening question was that several of the survey questions refer to opinions or activities that the typical visitor might not be able to provide answers for if intercepted at the beginning of the visit (e.g., activities participated in and expenditure questions).

Intercepts occurred in a variety of locations throughout the New Orleans area including the following: New Orleans International Airport, Aquarium of the Americas, Audubon Zoo/Audubon Park, Bourbon Street, Convention Center, French Market, Garden District/Washington & Prytania Streets, Jackson Square, Riverwalk, Spanish Plaza, Royal Street, and World Trade Center/Top of the Mart to ensure each subject in the population had an equal chance of being included in the survey. Intercepts were conducted throughout the week any time from 10AM until 8PM in two-hour periods.

Interviewers randomly selected tourists using the ‘next-to-pass’ technique (Brunt, 1997). With this technique, the interviewer waits for the first person to pass the point where he is located and approaches for the survey. At the completion of the survey, the next person is similarly approached. Other tourists will pass while the interview is in progress and will not be approached or required to wait. Hence, the process limits bias because the interviewer has no control over when a visitor leaves or passes the interview point and therefore removes interviewer bias in the selection of respondents. According to Brunt (1997), over a reasonable number of survey days, interview points, and well trained interviewers this technique should ensure random selection and limit interviewer bias in selecting participants. Tourists were then asked by surveyors the initial screening questions. If the participant satisfactorily answered the screening questions, the participant was then informed by surveyors their responses were confidential and their participation was strictly voluntary. The survey consisted of closed and open-ended questions. However, the majority of the responses were already listed for the interviewer to code based on responses gathered from pre-testing the surveys. The surveyor was instructed to read questions exactly as they appeared on the survey. They also were instructed to read the questions in the exact sequence in which they appeared and ask every question specified in the survey. If there were problems with interpreting questions, the interviewer was allowed to offer clarification without offering any personal input. This ensured limited interviewer bias, and increased the chances of receiving accurate and complete survey data.

Target Population and Sampling Frame

The unit of analysis is defined as the entities under study (Singleton and Straits, 1999). In this study, the unit of analysis is the tourist. The target population for the questionnaire is

tourists visiting New Orleans. In 2004, an estimated 10.1 million visitors traveled to New Orleans (UNO Hospitality Research Center, 2004).

Sample

The size of the sample was determined by the MaCoor Inc. (2003) sample size calculator. Based on a 95% confidence level, a 3% confidence interval, and 10.1 million visitors in the population, a sample size of 1,067 is required.

In the database, the total sample size was 3,020. From this sample, African American travelers constituted 18.9 % or 570 respondents. A random sample of 570 White travelers was used for the comparisons. The number and percentage of African American and White travelers who were in the sample for each version of the survey are shown in Table 1. In the sample used for the study, 66.9% of the respondents were given version A and 33.1% were given version B.

Table 1

Respondents to Survey Versions A & B

Survey Version	n	%
Version A Total	763	66.9
Whites	383	50.2
African Americans	380	49.8
Version B Total	377	33.1
Whites	187	49.6
African Americans	190	50.4

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 12.0 was used to select a random sample of White respondents. After the participants were randomly selected, additional tests were conducted to ensure the sample was representative of the total population. The White travelers in the sample were not statistically different from the total White traveler population. All surveys were useable for both African American and White travelers thus resulting in a total sample size of 1,140. All tests were then conducted comparing the two samples.

Recoding Data

Some variables were recoded to minimize small cell sizes. First, descriptive statistics were run on all variables to determine the frequencies. Second, a determination was made to collapse categories based on cell sizes. If the cells were not collapsed into smaller categories, the number of respondents in each subgroup would have been too small to conduct meaningful analysis. The recoded categories are as follows:

1. Income was recoded into four categories (0-\$49,000; \$50,000 - \$74,999; \$75,000 - \$99,999; \$100,000+) to allow meaningful interpretation of the data. Small cell sizes were combined to create two categories: Lower income: 0-\$74,999 and Higher income: \$75,000+.
2. The variable “modes of travel” was initially 5 categories: airplane, personal vehicle, bus, rental vehicle, and RV. Due to the low cell sizes, only 2 categories were subsequently used: airplane and personal vehicle.
3. Race and income were combined to create four categories: Whites with lower income, African Americans with lower income, Whites with higher income, and African Americans with higher income. This method was used to determine if significant differences existed between racial income groups and trip characteristics. Income was thus controlled by creating the four categories and analyzing any differences between groups. Hence, all trip characteristics were analyzed between Whites and African Americans with lower incomes first and Whites and African Americans with higher incomes, second.
4. Race and gender were combined to create four categories: White females, African American females, White males, and African American males. These categories were combined to

determine if significant differences existed between racial gender groups and trip characteristics. Thus, all trip characteristics were analyzed between White and African American females first and White and African American males second.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis was used to obtain measures of central tendency for all variables. The percentages of the descriptive statistics were based on actual rather than valid percentages. Thus, the percentages reflected the total number of respondents per category rather than the total number of respondents in the sample. Data were analyzed using two types of data analysis. Significant differences between the samples were identified using chi-square or difference of means tests. Chi-square was used to test for differences between categorical variables. If the p-value associated with the chi-square test was less than .05 ($p < 0.05$), the decision was made to reject the null hypothesis. Significant differences exist between the variables since the obtained chi-square value exceeds the critical value. If the p-value associated with the chi-square test was larger than 0.05 ($p > .05$), then sufficient evidence does not exist to conclude that there are significant differences among the variables. Chi-square was used to test for differences between African American and White travelers and trip characteristics; and also race and gender (1 variable) and trip characteristics; and finally race and income (1 variable) and trip characteristics. T-tests are used to determine if there were significant differences in means between the two groups. If the p-value associated with the t-test was less than .05 ($p < 0.05$), then there exists evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative. Thus, the mean is significantly different than the hypothesized value. If the p-value associated with the t-test is larger than .05 ($p > 0.05$), then there lacks enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. T-test

were also used for continuous variables under the construct trip characteristics which were importance of destination attributes, satisfaction with destination attributes, and spending patterns to examine differences between African American and White travelers and the intervening variables gender and income. The significant t-test findings for the importance and satisfaction destination attributes and spending were further tested using ANOVA to determine the possible interaction of race and gender and race and income upon the significant outcomes for the attributes and spending. Two-way ANOVA is ideal for comparing groups which differ along two or more dimensions or independent variables. The two-way ANOVA is a better procedure than two separate one-way ANOVAs or t-tests for three reasons according to Huck, Cormier, Bounds (1974). First, the ANOVA is more parsimonious and answers the same questions more quickly and with less computation. Secondly, the two-way ANOVA is more powerful and more sensitive to differences among the groups that are being compared. Thus, a two-way ANOVA may detect significant differences that remain undetected by the two separate one-way ANOVAs even though both procedures are applied to the same data. Third, a two-way ANOVA can answer an additional research question that cannot be answered at all with the two separate one-way ANOVAs in that the possible existence of an interaction between the variables is also tested.

Limitations

The secondary data analyzed in this research presented several limitations. Since the survey was constructed for other tourism organizations for their respective purpose, the researcher had limited control over the construction of the survey, the design, or the coding of

the data. Thus, analyzing the data was limited to selecting quantitative tests such as chi-square and t-tests as opposed to more robust analytical methods.

Secondly, obtaining detailed information such as surveyor training, non-response rates, and problems with data collection was not possible. The organizations who paid for the research were the only people that could communicate with the agency. Only basic details could be provided about the contract through the University of New Orleans Hospitality Research Center.

Third, two different surveys, Version A and Version B, were designed by the University of New Orleans Hospitality Research Center and Survey Communications, Inc. to gather information on tourists visiting New Orleans. Both surveys consisted of the same questions except version A contained additional spending questions and Version B contained additional questions regarding the importance of and satisfaction with New Orleans destination attributes. Thus, all survey participants did not respond to the spending questions or the importance/satisfaction of destination attributes questions. The analysis of these particular questions is based on the responses of those who did answer the questions. All other questions were worded exactly the same for both versions of the questionnaire.

Fourth, historical discrimination has been presented in the marginality theory as a possible explanation for African Americans underparticipation in outdoor recreation. Although discrimination was described in the literature review as relevant to the study of African American outdoor recreation behavior, discrimination was not investigated in this study. The secondary data used for this study lacked the variables and population needed to accurately measure marginality. Future research could benefit from examining the possible effects of marginality on African Americans in the 21st century.

Fifth, the findings of this study are reflective of the travel behavior of African American and White travelers to New Orleans. Although the results in this research could not be generalized to all African American travel behavior, the findings could be similar for other southern urban tourism destinations. New Orleans is an attractive tourism destination for African Americans. Many annual African American events are hosted in New Orleans such as the Essence Music Festival and the Southern and Grambling Football teams in the Bayou Classic. The Essence Musical Festival boasts top African American musical performers and entertainments over a three day period. The Bayou Classic presents two historically African American colleges competing for bragging rights. These attractions help to attract African Americans to New Orleans. New Orleans and other southern destinations such as Atlanta, Orlando, and Dallas are preferred tourism destinations for African Americans (TIA, 2003). These cities have large shares of the African American population and offer attractions relative to African American Values. Moreover, New Orleans is unlike some other tourism destinations such as Boston, Chicago, or San Francisco which do not have large numbers of African American visitors as a percentage of total visitation.

The two tourism organizations that owned the data were interested in visitor demographics, expenditures, activities, and other trip characteristics of domestic and international visitors to New Orleans. The survey was designed to answer specific questions for these two organizations and not for this study. This study would have benefited from questions specifically geared towards African American travel characteristics and behaviors. Attractions specific to African American culture in New Orleans would have been listed to determine their visitation patterns. African Americans' perception of discrimination would have been explored.

Also, all travelers would have the opportunity to classify their race and ethnicity as opposed to being assigned into racial categories by the interviewer.

Income categories were collapsed to conduct meaningful statistics and analysis. The number of respondents in each subgroup would have been too small to analyze if the categories were not combined. Thus, this may have impacted the results of race and income on the trip characteristics of visitors to New Orleans.

Lastly, respondents did not self-report their race on the survey. The interviewer assigned respondents to the categories White, African American, or other based on their appearance. The rationale for this approach was that surveyors learned in the field that many tourists were offended or resistant to the sensitive question of race and refused to answer this question or participate in the survey. Thus, the person's race assigned to them by the surveyor may not be their true race. This limitation reflects the problems faced by other researchers with determining a person's race and studying their effects upon recreation participation.

CHAPTER 4

Results

The purpose of this study is to explore the differences between White and African American travelers to New Orleans. Income and gender were further combined with race to determine if differences still persisted between African American and White travelers in various trip characteristics. This chapter begins with descriptive statistics of the sample and presents the results of the data analysis and tests the hypotheses presented in Chapter 2.

Sample Demographics

The sample demographics included in the study are race, gender, and income presented in Table 2. The sample consisted of 50% Whites and 50% African Americans. The equivalent sample was obtained by utilizing the 570 African Americans and conducting a random sample of 570 Whites in SPSS from the 3,020 travelers in the population. Of the White travelers in the sample, 45.4% were males (n=259) and 54.6% were females (n=311). Of the African American travelers in the sample, 43.2% were males (n=246) and 56.8% were females (n=324). White travelers' annual household income was as follows: 14.4% between \$0-\$49,999, 48.2% between \$50,000-\$74,999, 34.6% between \$75,000-\$99,999, and 2.8% were \$100,000 and over. African American travelers' annual household income was as follows: 18.6% between \$0-\$49,999, 51.2% between \$50,000-\$74,999, 29.1% between \$75,000-\$99,999, and 1.1% were \$100,000 and over. Income was subsequently combined into 2 categories: lower income (0 - \$74,999) and higher income (\$75,000 and above). The annual household income for these two categories for White travelers was as follows: 62.6% lower income and 37.4% higher income. For African American travelers, the annual household income was as follows: 69.8% lower income and 30.2% higher income.

Table 2
Sample Demographics

<u>Demographics</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>Percent</u>
Race		
Whites	570	50
African Americans	570	50
Total	1140	100
Gender		
White Males	259	45.4
White Females	311	54.6
Total	570	100
Black Males	246	43.2
Black Females	324	56.8
Total	570	100
Annual Household Income		
Whites		
\$0 - \$49,999	82	14.4
\$50,000 - \$74,999	275	48.2
\$75,000 - \$99,999	197	34.6
\$100,000+	16	2.8
Total	570	100
African Americans		
\$0 - \$49,999	106	18.6
\$50,000 - \$74,999	292	51.2
\$75,000 - \$99,999	166	29.1
\$100,000+	6	1.1
Total	570	100
Annual Household Income Combined		
Whites		
\$0 - \$74,999	357	62.6
\$75,000+	213	37.4
Total	570	100
African Americans		
\$0 - \$74,999	398	69.8
\$75,000+	172	30.2
Total	570	100

Statistical Analysis

The Effect of Race on Trip Characteristics

Transportation

H1a: There are differences in the modes of travel used by African American and White travelers.

Airplane and personal vehicle are the two most commonly used forms of transportation for African American and White travelers to New Orleans. Whites (N=232) were more likely to travel by plane than African Americans (N=187). Contrarily, Whites (N=326) were less likely to travel in their personal vehicle than African Americans (N=362). There was a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N=1107) = 6.64, p = .01$ between the two groups in the modes of travel used for their trip to New Orleans. Thus, H1a is supported and differences exist in the modes of travel used by African Americans and White travelers.

Participation in Travel Activities

H1b: There are differences in the activities in which African American and White travelers participate.

African American travelers were more likely to shop (N=734) and visit the French Quarter (N=836) than White travelers. On the other hand, White travelers were more likely to dine in restaurants (N=516), visit attractions (N=292), and sightsee (N=672) than African American travelers. The results are summarized in Table 3.

There was a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N = 5760) = 21.69, p=.00$ between participation in travel activities and race. Interestingly, the top three activities for African American and White travelers were visiting the French Quarter, shopping, and sightseeing. Although the statistical significance of the overall model provides support for H1b which states that there are

differences in the participation in travel activities by African American and White travelers, both groups indicated that they participated in similar activities at similar rates. Thus, it could be argued that Gailliard's (1985) finding is supported since race did not influence the participation rates of African American and White travelers to New Orleans.

Table 3. Number of Times Activities Were Indicated for Black and White Travelers

Activities*	White Travelers	% of Total for each activity	African American Travelers	% of Total for each activity
Shopping	647	46.9%	734	53.1%
Restaurants	516	54.0%	440	46.0%
Attractions	292	54.8%	241	45.2%
Sightseeing	672	52.5%	608	47.5%
French Quarter	774	48.1%	836	51.9%

*Multiple responses were possible.

Sources of Information

H1c: There are differences in the sources of information used by African American and White travelers.

African American travelers were more likely than White travelers to use their friends (N=113), convention planning information (N=29), or their previous knowledge or familiarity (N=179) with New Orleans as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans as summarized in Table 4. White travelers were more likely to search the internet

(N=113) or obtain information from their business (N=45) as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans.

For both African American and White travelers, the top three sources of information were that they just knew, internet, and friends. Friends were almost twice as likely to be used as a sources of information for African American travelers than for White travelers. There was a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N=859)=18.50, p=.00$ between African American and White travelers and the primary sources of information used when planning a trip.

Table 4. Sources of information for African American and White Travelers

<i>Sources of information</i>	<i>Whites N</i>	<i>African Americans N</i>
Internet	113	99
Friends	68	113
Convention planning information	25	29
Business	45	24
Just Knew	164	179
Total	415	444

Thus, H1c is supported, and differences exist in the sources of information used by African American and White travelers. Similar to Klemm's (2002) finding that Asians preferred marketing sources that reflected Asian culture, African Americans may desire to seek information which is culturally applicable.

Importance of Destination Attributes

H1d: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American and White travelers.

Table 5 shows three significant differences in the importance of various trip attributes when planning any trip by race. A significant difference was found between race and popular destinations $t=-2.143$, $p=.033$, race and African American Values $t=-26.633$, $p=.00$, and race and sport and recreation $t=-6.713$, $p=.00$. African Americans ranked the destination attributes popular, African American Values, and sport and recreation higher than Whites when planning any trip. Consequently, support is found for H1d which states that there are differences in the importance of destination attributes between African American and White travelers.

Table 5. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of importance ratings for Race (Whites $n=187$) (African American $n=190$)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	<i>p</i> values of T-test
Exciting	4.50	.581	4.56	.558	.302
Adult Destination	4.63	.620	4.68	.597	.445
Popular	4.15	.718	4.31	.691	.033**
Unique	4.18	.518	4.17	.541	.882
Family Atmosphere	3.32	.979	3.36	.854	.615
Entertainment	4.51	3.178	4.32	.540	.399
African American Values	2.37	.732	4.28	.660	.000*
Affordable	4.69	.475	4.68	.501	.829
Sport and Recreation	3.12	.763	3.63	.700	.000*
Safety	4.73	.447	4.74	.439	.745
Cleanliness	4.75	.444	4.79	.410	.436
Friendly People	4.88	.329	4.86	.345	.690

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level **significant at .05 level

Satisfaction of Destination Attributes

H1e: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American and White travelers.

The T-test for race and satisfaction with New Orleans on the same destination attributes shows one significant difference out of the twelve attributes in Table 6. A significant difference was found between race and African American Values $t=-9.228$, $p = .00$. It is important to note that the difference between the importance and satisfaction with African Americans values for White travelers almost doubled which is a positive result. Hence, limited support is found for H1e which states that there are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes between African American and White travelers since only one attribute is significant.

Table 6. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of satisfaction ratings for Race (Whites $n=187$) (African American $n=190$)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	<i>p</i> values of T-test
Exciting	4.95	.226	4.97	.160	.178
Adult Destination	4.97	.177	4.97	.160	.733
Popular	4.80	.403	4.78	.416	.673
Unique	4.87	.336	4.85	.361	.512
Family Atmosphere	4.25	.667	4.35	.623	.109
Entertainment	4.99	.103	4.97	.160	.266
African American Values	4.27	.511	4.74	.476	.000*
Affordable	4.47	.511	4.44	.497	.553
Sport and Recreation	4.59	.515	4.51	.512	.142
Safety	4.46	.500	4.47	.531	.909
Cleanliness	4.12	.360	4.12	.451	.975
Friendly People	4.99	.103	4.99	.102	.983

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level

Race and Spending

H1f: There are there differences in the spending patterns by African American and White travelers.

Table 7 shows the results of the T-tests for race and spending patterns on restaurants and meals, bars and nightclubs, gambling, other recreation and entertainment, shopping, and local transportation. Overall, White travelers spent more money on all activities than African American travelers. White travelers ($M = 192.86$, $SD = 113.24$) spent more money in restaurants or on meals than African American travelers ($M = 155.38$, $SD = 91.95$). A significant difference was found between race and restaurants and meals $t(763) = 5.02$, $p = .00$. White travelers ($M = 35.93$, $SD = 49.93$) also spent more in bars and nightclubs than African Americans ($M = 27.41$, $SD = 25.97$). A significant difference was found between race and the amount spent in bars and/or nightclubs $t(741) = 2.91$, $p = .00$.

Table 7. T-tests for Race and Spending Patterns

Money Spent (\$)								
Activities	Blacks			Whites			T-test	
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	Value	Probability
Restaurants/Meals	380	155.38	91.95	383	192.86	113.24	5.02	.00*
Bars/Nightclubs	369	27.41	25.97	372	35.93	49.93	2.91	.00*
Gambling	358	21.93	49.86	357	21.96	68.28	0.01	.99
Other								
Recreation/Entertainment	364	34.59	34.22	370	47.36	44.68	4.34	.00*
Shopping	378	79.44	52.99	382	105.34	65.29	6.00	.00*
Local Transportation	368	18.06	22.00	369	24.29	28.53	3.32	.00*

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

White travelers ($M = 47.36$, $SD = 44.68$) spent more money on other recreation/entertainment than African Americans ($M = 34.59$, $SD = 34.22$). A significant difference was found between African Americans and White travelers and the amount spent on other recreation and/or entertainment $t(734) = 4.34$, $p = .00$. White travelers ($M = 105.34$, $SD =$

65.29) spent more on shopping than African American travelers ($M = 79.44$, $SD = 52.99$) than Whites. A significant difference was found between African American and White travelers and the amount spent on shopping $t(760) = 6.00$, $p = .00$. Lastly, White travelers ($M = 24.29$, $SD = 28.53$) spent more on local transportation than African American travelers ($M = 18.06$, $SD = 22.00$). A significant difference was found between African American and White travelers and the amount spent on local transportation $t(737) = 3.32$, $p = .00$. Thus, there is support for H1f which says that there are differences in the spending patterns between African American and White travelers. White travelers spent significantly more in all categories including restaurants/meals, bars/nightclubs, other recreation/entertainment, shopping, and transportation. The only non-significant finding was for gambling.

The Effect of Race and Income on Trip Characteristics

Lower Income Traveler Comparisons

Transportation

H2a: There are differences in the modes of travel used by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Lower income White travelers ($N=89$) were more likely to travel by plane than African Americans ($N=76$). Contrarily, Whites ($N=260$) were less likely to travel in their personal vehicle than African Americans ($N=303$). There was not a significant difference $\chi^2(1, N=728) = 3.08$, $p = .08$ between the two groups in the modes of travel used for their trip to New Orleans. Thus, H2a is not supported and there are no differences in the modes of travel used by lower income African American and White travelers.

Participation in Travel Activities

H2b: There are differences in the participation in travel activities by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Lower income African American travelers were more likely to shop (N=522), sightsee (N=435), and visit the French Quarter (N=557) than White travelers. Lower income White travelers were more likely to dine in restaurants (N=311) and visit attractions (N=199) than African American travelers. The top activities for lower income African American and White travelers were visiting the French Quarter, sightseeing, and shopping. The results are summarized in Table 8.

A significant difference $\chi^2 (1, N = 3858) = 9.14, p=.10$ was not found between the participation in travel activities by lower income African American and White travelers. Thus H2b is rejected, and there are no differences in the participation in travel activities by lower income African American and White travelers. This finding contradicts the ethnicity theory since African American and White travelers with similar incomes are expected to exhibit different rates of participation in activities.

Table 8. Number of Times Activities were Indicated for Lower Income Travelers

Activities*	White Travelers	% of Total for each Activity	African American Travelers	% of Total for each Activity
Shopping	423	44.8%	522	55.2%
Restaurants	311	51.2%	297	48.8%
Attractions	199	50.4%	196	49.6%
Sightseeing	431	49.8%	435	50.2%
French Quarter	487	46.6%	557	53.4%

*Multiple responses were possible.

Sources of Information

H2c: There are differences in the sources of information used by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Lower income African American travelers were more likely than lower income White travelers to use their friends (N=90), convention planning information (N=14), or their previous knowledge or familiarity (N=151) with New Orleans as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. Lower income White travelers were more likely to search the internet (N=63) or get information from their business (N=17) as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. The top three sources of information used by lower income travelers include just knew, friends, and the internet. Again, as with race, friends as a sources of information for lower income African Americans is almost double that for lower income White travelers. The results are summarized in Table 9.

There was a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N=596)=10.83, p=.03$ between lower income African American and White travelers and the primary sources of information used when planning a trip. Thus, H2c is supported, and there are differences in the sources of information used by lower income African American and White travelers. This finding may be similar to Klemm's (2002) study where Asians preferred information that was related to Asian culture. Lower income African Americans may prefer sources of information that are relative to their culture.

Table 9. Sources of information for Lower Income Travelers

<i>Sources of information</i>	<i>Whites N</i>	<i>African Americans N</i>
Internet	63	58
Friends	46	90
Convention planning information	11	14
Business	17	14
Just Knew	132	151
Total	269	327

Importance of Destination Attributes

H2d: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

Table 10 shows two significant differences in the importance of various trip attributes when planning any trip for lower income travelers. A significant difference was found between lower income African Americans and Whites and the destination attributes African American Values $t = -22.485, p = .000$, and sport and recreation $t = -5.774, p = .00$. Lower income African American travelers ranked African American Values and sport and recreation higher than White travelers when planning any trip. Consequently, support is found for H2d which states that there

are differences in the importance of destination attributes by lower income African American and White travelers.

Table 10. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of importance ratings for Lower Income (Whites n=125) (African Americans n=137)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	p values of T-test
Exciting	4.58	.572	4.64	.554	.397
Adult Destination	4.60	.660	4.62	.655	.802
Popular	4.29	.728	4.40	.701	.200
Unique	4.18	.514	4.14	.545	.490
Family Atmosphere	3.41	1.001	3.46	.858	.652
Entertainment	4.65	3.867	4.29	.558	.288
African American Values	2.44	.756	4.36	.629	.000*
Affordable	4.83	.375	4.84	.368	.872
Sport and Recreation	3.07	.720	3.58	.694	.000*
Safety	4.69	.465	4.72	.449	.541
Cleanliness	4.72	.451	4.78	.416	.269
Friendly People	4.85	.360	4.88	.331	.514

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level

Satisfaction of Destination Attributes

H2e: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

The T-test for lower income African American and White travelers and satisfaction with New Orleans on the same destination attributes reveals one significant difference in Table 11. A significant difference was found between race and African American Values $t = -7.414$, $p = .000$. Limited support is found for H2e which states that there are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by lower income African American and White travelers since of the twelve attributes only African American Values was significant. Additionally, the difference between the importance and satisfaction rating was a positive result where lower income White travelers satisfaction score almost doubled over the importance rating.

Table 11. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of satisfaction ratings for Lower Income (Whites n=125) (African American n=137)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	p values of T-test
Exciting	4.94	.246	4.97	.169	.180
Adult Destination	4.96	.198	4.97	.169	.624
Popular	4.78	.413	4.80	.399	.707
Unique	4.87	.337	4.85	.354	.693
Family Atmosphere	4.27	.677	4.35	.648	.339
Entertainment	4.99	.090	4.97	.169	.215
African American Values	4.30	.542	4.75	.434	.000*
Affordable	4.39	.489	4.36	.481	.625
Sport and Recreation	4.58	.512	4.48	.502	.134
Safety	4.45	.500	4.51	.502	.340
Cleanliness	4.10	.332	4.14	.407	.440
Friendly People	4.98	.126	4.99	.085	.506

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level

Spending

H2f: There are differences in the spending patterns by lower income African American and lower income White travelers.

The results of the T-tests for lower income African Americans and White travelers and their spending patterns on restaurants and meals, bars and nightclubs, gambling, other recreation and entertainment, shopping, and local transportation are presented in Table 12. African Americans (M = 141.51, SD = 86.25) spent less money in restaurants or on meals than Whites (M = 169.81, SD = 107.24). A significant difference was found between race and restaurants and meals $t(493) = 9.94$, $p = .00$. African Americans spent less in bars and nightclubs (M = 24.29, SD = 24.45) than Whites (M = 32.88, SD = 53.22). A significant difference was found between race and the amount spent in bars and/or nightclubs $t(477) = 12.90$, $p = .00$.

Table 12. T-tests for Spending Patterns by Lower Income Travelers

Activities	Money Spent (\$)							
	African Americans			Whites			T-test	
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	Value	Probability
Restaurants/Meals	261	141.51	86.25	232	169.81	107.24	9.94	.00*
Bars/Nightclubs	253	24.29	24.45	224	32.88	53.22	12.90	.00*
Gambling	249	14.88	37.89	221	11.33	30.80	3.68	.06
Other								
Recreation/Entertainment	252	34.23	32.18	227	43.66	41.48	11.24	.00*
Shopping	260	75.79	50.25	232	98.60	59.84	9.70	.00*
Local Transportation	253	12.34	18.32	223	16.35	28.02	16.05	.00*

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

African Americans ($M = 34.23$, $SD = 32.18$) spent less money on other recreation and/or entertainment than Whites ($M = 43.66$, $SD = 41.48$). A significant difference was found between lower income African Americans and Whites and the amount spent on other recreation and/or entertainment $t(479) = 11.24$, $p = .00$. African Americans spent less money on shopping ($M = 75.79$, $SD = 50.25$) than Whites ($M = 98.60$, $SD = 59.84$). A significant difference was found between lower income African Americans and Whites in the amount spent on shopping $t(492) = 9.70$, $p = .00$. African Americans spent less money on local transportation ($M = 12.34$, $SD = 18.32$) than Whites ($M = 16.35$, $SD = 28.02$). A significant difference was found between lower income African Americans and Whites in the amount spent on local transportation $t(476) = 16.05$, $p = .00$. African Americans spent more money on gambling ($M = 14.88$, $SD = 37.89$) than Whites ($M = 11.33$, $SD = 30.80$). However, a significant difference was not found between lower income African American and Whites and gambling $t(470) = 3.68$, $p = .06$. Thus, there is support for H2f which says that there are differences in the spending patterns by lower income African American and White travelers.

Higher Income Traveler Comparisons

H2g: There are differences in the modes of travel by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

The preferred mode of travel for higher income White travelers (N=143) and higher income African Americans (N=111) was by airplane. Also, higher income Whites (N=66) and African Americans (N=59) traveled in their personal vehicle to New Orleans. There was not a significant difference $\chi^2(1, N=379) = .42, p = .52$ between the two groups in the modes of travel used for their trip to New Orleans. Thus, H2g is not supported and there are no differences in the modes of travel used by lower income African American and White travelers.

Participation in Travel Activities

H2h: There are differences in the participation in travel activities by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

Higher income White travelers were more likely to indicate that they participated in all activities more than higher income African American travelers. Higher income Whites were more likely to shop (N=224), dine at restaurants (N=205), visit attractions (N=93), sightsee (N=241), and visit the French Quarter (N=287). The results are shown in Table 13. However, the top three activities indicated for both higher income White and African American travelers were visiting the French Quarter, sightseeing, and shopping.

There was a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N = 1902) = 18.95, p=.00$ between the participation in travel activities by higher income African American and White travelers. H2h is accepted since the overall model with the participation in travel activities by higher income African American and White travelers are significant. This finding contradicts Gailliard's (1985) findings where African Americans and Whites with incomes greater than \$75,000 exhibited similar participation rates in activities. White higher income travelers were almost

twice as likely to indicate that they visited restaurants and attractions compared to African American higher income travelers.

Table 13. Number of Times Activities was Indicated for Higher Income Travelers

Activities*	White Travelers	% of Total for each Activity	African American Travelers	% of Total for each Activity
Shopping	224	51.4%	212	48.6%
Restaurants	205	59.0%	143	41.0%
Attractions	93	67.4%	45	32.6%
Sightseeing	241	69.3%	173	41.8%
French Quarter	287	50.7%	279	49.3%

*Multiple responses were possible.

This finding could provide support for the ethnicity theory since White and African American travelers with higher incomes exhibited differences in their participation in activities while visiting New Orleans.

Sources of Information

H2i: There are differences in the sources of information used by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

Higher income African American travelers were more likely than higher income White travelers to use their friends (N=23) and convention planning information (N=15) as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. Higher income White travelers were more likely to search the internet (N=50), get information from their business (N=28), or use their previous knowledge or familiarity (N=32) with New Orleans as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. The top three sources of information used by higher income White travelers was different than for African Americans. Both groups ranked the internet and just knew as their top two sources of information used. However, Whites ranked their third choice as business while African Americans ranked friends as their third choice. The results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. Sources of information for Higher Income Travelers

<i>Sources of information</i>	<i>Whites N</i>	<i>African Americans N</i>
Internet	50	41
Friends	22	23
Convention planning information	14	15
Business	28	10
Just Knew	32	28
Total	146	117

There was not a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N=263)=6.62, p=.16$ between higher income African American and White travelers and the primary sources of information used when planning a trip. Thus, H2i is rejected, and there are no differences in the sources of information used by higher income African American and White travelers. This finding is contrary to

Klemm (2002) where Asians preferred marketing campaigns that reflect their Asian culture. In fact, African American travelers with higher incomes used similar sources of information as White travelers with higher incomes.

Importance of Destination Attributes

H2j: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

Table 15 shows two significant differences in the importance of various trip attributes when planning any trip for higher income travelers. A significant difference was found between higher income African Americans and Whites and the destination attributes African American Values $t = -14.473$, $p = .00$, and sport and recreation $t = -3.707$, $p = .000$. African Americans rated the attributes African American Values and sport and recreation higher than Whites when planning any trip. Consequently, support is found for H2j which states that there are differences in the importance of destination attributes by higher income African American and White travelers.

Table 15. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of importance ratings for Higher Income (Whites n=62) (African Americans n=53)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	p values of T-test
Exciting	4.34	.571	4.36	.522	.848
Adult Destination	4.69	.531	4.83	.379	.121
Popular	3.87	.614	4.06	.602	.106
Unique	4.18	.529	4.26	.524	.381
Family Atmosphere	3.13	.914	3.11	.800	.922
Entertainment	4.24	.534	4.38	.489	.162
African American Values	2.23	.663	4.06	.691	.000*
Affordable	4.40	.527	4.26	.560	.173
Sport and Recreation	3.23	.838	3.77	.703	.000*
Safety	4.81	.398	4.79	.409	.853
Cleanliness	4.82	.426	4.81	.395	.884
Friendly People	4.94	.248	4.83	.379	.077

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level

Satisfaction of Destination Attributes

H2k: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

The T-test for higher income African American and White travelers and satisfaction with New Orleans on the same destination attributes shows only one significant difference out of twelve in Table 16. A significant difference was found between race and African American Values, $t = -5.338$, $p = .00$. Consequently, limited support is found for H2k which states that there are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by higher income African American and White travelers. The ethnicity theory provides very limited explanation between the differences in the satisfaction ratings for higher income African American and White travelers.

Table 16. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of satisfaction ratings for Higher Income (Whites n=62) (African Americans n=53)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	p values of T-test
Exciting	4.97	.178	4.98	.137	.657
Adult Destination	4.98	.127	4.98	.137	.912
Popular	4.82	.385	4.72	.455	.180
Unique	4.87	.338	4.83	.379	.543
Family Atmosphere	4.19	.649	4.36	.558	.150
Entertainment	4.98	.127	4.98	.137	.912
African American Values	4.19	.438	4.70	.575	.000*
Affordable	4.63	.520	4.64	.484	.895
Sport and Recreation	4.61	.523	4.58	.535	.778
Safety	4.48	.504	4.36	.591	.222
Cleanliness	4.16	.413	4.08	.549	.342
Friendly People	5.00	.000	4.98	.137	.281

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level

Spending

H21: There are differences in the spending patterns by higher income African American and higher income White travelers.

The results of the T-tests for higher income African Americans and White travelers and their spending patterns on restaurants and meals, bars and nightclubs, gambling, other recreation and entertainment, shopping, and local transportation are in Table 17. Although higher income White travelers spent more on all activities, only three activities had significant results. Higher income African Americans ($M = 185.80$, $SD = 96.98$) spent less money in restaurants or on meals than higher income Whites ($M = 228.28$, $SD = 113.40$). A significant difference was found between higher income travelers and restaurants and meals $t(270) = 3.26$, $p = .00$.

Table 17. T-tests for Spending Patterns by Higher Income Travelers

Money Spent (\$)								
	African Americans			Whites			T-test	
Activities	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	Value	Probability
Restaurants/Meals	119	185.80	96.98	151	228.28	113.40	3.26	.00*
Bars/Nightclubs	116	34.22	27.94	148	40.54	44.27	1.34	.18
Gambling	109	38.03	67.42	136	39.23	101.30	.11	.92
Other								
Recreation/Entertainment	112	35.40	38.58	143	53.25	48.92	3.17	.00*
Shopping	118	87.50	58.00	150	115.77	71.90	3.47	.00*
Local Transportation	115	30.65	24.14	146	36.43	24.85	1.89	.06

*significant at .00 level

African Americans ($M = 35.40$, $SD = 38.58$) spent less money on other recreation and/or entertainment than Whites ($M = 53.25$, $SD = 48.92$). A significant difference was found between higher income African Americans and Whites and the amount spent on other recreation and/or entertainment $t(255) = 3.17$, $p = .00$. African Americans spent less money on shopping ($M = 87.50$, $SD = 58.00$) than Whites ($M = 115.77$, $SD = 71.90$). A significant difference was found between higher income African Americans and Whites in the amount spent on shopping $t(268) = 3.47$, $p = .00$. Thus, there is support for H2I which says that there are differences in the spending patterns by higher income African American and White travelers.

The Effect of Race and Gender on Trip Characteristics.

Female Traveler Comparisons

Transportation

H3a: There are differences in the modes of travel used by African American female and White female travelers.

White females ($N=185$) and African American females ($N=238$) to travel in their personal vehicle. The next mode of travel used by White female travelers ($N=122$) and African

American female travelers (N=77) was by plane. There was a significant difference $\chi^2(1, N=622) = 16.72, p = .00$ between the two groups in the modes of travel used for their trip to New Orleans. Thus, H3a is supported and there are differences in the modes of travel used by African American female and White female travelers. More African American females traveled by automobile and White females traveled more by plane.

Participation in Travel Activities

H3b: There are differences in the participation in travel activities by African American female and White female travelers.

The participation in travel activities by African American and White female travelers are summarized in Table 18. African American female travelers were more likely to shop (N=440) and visit the French Quarter (N=453). White female travelers were more likely to dine in restaurants (N=273), visit attractions (N=166), and sightsee (N=377).

Table 18. Number of Times Activities Were Indicated by Female Travelers

Activities*	White Females	% of Total for each Activity	African American Females	% of Total for each Activity
Shopping	373	45.9%	440	54.1%
Restaurants	273	53.3%	239	46.7%
Attractions	166	52.2%	152	47.8%
Sightseeing	377	51.6%	354	48.4%
French Quarter	410	47.5%	453	52.5%

*Multiple responses were possible.

There was a significant difference $\chi^2 (4, N = 3237) = 10.79, p=.05$ between the participation in travel activities by African American female and White female travelers. Thus, H3b is accepted, and differences exist in the participation in travel activities by African American female and White female travelers. In the urban tourism context, African American and White women travelers exhibit differences in their participation rates in activities while visiting New Orleans.

Sources of information

H3c: There are differences in the sources of information used by African American female and White female travelers.

African American female travelers were more likely than White female travelers to use their friends (N=73) or their previous knowledge or familiarity (N=120) with New Orleans as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans in Table 19. White female travelers were more likely to search the internet (N=60), get information from convention planning information (N=13), or get information from their business (N=14) as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. For both groups, the top three sources of information were they just knew, friends, and the internet.

Table 19. Sources of information for Female Travelers

<i>Sources of information</i>	<i>Whites N</i>	<i>African Americans N</i>
Internet	60	53
Friends	46	73
Convention planning information	13	10
Business	14	9
Just Knew	96	120
Total	229	265

There was not a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N=494)=8.12, p=.09$ between African American female and White female travelers and the primary sources of information used when planning a trip. Thus, H3c is rejected, and there are no differences in the sources of information used by African American female and White female travelers. Although Asians preferred sources of information that reflected their Asian culture (Klemm, 2002), African American women in the urban tourism context, did not differ in the source of materials used when planning their trip to New Orleans.

Importance of Destination Attributes

H3d: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American female and White female travelers.

Two significant differences were found in Table 20 between the importance of various trip attributes when planning any trip and female travelers. A significant difference was found between African American and White female travelers and the destination attributes African American Values $t = -21.294, p=.000$, and sport and recreation $t = -5.355, p=.000$. African American females rated African American Values and sport and recreation more important than White females when planning any trip. Therefore, support is found for H3d which states that there are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American and White female travelers.

Table 20. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of importance ratings for Females (Whites n=114) (African Americans n=109)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	p values of T-test
Exciting	4.56	.595	4.60	.546	.649
Adult Destination	4.57	.678	4.61	.637	.614
Popular	4.27	.732	4.39	.693	.237
Unique	4.20	.518	4.18	.530	.795
Family Atmosphere	3.45	.932	3.50	.878	.693
Entertainment	4.73	4.031	4.34	.548	.320
African American Values	2.45	.718	4.39	.637	.000*
Affordable	4.70	.460	4.73	.444	.595
Sport and Recreation	3.01	.710	3.48	.587	.000*
Safety	4.75	.437	4.72	.453	.615
Cleanliness	4.75	.432	4.81	.396	.342
Friendly People	4.88	.330	4.89	.314	.769

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level

Satisfaction of Destination Attributes

H3e: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American female and White female travelers.

The T-test for African American and White female travelers and satisfaction with New Orleans on the same destination attributes reveals two significant differences in Table 21. A significant difference was found between African American and White female travelers and entertainment $t = 2.075$, $p = .039$ and African American Values $t = -7.990$, $p = .000$. African American females rated their satisfaction with African American Values higher, yet White females satisfaction with African American Values almost doubled. White female travelers rated their satisfaction with New Orleans entertainment a perfect 5 indicating their extreme happiness with the entertainment offerings. Consequently, support is found for H3e which states that there are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American and White female travelers.

Table 21. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of satisfaction ratings for Females (Whites n=114) (Blacks n=109)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	p values of T-test
Exciting	4.96	.185	4.99	.096	.193
Adult Destination	4.96	.206	4.96	.189	.787
Popular	4.80	.403	4.81	.396	.865
Unique	4.89	.319	4.88	.326	.904
Family Atmosphere	4.35	.652	4.43	.629	.350
Entertainment	5.00	.000	4.96	.189	.039**
African American Values	4.26	.499	4.76	.428	.000*
Affordable	4.46	.501	4.42	.496	.521
Sport and Recreation	4.55	.517	4.48	.502	.269
Safety	4.48	.502	4.52	.502	.548
Cleanliness	4.11	.336	4.19	.414	.114
Friendly People	4.99	.094	4.98	.135	.537

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level **significant at .05 level

Spending

H3f: There are differences in the spending patterns by African American female and White female travelers.

Table 22 shows the results of the T-tests for African American and White female travelers and their spending patterns on restaurants and meals, bars and nightclubs, gambling, other recreation and entertainment, shopping, and local transportation. White female travelers spent more on all activities than African American females. A significant difference was found between African American and White female travelers and restaurants and meals $t(412) = 4.85$, $p = .00$, bars and nightclubs $t(399) = 3.25$, $p = .00$, recreation and entertainment $t(384) = 4.22$, $p = .00$, shopping $t(411) = 6.17$, $p = .00$, and local transportation $t(395) = 3.73$, $p = .00$.

Table 22. T-tests for Spending Patterns by Female Travelers

Money Spent (\$)								
	African Americans			Whites			T-test	
Activities	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	Value	Probability
Restaurants/Meals	215	141.21	87.55	197	189.16	112.68	4.85	.00*
Bars/Nightclubs	208	22.91	23.22	191	36.65	55.99	3.25	.00*
Gambling	200	14.85	37.32	184	17.58	42.87	.67	.50
Other								
Recreation/Entertainment	206	32.75	29.38	193	48.34	43.47	4.22	.00*
Shopping	214	77.31	53.75	197	112.84	62.84	6.17	.00*
Local Transportation	207	13.97	19.26	188	23.19	29.29	3.73	.00*

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Thus, there is support for H3f which says that there are differences in the spending patterns by African American and White female travelers.

Male Traveler Comparisons

Transportation

H3g: There are differences in the modes of travel used by African American male and White male travelers.

White male travelers (N=110) were equally likely to travel by plane as African American male travelers (N=110). White males (N=141) were more likely to travel in their personal vehicle than African Americans males (N=124). There was not a significant difference $\chi^2(1, N=485) = .50, p = .48$ between the two groups in the modes of travel used for their trip to New Orleans. Thus, H3g is rejected and there are no differences in the modes of travel used by African American male and White male travelers.

Participation in Travel Activities

H3h: There are differences in the participation in travel activities by African American male and White male travelers.

The participation in travel activities by male travelers are presented in Table 23. African American male travelers were more likely to shop (N=294) and visit the French Quarter (N=383). White male travelers were more likely to dine in restaurants (N=243), visit attractions (N=126), and sightsee (N=295).

Table 23. Number of Times Activities Were Indicated by Male Travelers

Activities*	White Males	% of Total for each Activity	African American Males	% of Total for each Activity
Shopping	274	48.2%	294	51.8%
Restaurants	243	54.7%	201	45.3%
Attractions	126	58.6%	89	41.4%
Sightseeing	295	53.7%	254	46.3%
French Quarter	364	48.7%	383	51.3%

*Multiple responses were possible.

There was a significant difference $\chi^2 (4, N = 2523) = 12.00, p=.03$ between the participation in travel activities by African American male and White male travelers. Only the overall model revealed significant differences between African American male and White male travelers. However, the top three activities indicated by both groups were visiting the French

Quarter, shopping, and sightseeing. Thus, H3h is accepted and there are differences in the participation in travel activities by African American male and White male travelers.

Sources of information

H3i: There are differences in the sources of information used by African American male and White male travelers.

In Table 24, African American male travelers were more likely than White male travelers to use their friends (N=40) or convention planning information (N=19) as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. White male travelers were more likely to search the internet (N=53), get information from their business (N=31) or use their previous knowledge or familiarity (N=68) with New Orleans as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. Males cited their top two sources of information as they just knew and internet. The third sources of information differed for Whites males (business) as compared to African American males (friends). White males were twice as likely to cite business as their sources of information compared to African American males.

Table 24. Sources of information for Male Travelers

<i>Sources of information</i>	<i>Whites N</i>	<i>African Americans N</i>
Internet	53	46
Friends	22	40
Convention planning information	12	19
Business	31	15
Just Knew	68	59
Total	186	179

There was a significant difference $\chi^2(4, N=365) = 13.38, p=.01$ between African American male and White male travelers and the primary sources of information used when

planning a trip. Thus, H3i is accepted, and there are differences in the sources of information used by African American male and White male travelers. This finding supports Klemm's (2002) results where Asians were reportedly diverted from sources of information that did not reflect their own cultural style.

Importance of Destination Attributes

H3j: There are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American male and White male travelers.

Three significant differences in the importance of various trip attributes when planning any trip for male travelers are displayed in Table 25. A significant difference was found between African American and White male travelers and the destination attributes popular $t = -2.215$, $p = .028$, African American Values $t = -16.658$, $p = .00$, and sport and recreation $t = -4.149$, $p = .00$.

Table 25. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of importance ratings for Males (Whites $n = 73$) (Blacks $n = 81$)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	<i>p</i> values of T-test
Exciting	4.40	.546	4.51	.573	.230
Adult Destination	4.73	.507	4.77	.531	.639
Popular	3.96	.655	4.20	.679	.028**
Unique	4.15	.518	4.16	.558	.910
Family Atmosphere	3.11	1.021	3.19	.792	.607
Entertainment	4.18	.631	4.28	.530	.260
African American Values	2.25	.741	4.14	.666	.000*
Affordable	4.67	.502	4.60	.563	.444
Sport and Recreation	3.30	.811	3.84	.787	.000*
Safety	4.70	.462	4.78	.418	.266
Cleanliness	4.75	.465	4.76	.428	.900
Friendly People	4.88	.331	4.83	.380	.392

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level **significant at .05 level

For all significant attributes, African American males rated their importance higher than White males when planning any trip. Consequently, support is found for H3j which states that

there are differences in the importance of destination attributes by African American and White male travelers.

Satisfaction of Destination Attributes

H3k: There are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American male and White male travelers.

The T-test for African American and White male travelers and satisfaction with New Orleans on the same destination attributes shows one significant difference in Table 26. Whites males satisfaction with New Orleans African American Values almost doubled from their importance ratings when planning any trip.

Table 26. Means, standard deviations, and T-test results of satisfaction ratings for Males (Whites n=73) (African Americans n=81)

Attribute	Means Whites	Standard Deviation	Means Blacks	Standard Deviation	p values of T-test
Exciting	4.92	.277	4.95	.218	.413
Adult Destination	4.99	.118	4.99	.111	.934
Popular	4.79	.407	4.74	.441	.434
Unique	4.85	.362	4.80	.401	.472
Family Atmosphere	4.08	.662	4.25	.603	.108
Entertainment	4.97	.165	4.99	.111	.495
African American Values	4.27	.534	4.70	.535	.000*
Affordable	4.47	.530	4.46	.501	.853
Sport and Recreation	4.64	.510	4.56	.524	.292
Safety	4.43	.499	4.40	.563	.682
Cleanliness	4.15	.397	4.04	.486	.116
Friendly People	4.99	.118	5.00	.000	.290

Scale 5=Very important and 1=Not at all important

*significant at .00 level

Since only one of the twelve differences were found between African American and White male travelers for African American Values $t = -4.983$, $p = .000$, limited support is found

for H3k which states that there are differences in the satisfaction of destination attributes by African American and White male travelers.

Spending

H3l: There are differences in the spending patterns by African American male and White male travelers.

Table 27 shows the results of the T-tests for African Americans and White male travelers and their spending patterns on restaurants and meals, bars and nightclubs, gambling, other recreation and entertainment, shopping, and local transportation. White male travelers spent more on restaurants and meals ($M = 196.77$, $SD = 113.99$), bars and nightclubs ($M = 35.17$, $SD = 42.77$), other recreation and entertainment ($M = 46.30$, $SD = 46.06$), shopping ($M = 97.35$, $SD = 67.06$), and local transportation ($M = 25.44$, $SD = 27.75$) than African American male travelers whereas African American males spent more on gambling ($M = 30.89$, $SD = 61.19$). A significant difference was found between African American and White male travelers and restaurants and meals $t(351) = 2.04$, $p = .04$, recreation and entertainment $t(335) = 1.97$, $p = .05$, and shopping $t(349) = 2.33$, $p = .02$.

Table 27. T-tests for Spending Patterns by Male Travelers

Money Spent	Blacks			Whites			T-test	
Activities	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	Value	Probability
Restaurants/Meals	165	173.85	94.50	186	196.77	113.99	2.04	.04***
Bars/Nightclubs	161	33.23	28.17	181	35.17	42.77	.49	.63
Gambling	158	30.89	61.19	173	26.62	87.47	-.51	.61
Other								
Recreation/Entertainment	158	36.99	39.64	177	46.30	46.06	1.97	.05***
Shopping	164	82.23	52.02	185	97.35	67.06	2.33	.02***
Local Transportation	161	23.32	24.14	181	25.44	27.75	.75	.46

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Thus, there is support for H3I which says that there are differences in the spending patterns by African American and White male travelers.

Analysis of Variance

After conducting the t-test to test for differences in means between African American and White travelers regarding spending and the importance and satisfaction of destination attributes, significant results were further examined using two-way ANOVA. Two-way ANOVA was conducted in SPSS 12.0 to examine if there were any significant interaction effects for race and income and race and gender. There were two levels for race, White and African American; two levels for gender, male and female; and two levels for income, low and high.

Gender and Race

The two way ANOVA was used to explore the interaction of gender and race on the following dependent variables: importance when planning any trip attributes named African American Values and sport and recreation; satisfaction with New Orleans attributes, entertainment; and African American Values. Other dependent variables included money spent in restaurants/meals, bars/nightclubs, other recreation/entertainment, shopping, and local transportation. Since previous studies have not investigated the effects of race, gender or income upon these trip characteristics, the two-way ANOVA offers further analysis of the significant findings.

Gender and Race on Importance of African American Values

In Table 28, the interaction of gender and race and the importance of destinations offering African American Values were explored. There was a significant main effect for gender on the importance attribute African American Values, $F(1,373) = 9.710$, $p < .05$. Thus, gender influenced the importance of destinations offering African American Values when planning any

trip. There was also a significant main effect for race and African American Values, $F(1, 373) = 701.400$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced how important African American Values were during the planning of any trip. There was a non-significant interaction between gender and race on the importance of destinations offering African American Values when planning any trip, $F(1, 373) = .114$, $p = .736$.

Table 28

Analysis of Variance for Gender and Importance Attribute African American Values

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	9.710	.002**
Race	1	701.400	.000*
Gender X Race	1	.114	.736
Within Group Error	373	(.475)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level

Gender and Race on Sport and Recreation

In Table 29, the interaction of gender and race and the importance of sport and recreation offerings at a destination when planning any trip were investigated. There was a significant main effect for gender on the importance attribute sport and recreation, $F(1,372) = 18.870$, $p < .001$. Thus, gender influenced the importance of sport and recreation offerings at a destination when planning any trip. There was also a significant main effect for race on the importance attribute

sport and recreation, $F(1, 372) = 44.641$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the importance of sport and recreation offerings at a destination when planning any trip. There was a non-significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on the importance of sport and recreation offerings at a destination when planning any trip, $F(1, 372) = .204$, $p = .652$.

Table 29

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Importance Attribute Sport and Recreation

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	18.870	.000*
Race	1	44.641	.000*
Gender X Race	1	.204	.652
Within Group Error	372	(.512)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level

Gender and Race on Satisfaction with New Orleans Entertainment

Table 30 displays the ANOVA results for the interaction of gender and race and the satisfaction with New Orleans entertainment. There was a non-significant main effect for gender on satisfaction with entertainment, $F(1,372) = .015$, $p = .904$. There was also a non-significant main effect for race on satisfaction with entertainment $F(1, 372) = .561$, $p = .454$. Additionally, there was a non-significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on satisfaction with entertainment, $F(1, 372) = 3.372$, $p = .067$.

Table 30

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Satisfaction with New Orleans Entertainment

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	.015	.904
Race	1	.561	.454
Gender X Race	1	3.372	.067
Within Group Error	372	(.018)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Gender and Race on Satisfaction with New Orleans African American Values

In Table 31, the interaction of gender and race and the satisfaction with New Orleans' offerings of African American Values was tested. There was a non-significant main effect for gender on satisfaction with African American Values, $F(1,373) = .205$, $p = .651$. There was a significant main effect for race on satisfaction with African American Values $F(1, 373) = .79.975$, $p = .000$. Hence, race influenced the satisfaction level of tourists with New Orleans African American Values or attractions. There was a non-significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on satisfaction with African American Values, $F(1, 372) = 3.372$, $p = .067$.

Table 31

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Satisfaction with New Orleans African American Values

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	.205	.651
Race	1	79.975	.000*
Gender X Race	1	.437	.509
Within Group Error	373	(.245)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level

Gender and Race on Spending on Restaurants/Meals

In Table 32, the interaction of gender and race and spending on restaurants and meals when visiting New Orleans was explored. There was a significant main effect for gender on spending on restaurants/meals, $F(1,759) = 7.265$, $p < .05$. Thus, gender influenced the amount of money spent on restaurants and meals when visiting New Orleans. There was also a significant main effect for race on spending on restaurants/meals, $F(1, 759) = 22.529$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent at restaurants or on meals. There was a non-significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on the amount of money spent on restaurants/meals, $F(1, 759) = 2.809$, $p = .094$.

Table 32

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Money Spent on Restaurants/Meals

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	7.265	.007**
Race	1	22.529	.000*
Gender X Race	1	2.809	.094
Within Group Error	759	(10536.519)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level

Gender and Race on Spending in Bars/Nightclubs

In Table 33, the interaction of gender and race and spending on bars/nightclubs when visiting New Orleans was tested. There was a non-significant main effect for gender on spending in bars/nightclubs, $F(1,737) = 2.272$, $p = .132$. There was a significant main effect for race on spending in bars/nightclubs, $F(1, 737) = 7.149$, $p < .05$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent at restaurants or on meals. There was a significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on the amount of money spent in bars/nightclubs, $F(1, 737) = 4.053$, $p < .05$. Thus, race and gender had an effect on the amount of money spent on bars/nightclubs for visitors to New Orleans.

Table 33

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Money Spent in Bars/Nightclubs

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	2.272	.132
Race	1	7.149	.008**
Gender X Race	1	4.053	.044***
Within Group Error	737	(1578.464)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Gender and Race on Spending on Other Recreation/Entertainment

In Table 34, the interaction of gender and race and spending on other recreation/entertainment when visiting New Orleans was explored. There was a non-significant main effect for gender on spending on other recreation/entertainment, $F(1,730) = .139$, $p = .710$. There was a significant main effect for race on spending on other recreation/entertainment, $F(1, 730) = 17.726$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent on other recreation/entertainment. There was a non-significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on the amount of money spent on other recreation/entertainment, $F(1, 730) = 1.131$, $p = .288$.

Table 34

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Money Spent on Other Recreation/Entertainment

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	.139	.710
Race	1	17.726	.000*
Gender X Race	1	1.131	.288
Within Group Error	730	(1588.825)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level

Gender and Race on Shopping

In Table 35, the interaction of gender and race and spending on shopping when visiting New Orleans was explored. There was a non-significant main effect for gender on spending on shopping, $F(1,756) = 1.498$, $p = .221$. There was a significant main effect for race on spending on shopping, $F(1, 756) = 34.343$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent on shopping. There was a significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on the amount of money spent on shopping, $F(1, 756) = 5.572$, $p < .05$. Thus, race and gender had an effect on the amount of money spent on shopping for visitors to New Orleans.

Table 35

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Money Spent on Shopping

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	1.498	.221
Race	1	34.343	.000*
Gender X Race	1	5.572	.019***
Within Group Error	756	(3515.679)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Gender and Race on Spending on Local Transportation

In Table 36, the interaction of gender and race and spending on local transportation when visiting New Orleans was explored. There was a significant main effect for gender on spending on local transportation, $F(1,733) = 9.620$, $p < .05$. Thus, gender influenced the amount of money spent on local transportation when visiting New Orleans. There was also a significant main effect for race on spending on local transportation, $F(1, 733) = 9.189$, $p < .05$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent on local transportation. There was a non-significant interaction between the gender and race of a traveler on the amount of money spent on local transportation, $F(1, 733) = 3.615$, $p = .058$.

Table 36

Analysis of Variance for Gender/Race and Money Spent on Local Transportation

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Gender	1	9.620	.002**
Race	1	9.189	.003**
Gender X Race	1	3.615	.058
Within Group Error	733	(639.295)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Income and Race

The two-way ANOVA was used to analyze the interaction of income and race on the following dependent variables: the importance of destinations offering African American Values and sport and recreation; satisfaction with New Orleans on African American Values; money spent in restaurants/meals, bars/nightclubs, other recreation/entertainment, shopping, and local transportation.

Income and Race on African American Values

In Table 37, the interaction of income and race and the importance of destinations offering African American Values was examined. There was a significant main effect for income on the importance attribute African American Values, $F(1, 373) = 11.492$, $p < .005$. Hence, income influenced how important African American Values or attractions were at a destination when planning any trip. There was also a significant main effect for race on the

importance attribute African American Values, $F(1,373) = 593.625$, $p < .000$. Thus, race influenced how important African American Values or attractions offered at a destination were in their decision when planning a trip. There was a non-significant interaction between the income level and race of a traveler on the importance when planning any trip attribute African American Values, $F(1, 373) = .373$, $p = .542$.

Table 37

Analysis of Variance for Income and Race for the Importance Attribute African American Values

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	11.492	.001**
Race	1	593.625	.000*
Income X Race	1	.373	.542
Within Group Error	373	(.472)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level

Income and Race on Sport and Recreation

In Table 38, the interaction of income and race and sport and recreation offerings at a destination when planning a trip was tested. There was a significant main effect for income on the importance attribute sport and recreation, $F(1,372) = 4.453$, $p < .05$. Thus, income influenced a traveler's decision to visit a destination based on the sport and recreation offered at

the destinations. There was also a significant main effect for race on the importance attribute sport and recreation, $F(1, 372) = 40.765$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced a traveler's decision to visit a destination based on the sport and recreation offered at the destination. There was a non-significant interaction between the income and race of a traveler on the attribute sport and recreation, $F(1, 372) = .056$, $p = .813$.

Table 38

Analysis of Variance for Race and Income and Importance Attribute Sport and Recreation

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	4.453	.036***
Race	1	40.765	.000*
Income X Race	1	.056	.813
Within Group Error	372	(.532)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Income and Race on Satisfaction with African American Values

In Table 39, the interaction of income and race and the satisfaction when planning any trip destination attribute African American Values was examined. There was a non-significant main effect for income on the satisfaction with New Orleans on African American Values, $F(1, 373) = 2.200$, $p = .139$. There was a significant main effect for race on the satisfaction with New Orleans on African American Values, $F(1, 373) = 74.036$, $p < .001$. Thus, race influenced a

traveler's satisfaction with the African American Values or attractions offered in New Orleans. There was a non-significant interaction between income and race and satisfaction with the offering of African American Values or attractions in New Orleans, $F(1, 373) = .263$, $p = .609$.

Table 39

Analysis of Variance for Income and Race and Satisfaction with African American Values

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	2.200	.139
Race	1	74.036	.000*
Income X Race	1	.263	.609
Within Group Error	373	(.244)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level

Income and Race on Spending on Restaurants/Meals

In Table 40, the interaction of income and race and spending on restaurants and meals when visiting New Orleans was explored. There was a significant main effect for income on spending on restaurants/meals, $F(1,759) = 45.342$, $p < .001$. Thus, income influenced the amount of money spent on restaurants and meals when visiting New Orleans. There was also a significant main effect for race on spending on restaurants/meals, $F(1, 759) = 21.508$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent at restaurants or on meals. There was a non-

significant interaction between income and race of a traveler on the amount of money spent on restaurants/meals, $F(1, 759) = .864, p = .353$.

Table 40

Analysis of Variance for Income and Race and Money Spent on Restaurants/Meals

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	45.342	.000*
Race	1	21.508	.000*
Income X Race	1	.864	.353
Within Group Error	759	(10051.640)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level

Income and Race on Spending in Bars/Nightclubs

In Table 41, the interaction of income and race and spending on bars/nightclubs when visiting New Orleans was examined. There was a significant main effect for income on spending in bars/nightclubs, $F(1, 737) = 8.267, p < .005$. Therefore, income influenced the amount of money spent in bars/nightclubs. There was a significant main effect for race on spending in bars/nightclubs, $F(1, 737) = 5.933, p < .05$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent in bars/nightclubs. There was a non-significant interaction between income and race on the amount of money spent in bars/nightclubs, $F(1, 737) = .138, p = .710$.

Table 41

Analysis of Variance for Income/Race and Money Spent in Bars/Nightclubs

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	8.267	.004**
Race	1	5.933	.015***
Income X Race	1	.138	.710
Within Group Error	737	(1574.109)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level ***significant at .05 level

Income and Race on Spending on Other Recreation/Entertainment

In Table 42, the interaction of income and race and spending on other recreation/entertainment when visiting New Orleans was examined. There was a non-significant main effect for income on spending on other recreation/entertainment, $F(1,730) = 3.019$, $p = .083$. There was a significant main effect for race on spending on other recreation/entertainment, $F(1, 730) = 19.377$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent on other recreation/entertainment. There was a non-significant interaction between income and race on the amount of money spent on other recreation/entertainment, $F(1, 730) = 1.848$, $p = .174$.

Table 42

Analysis of Variance for Income/Race and Money Spent on Other Recreation/Entertainment

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	3.019	.083
Race	1	19.377	.000*
Income X Race	1	1.848	.174
Within Group Error	730	(1580.350)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level

Income and Race on Shopping

Table 43 displays the results of the interaction of income and race and amount of money spent on shopping while visiting New Orleans. There was a significant main effect for income on spending on shopping, $F(1,756) = 10.232$, $p < .05$. Thus, income influenced the amount of money spent on shopping while visiting New Orleans. There was a significant main effect for race on spending on shopping, $F(1, 756) = 32.006$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent on shopping. There was a non-significant interaction between income and race and the amount of money spent shopping while visiting New Orleans, $F(1, 756) = .365$, $p = .546$.

Table 43

Analysis of Variance for Income/Race and Money Spent on Shopping

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	10.232	.001**
Race	1	32.006	.000*
Income X Race	1	.365	.546
Within Group Error	756	(3498.687)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level

Income and Race on Spending on Local Transportation

In Table 44, the interaction of income and race and spending on local transportation when visiting New Orleans was explored. There was a significant main effect for income on spending on local transportation, $F(1,733) = 7.059$, $p < .05$. Thus, income influenced the amount of money spent on local transportation when visiting New Orleans. There was also a significant main effect for race on spending on local transportation, $F(1, 733) = 108.648$, $p < .001$. Hence, race influenced the amount of money spent on local transportation. There was a non-significant interaction between income and race on the amount of money spent on local transportation, $F(1, 733) = .231$, $p = .631$.

Table 44

Analysis of Variance for Income/Race and Money Spent on Local Transportation

Source	df	F	p
Between subjects			
Income	1	7.059	.008**
Race	1	108.648	.000*
Income X Race	1	.231	.631
Within Group Error	733	(565.996)	

Note. Value in parenthesis represents mean square error.

*significant at .00 level **significant at .01 level

Summary of Findings

This chapter presented the results of the hypotheses that were tested for this study. The findings on the trip characteristics between race, race and income, and race and gender are summarized. The ANOVA results are then summarized based on the significant findings from the t-test for the spending and importance and satisfaction attributes.

Summary of Findings for Race and Trip Characteristics

African American and White travelers exhibit similar and different trip characteristics while visiting New Orleans. African Americans were significantly more likely to travel by automobile than White travelers to New Orleans. According to TIA (2003), African Americans use the automobile as their dominant mode of travel for U.S. trips. Although there was a significant difference between White and African American travelers and their overall participation in the activities dining in restaurants, visiting attractions, and sightseeing, shopping,

and visiting the French Quarter, each activity when viewed independently has similar participation rates. Similarly, both African American and White travelers regardless of gender or income generally indicated that their top three activities they participated in while visiting New Orleans were visiting the French Quarter, shopping, and sightseeing. Thus, the number of times that African American and white travelers indicated that they participated in activities was in fact not significantly different. This finding supports Gailliard's (1985) results that African Americans' participation did not vary much from Whites, and African Americans participation was based on interest rather than race or income alone. The top three sources of information for African American and White travelers were they just knew, internet, and friends. Interestingly, however, African Americans were twice as likely to cite friends as their sources of information. This finding supports the ethnicity theory and Klemm's (2002) findings where Asians preferred marketing for destinations that reflected their culture. African Americans may rely on friends as an alternative sources of information as opposed to ads that are not culturally appropriate. For the importance attributes popular, African American Values, and sport and recreation, a significant finding was observed with African Americans placing a greater emphasis on the attributes and providing support for the ethnicity theory. The satisfaction with New Orleans on the same attributes revealed only one significant finding for African American Values. An interesting note about the significant finding for African American Values is that White travelers on average rated their importance with African American Values when planning any trip almost two times lower than African Americans, yet White travelers' satisfaction with New Orleans' African American Values almost doubled their importance rating for African American Values. Spending differences between White and African American travelers indicated that White travelers spent more on all activities. However, a significant finding was found for

restaurants/meals, bars/nightclubs, other recreation/entertainment, shopping, and local transportation. The only non-significant finding was for gambling. According to TIA (2000), African Americans spent \$15-\$20 less than White travelers per trip. However, while visiting New Orleans, the differences were statistically significant for almost all activities.

Summary of Findings for Race and Income on Trip Characteristics

Lower income and higher income African American and White travelers exhibited more similarities than differences. Although lower income African Americans traveled more by automobile and lower income Whites traveled more by airplane, there was a non-significant difference between the two groups. There was also a non-significant finding for the modes of travel used by higher income African American and White travelers to New Orleans. Both groups indicated that they used the airplane as their primary mode of transportation to New Orleans. This finding was as predicted since both groups were expected to possess the financial capability to travel by air. The top three activities participated in while visiting New Orleans for both lower income and higher income African American and White travelers were visiting the French Quarter, sightseeing, and shopping. However, a non-significant finding for lower income African American White travelers indicated that there were no differences in the participation in travel activities while visiting New Orleans. Contrarily, a significant finding for higher income African American and White travelers was found in their participation rates with Whites indicating they participated more in all activities than African Americans. The top two sources of information for both lower income and higher income African American and White travelers was they just knew and the internet. A significant finding was found for the sources of information used by lower income travelers and race with African Americans indicating that they were almost twice as likely to use their friends as a source of information. This is consistent

with TIA (2003) Minority Traveler reports findings that African Americans were more likely to be traveling to visit friends and relatives. For higher income travelers, a non-significant finding indicated that there were no differences in the sources of information used when planning a trip to New Orleans showing that higher income Whites and higher income African Americans were more similar to each other when compared to lower income Whites and African Americans. Lower and Higher income African Americans rated the importance attributes African American Values and sport and recreation significantly higher than Whites. These were the only two attributes out of the twelve that tested statistically significant. For the satisfaction with New Orleans on the same attributes, only one of the twelve attributes was significant. Satisfaction with African American Values offered in New Orleans was the only significant finding. Yet, White travelers' satisfaction with New Orleans African American Values was double their importance when planning any trip rating for African American Values. For spending differences, lower income travelers were statistically significant in all categories except gambling. Significant findings for restaurant/meals, bars/nightclubs, other recreation/entertainment, local transportation, and shopping were found with African Americans spending more for shopping and gambling only. For higher income travelers, Whites spent more in all categories. However, a statistically significant difference was found only for restaurant/meals, other recreation/entertainment, and shopping.

Summary of Findings for Race and Gender on Trip Characteristics

Similarities and differences were found between race and gender and their effects upon trip characteristics. There was a significant difference in the modes of travel used by African American and White female travelers although both groups traveled more by personal vehicle and then air. Contrarily, there was a non-significant finding for males and mode of travel used to

visit New Orleans. Males of both races were equally likely to travel by air, and males of both races indicated that their primary mode of travel to New Orleans is personal vehicle.

Participation in travel activities while visiting New Orleans was statistically different for females and males. However, both groups' top three activities participated in while visiting New Orleans were visiting the French Quarter, shopping, and sightseeing. Both African American males and females were more likely to indicate that they participated in shopping and visiting the French Quarter than Whites. White females and males were more likely to indicated that they dined in restaurants, visited attractions, and went sightseeing. The top two sources of information for males and females were they just knew and the internet. Although there was a non-significant finding for females and the sources of information, there was a significant finding for males and the sources of information used when planning a trip to New Orleans. African American males were more likely to use friends and convention planning while White males were more likely to use the internet, business information, and just knew as their sources of information. African American females and White females were statistically different in their rating of African American Values and sport and recreation. African American females rated these attributes higher than White females. Similarly, a statistically different rating between African American males and White males was found for African American Values, popular, and sport and recreation with African American males rating the attributes higher than White males. For the satisfaction with New Orleans on the same importance attributes, females were statistically different for entertainment and African American Values and males were statistically different for African American Values only. Interestingly, White females rated their satisfaction with entertainment a perfect five. Also, the satisfaction with New Orleans' African American Values score almost doubled their importance ratings when planning any trip for White males and

females. Spending was statistically significant for all categories except gambling for females. White females spent more on all activities than African American females. Similarly, African American males and White males showed statistically significant differences for spending on all categories except gambling. White men spent more on all categories except gambling.

Summary of Findings for the Analysis of Variance

The significant t-test findings for the importance and satisfaction destination attributes and spending were further tested using ANOVA to determine the possible interaction of race and gender and race and income upon the significant outcomes for the importance and satisfaction attributes and spending. The interaction of gender and race on money spent on shopping and bars/nightclubs in an urban tourism context have not been studied in the literature. However, more significant interactions were expected since White travelers outspent African Americans in almost all spending categories. Surprisingly, only two interactions were significant based on the ANOVA tests. Significant interactions were found for race and gender on spending on shopping, and race and gender on money spent at bars/nightclubs. In both cases, white males and white females spent more on shopping and at bars and nightclubs than African American males and females. TIA (2000) estimated that African Americans spent \$15 to \$20 less per trip than White travelers and exhibited many similar travel behaviors as all U.S. households. Yet, spending on shopping and at bars and nightclubs differs based on the interaction of race and gender. According to the ethnicity theory, differences in recreation behavior that persist after controlling for income point to cultural differences. The differences in spending by race and gender may, in fact, be attributed to cultural differences.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion, Implications, and Future Research

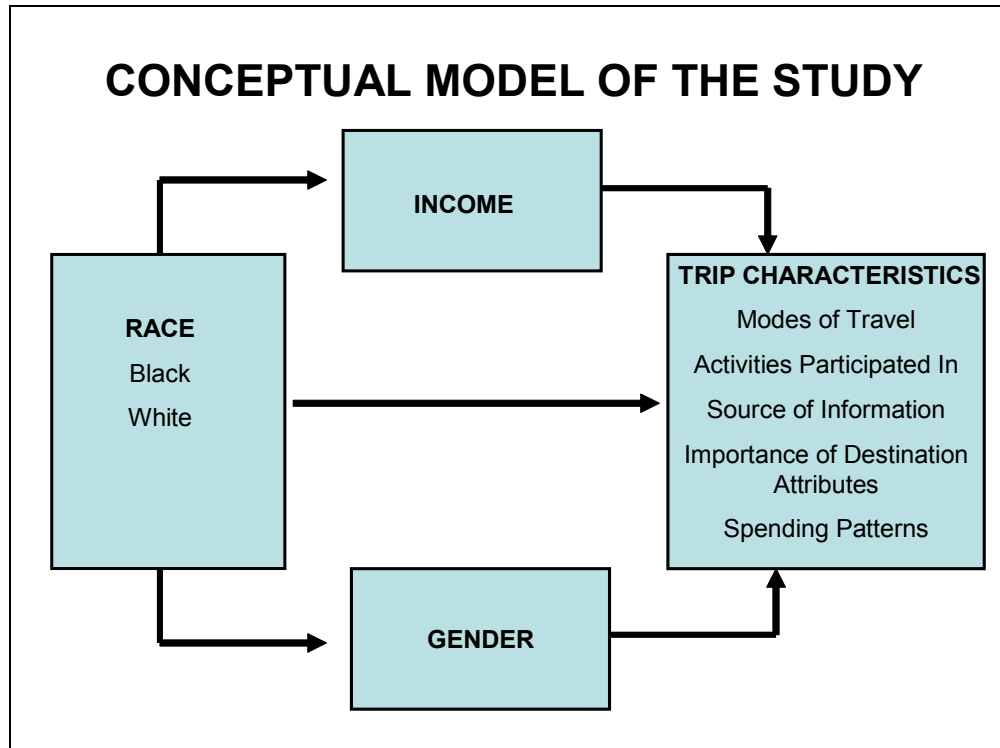
This chapter provides a review of the research questions and conceptual model that was used to guide the study. Next, a discussion of the findings is presented. Then, implications for tourism planners and directions for future research are presented. Finally, the effects of Hurricane Katrina upon the tourism industry in New Orleans are discussed.

Review of the Conceptual Model

This study was guided by three research questions: 1) Are there significant differences in the trip characteristics between black and white travelers visiting New Orleans? 2) Are there significant differences in income or gender between black and white travelers visiting New Orleans? 3) Do income and/or gender affect the differences in trip characteristics between black and white travelers visiting New Orleans? The conceptual model in Figure 5 represents the relationships of the constructs that were investigated in this study.

The model displays the relationships of the constructs which were race, income, gender, and trip characteristics. The dimensions of trip characteristics included the modes of travel, activities participated in, sources of information, importance of destination attributes, and spending patterns. First, the relationship between race and trip characteristics was examined. Then, income and gender were combined separately with race to test for differences in travel behavior.

Figure 5. Conceptual Model of the Study



Summary of Results

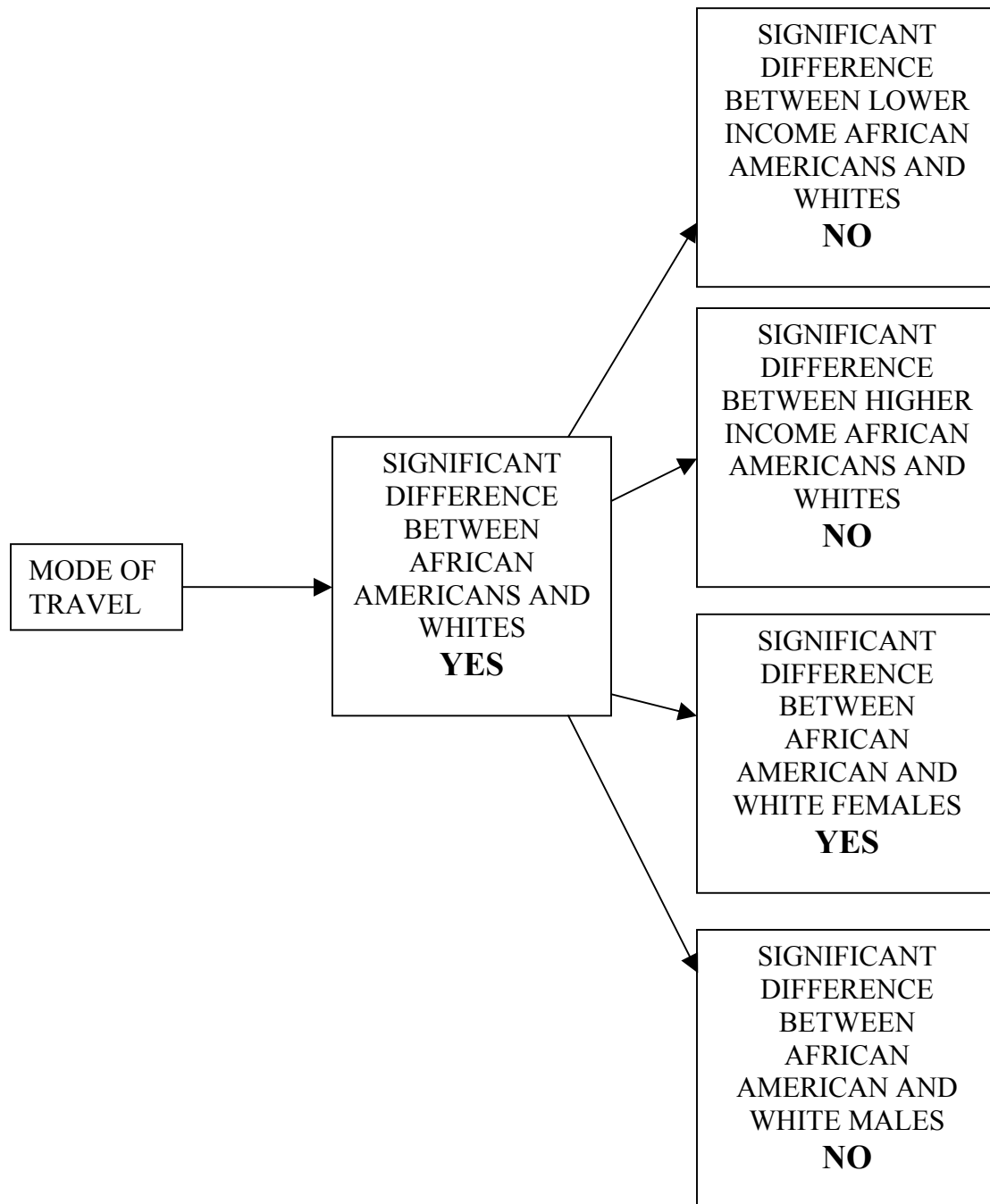
In reference to the research questions, are there significant differences in the trip characteristics between black and white travelers and which variables, income and/or gender explain the differences in trip characteristics between black and white travelers, the results revealed that there are in fact statistically significant differences. However, similarities were also evident for the trip characteristics based on a traveler's race, race and income, and race and gender.

First, although this study did not address marginality per se, an interesting finding was regarding the statistical significance of race and lower and higher income travelers. The marginality perspective finds that African Americans possess different recreation behaviors due

to a lack of discretionary income, transportation, and information regarding recreational facilities. In this study, 81.4% of African American tourists to New Orleans had household incomes of over \$50,000 while 85.6% white travelers to New Orleans had incomes over \$50,000. This research is not reflective of the income of all African American households in the United States nor does it imply that all blacks have made the gains in income demonstrated in this study. Instead, this study reveals that African American travelers to New Orleans have the disposable income to travel to urban destinations which are reflected here, and also demonstrates the willingness of African American travelers to travel to urban destinations.

Modes of Travel

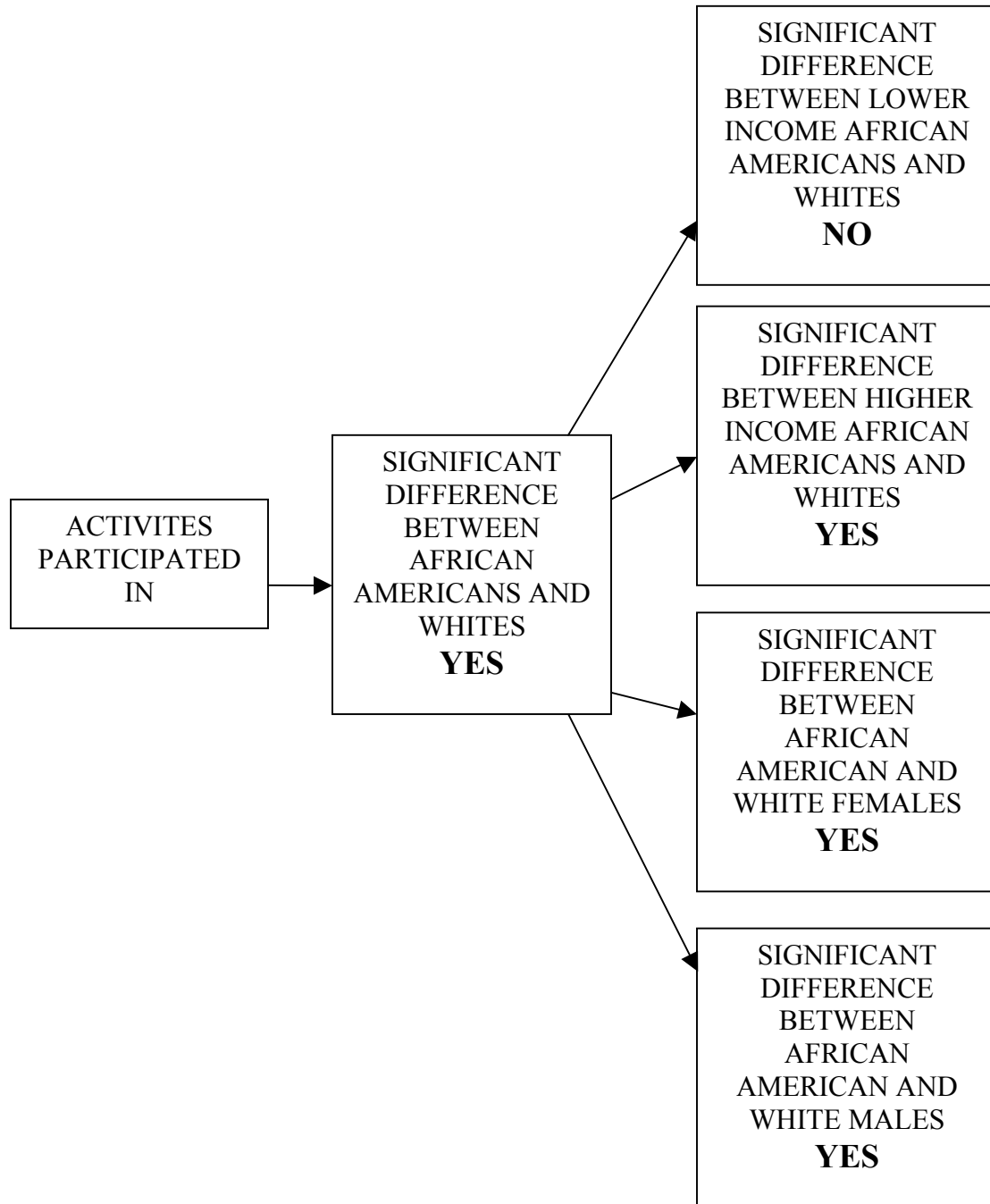
Figure 6. Mode of Travel Findings



The findings for the modes of travel are presented in Figure 6. Differences were found in the modes of transportation used between African American and White travelers and between African American female and White female travelers. Although both groups most commonly traveled by plane or automobile, African Americans were more likely to travel by car and White travelers were more likely to fly. This finding is similar to the TIA Minority Traveler Study (2003), where African Americans were found to travel more by personal car. This finding could also be attributed to differences in income and education as supported by Gailliard (1998).

Activities Participated

Figure 7. Activities Participated in Findings



In Figure 7, activities participated in revealed overall statistical significance for race, race and males, race and females, and race and higher income travelers. A non-significant finding was found for lower income travelers and their activities participated. In most cases, African Americans were more likely to indicate that they participated in shopping and visiting the French Quarter while Whites were more likely to dine in restaurants, sightsee, and visit attractions. Although African Americans and Whites were expected to reveal similar participation rates, African Americans higher participation in shopping and visiting the French Quarter are not surprising since TIA (2003) found that African Americans enjoyed shopping more than overall U.S. travelers. Also, TIA (2003) found that other popular activities for African Americans included nightlife or dancing and visiting historical places or museums. The French Quarter is a historical place that offers both nightlife and dancing. Thus, the French Quarter is an ideal attraction for African Americans based on their travel preferences. This finding offers some support for the ethnicity theory since African Americans preferences for shopping, historical places, and nightlife and dancing appear to reflect their interest and not income or gender alone.

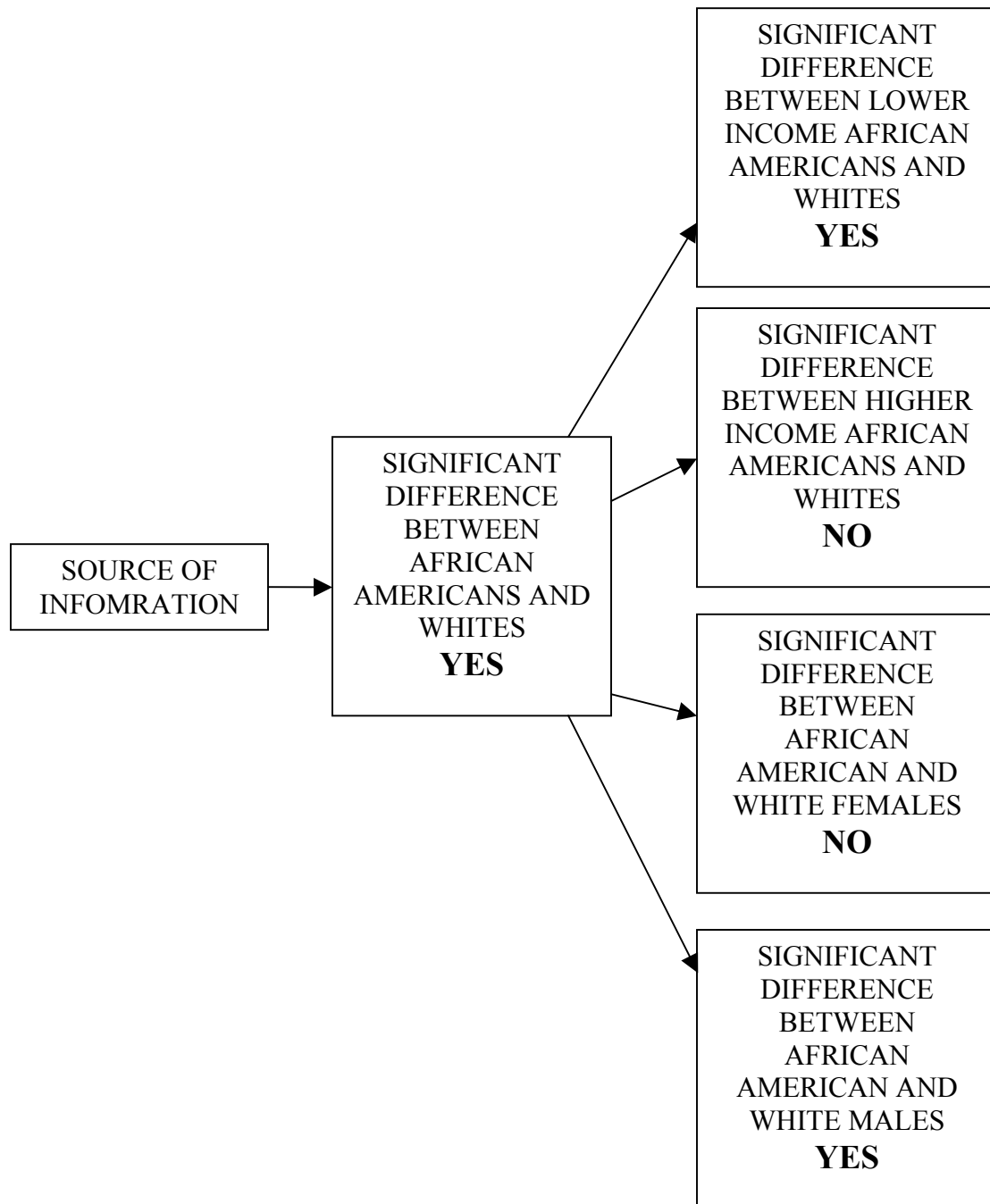
Although overall significant findings were found in most cases, African Americans and Whites indicated that the top three activities participated in were the same. For all findings, the top three activities for all travelers were visiting the French Quarter, sightseeing, and shopping. This finding is similar to Gailliard's (1998) where African Americans were similar in their participation in activities as Whites. Yet, Gailliard concluded that differences in participation in activities appeared to be based on interest rather than race or income alone. Similarly, Washburne and Wall (1980) found that participating in leisure activities may be used by African Americans to differentiate themselves from other ethnic groups.

New Orleans hosts major African American events in the city annually such as the Essence Music Festival and Southern and Grambling Bayou Classic college football game. After these events, attractions, such as the French Quarter, permits additional camaraderie and a central meeting location for African Americans. Gailliard (1998) attributes this meeting of African Americans in a central location to the need for African Americans to visit locations with their “cultural kin.” These destinations make African Americans feel secure and comfortable being in a familiar environment. Philipp (1993) found that traveling in groups offers security for African Americans due to the lingering effects of the historical impacts of discrimination and segregation. Thus, understanding these differences between black and white travelers is essential to offering the right attractions for each ethnic group.

Sources of Information

For the sources of information in Figure 8, there was a statistical significance for race, race and males, and race and lower income travelers. In most cases, African American travelers were more likely to rely on friends or their previous knowledge or familiarity with New Orleans as their primary sources of information when planning a trip to New Orleans. This is not surprising since African Americans travel primarily to visit friends and relatives (TIA, 2003). Klemm (2002) found that Asians preferred destinations with advertisements that reflected their own Asian culture and not European culture. Klemm concluded that the ethnicity theory may be beneficial in examining the marketing preferences of minorities and how marketing impacts the travel decisions of minorities. Thus, African Americans may ignore advertising that is not culturally appealing, and rely on their friends instead as a sources of information when planning trips.

Figure 8. Sources of Information Findings



Importance of Destination Attributes

The importance of various destination attributes when planning any trip revealed three statistical significant differences while nine were not in Figure 9. The following attributes were examined for this study: exciting, adult destination, popular, unique, family atmosphere, entertainment, African American Values, affordable, sport and recreation, safety, cleanliness, and friendly people.

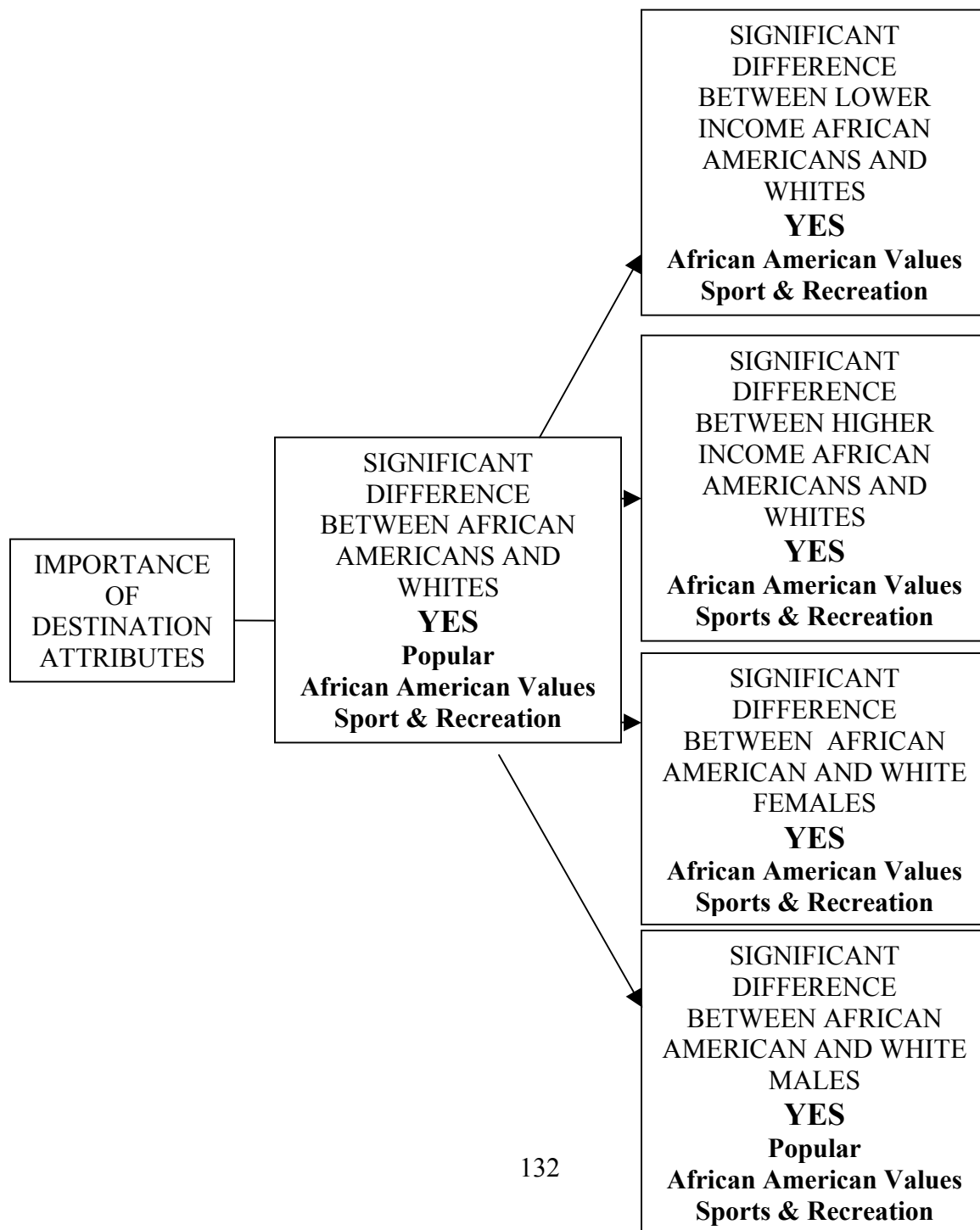
For race, race and gender combined, and race and income combined, African American Values, and sport and recreation were significant. African Americans ranked African American Values and sports and recreation higher than White travelers. African American travelers' higher importance ranking for African American Values is not an unexpected finding since many African Americans would presumably be interested in visiting attractions related to their culture.

The higher importance placed on sport and recreation by African Americans could be attributed to sporting events that occur in New Orleans. Bayou Classic, the annual college football rival between the two historically and predominately black colleges and universities Southern and Grambling, attracts many African Americans across the United States each year. Similarly, the National Football League teams New Orleans Saints versus Atlanta Falcons is a large African American event that draws tourist to the city each year. Thus, these special events would cause African Americans to place a higher emphasis on their importance than White travelers.

For the importance attribute popular, a significant difference was found for race and race and males combined. African American travelers placing less importance on popular attractions is expected since Gailliard (1998) found that African American travelers tend to visit attractions that draw other African Americans. They also visit destinations where their family and friends

reside. According to Phillip (1994), African Americans desire to visit familiar destinations, lodging, and attractions could be the result of subcultural differences. Phillip also offered that the effects of prejudice and discrimination and historical and social factors could also contribute to this desire. Thus, vacation destinations may be limited to destinations where family and friends are located or where major African American conventions or attractions are held.

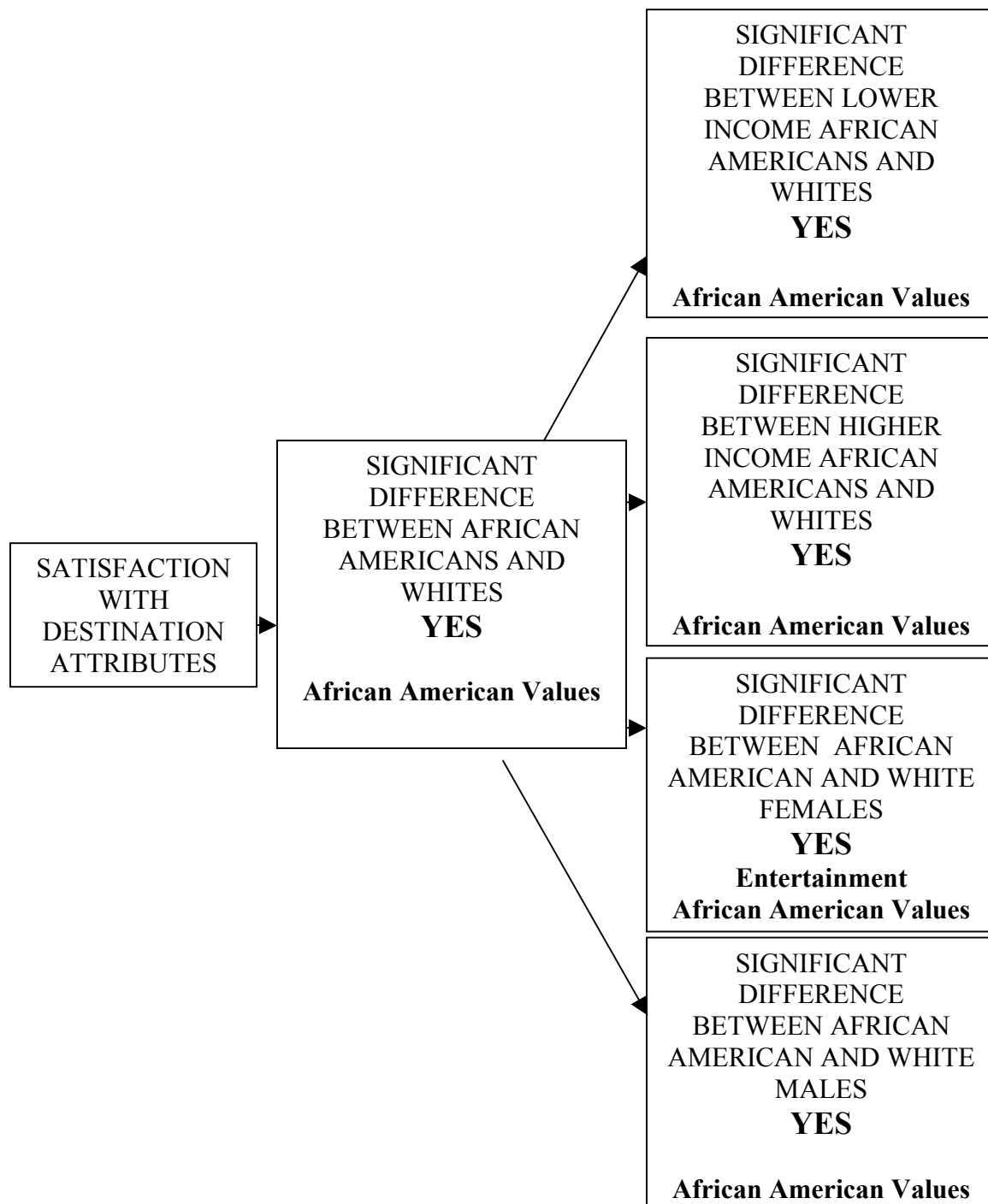
Figure 9. Importance of Destination Attributes Findings



Satisfaction with New Orleans Destination Attributes

In Figure 10, satisfaction with New Orleans on the destination attribute African American Values was a significant finding between African American ($M=4.74$) and White ($M=4.27$) travelers. Also, when race was further combined with gender and income, African American Values also revealed a significant finding. The importance rate for the destination attribute African American Values when planning any trip for African American travelers was ($M=4.28$) and White travelers ($M=2.37$). Thus, African Americans placed a higher importance on destinations that promote African Americans attractions while whites did not. However, the satisfaction rates for both groups were higher than the importance rates. White travelers satisfaction rates increased tremendously, almost doubling, their importance rates. This finding is good news for New Orleans tourism planning officials since White travelers are obviously satisfied with the African American culture and attractions evident in the city. African Americans are equally satisfied with the African American attractions offered by the city.

Figure 10. Satisfaction with Destination Attributes Findings

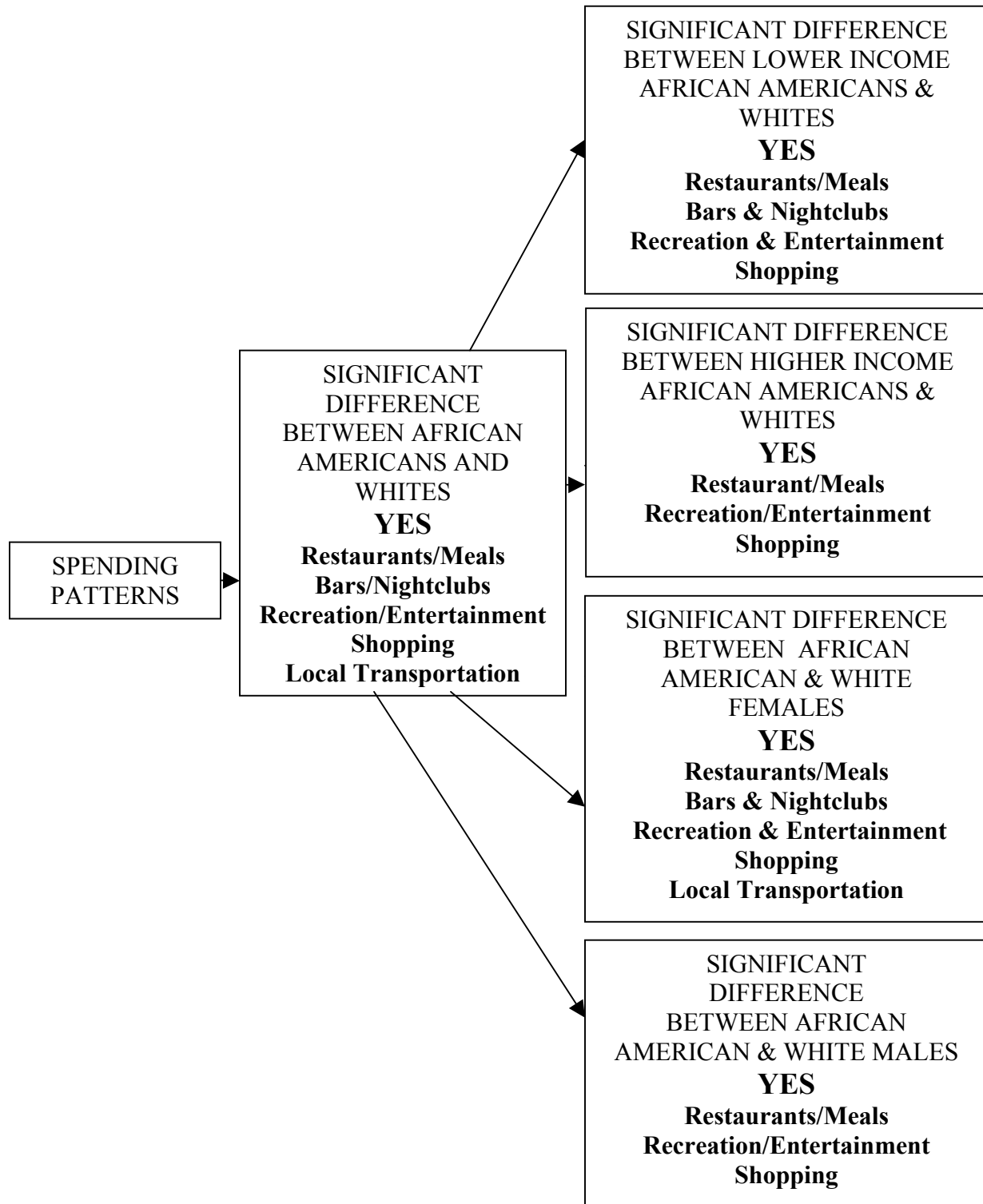


In most cases, tourists were satisfied with all destination attributes in New Orleans. However, one attribute that should not be overlooked is the average rating for cleanliness. Most tourists rated the importance of cleanliness when planning any trip higher than their satisfaction with New Orleans on the same attribute. New Orleans officials appear to be aware of this problem and have enforced measures to address cleanliness. For example, the lack of public restrooms contributed to the dirtiness of areas in the French Quarter. As a result, city officials implemented a policy that requires bar owners in the French Quarter to provide restrooms for patrons. Destination Management Organization's should continue to monitor the importance and satisfaction ratings to deliver a first class tourism experience for tourists to New Orleans. This will ensure repeat visitation to New Orleans.

Spending Patterns

For overall spending patterns, several significant findings were evident in Figure 11. Spending differences were tested for the following attributes: restaurant/meals, bars/nightclubs, recreation/entertainment, shopping, local transportation, and gambling. Significant differences were found for race, race and gender, and race and income for spending on restaurant/meals, recreation/entertainment, and shopping. White travelers in most cases spent more on all attributes than African American travelers. This finding is similar to TIA (2000) results where White travelers reportedly spent more on each trip than African American travelers. This is also consistent with the fact that many African American travelers are visiting friends and relatives and may be dining in with their hosts.

Figure 11. Spending Findings



Future Research

The results of the research reveal differences and similarities in the trip characteristics of black and white travelers. Additionally, race combined with gender and income also had significant effects on the trip characteristics of travelers to New Orleans. The research on race and recreation behavior focused on factors such as access, cost, distance, discretionary funds, lack of transportation, and inadequate information which hindered African Americans from equally participating in recreational activities (Johnson et al, 1997; Hauser, 1962; Lindsey and Ogle, 1972; Craig, 1972, Washburne, 1978). Yet, these same factors are not as prevalent for the population studied in this research.

The marginality perspective, as envisioned by Washburne, is not as applicable as in the 1960s or 1970s especially in explaining urban tourism in New Orleans. The marginality theory reflects the time period (1970s) in which it was written. It reflected the societal issues and dilemmas faced by poor African Americans who were discriminated against. Although many of these issues exist today, African Americans are not subjected to segregated travel services and “unwelcome” areas such as those that existed prior to the Civil Rights era. Many African Americans have experienced occupational and educational gains which have resulted in more disposable income to partake in greater travel opportunities. Washburne (1978) himself predicted that with advancements in education and occupation by African Americans the marginality theory would not be applicable even to outdoor recreation research. In order for DMO’s to accurately target their customer, they must first know who they are and their characteristics. If theories from the 1970s such as marginality are still being applied to African American tourists in 2000, this market will possibly be overlooked, underserved, and dissatisfied. This is particularly important for urban destinations such as New Orleans since

tourism is vital to the economy. Other theories must be identified and applied to the current travel market behaviors of the African American tourists.

Based on the findings of this study and in the urban tourism context, African American and White travelers possess more similarities than differences in their trip characteristics. However, African Americans placed greater importance on sport and recreation and attractions relative to African American heritage. Tourism officials should promote and market sport and recreation and African American Values to African American tourists to ensure their satisfaction and repeat visitation.

Although the contemporary discrimination hypothesis was not explored in this study, it may be an alternative theory to describe the effects of contemporary discrimination and the travel behaviors of African American tourists. Although Willming (2001) found that African Americans rarely changed their leisure travel behaviors despite perceived discrimination, Phillipp (1994) found that the hypothesis offers a possible explanation for why African Americans travel to particular destinations, select their lodging choices, and their behaviors once at the destinations. Qualitative research such as focus groups may be an effective tool to probe deeper into the effects of contemporary discrimination upon African American trip characteristics.

A limitation of this study is the inability to generalize the results to all urban tourism destinations. Future research could duplicate studies like this in other urban tourism destinations to determine if the results are similar. For example, Mississippi boasts the largest share of African American visitors in the United States (TIA, 2003). A city in Mississippi could be selected to compare visitor profiles from both cities. If comparable results are found, the results

would be a step in generalizing the results to other urban tourism destinations and not limited to New Orleans.

This study examined the trip characteristics of African American tourists to an urban destination. It was also the first step in addressing Gailliard's (1998) call for research identifying the differences between Black and White traveler behaviors due to the growth in discretionary income available in the African American community. This research also answered Philipp's (1993) appeal for research documenting the African American tourist experience in specific tourism destinations.

This study is the first to compare African American and White travel behaviors to an urban destination. Understanding the travel behaviors of each market insures that tourism organizations generate the greatest customer satisfaction and sustain this satisfaction over time. Cities can use the findings based on African and White travelers to New Orleans to accurately target tourists and provide the right mix of attractions and services to visitors. Ultimately, tourists' satisfaction generates increased profitability.

Tourism in Post-Katrina New Orleans

Unfortunately, New Orleans faced a devastating blow from Hurricane Katrina. However, much of the tourism infrastructure was not badly affected although many of the residential areas were devastated. Today only 200,000 people reside in Orleans Parish versus 484,000 residents prior to Hurricane Katrina (New Orleans Facts and Statistics, 2006). With the large scale devastation in New Orleans, the displacement of a major portion of African American citizens is sure to have a major impact on African American travel. Major African American events that were once held in New Orleans such as the Essence Music Festival and Southern and Grambling

Football Bayou Classic were away from the city. Surely, the return of these events is predicated upon the return of the African American population to New Orleans.

New Orleans cuisine is an attraction in itself. Reopening restaurants is vital for the tourism industry, yet a lack of employees prevents restaurants from reopening, carrying earlier closing times, and/or waiting longer for service in most restaurants. More than an estimated 768 restaurants have reopened in Orleans Parish employing 15,000. Approximately 10,000 employees could be placed immediately in positions in restaurants if the workforce were available. The lodging industry shares similar stories of being understaffed or closing to make desperately needed repairs due to hurricane damage. There are currently 100 metro area hotels and motels in operation with 27,000 rooms in inventory. Prior to Hurricane Katrina, there were 265 hotels with an inventory of 38,338 rooms (New Orleans Facts and Statistics, 2006). Scaled down versions of major events in 2006 such as Mardi Gras, Jazz Fest, and the French Quarter Fest all lack the finances, volunteers, employees, business support and participation, and infrastructure to host festivals to the grand extent that visitors were once accustomed to in New Orleans. However, these events were not eliminated because now they mean so much more. These events are signs to the world that New Orleans is back in business and anxiously awaiting the tourists' return.

The cuisine, the friendliness of the people, the music, the architecture, and the love for the city that care forgot are not lost forever. The temporary set back by Hurricane Katrina allows New Orleans to return with a new melting pot of cultures which will possibly alter the focus of the tourism industry. As contractors and workers move in to rebuild New Orleans, they may intend to remain and become a part of the new New Orleans. Just how all of these cultures will create the new gumbo of New Orleans is yet to be seen. Yet, New Orleans has always accepted

everyone regardless of their culture, style, or tastes. That is what has always made New Orleans unique. In fact, it may very well be simply a question of time before tourism in New Orleans rebounds to its full potential.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
SURVEY VERSION A

SCREENERS version A (n=2000)

Q S1: Before we go to the survey questions, please tell me if you live in the New Orleans metro area or not.
1 - Live **IN** New Orleans Area 2 - Live **OUTSIDE** N.O. Area
[RI:If necessary, further clarify >50 miles from New Orleans (700, 701 & 704 - first three digits of zip - indicates N.O.)
=> If **NOT FROM** New Orleans, continue. => If **FROM** New Orleans, thank the person for their cooperation & terminate.

Q S2: Are you planning to leave New Orleans within the next 24 hours? 1 - Yes 2 - No
=> If **YES** then continue with survey; => If **NO** then thank the person for their cooperation; terminate.

AIRPORT ONLY

Q S3: Are you in between flights? 1 - Yes 2 - No
=> If **NO** then continue with survey; if **YES** then thank the person for their cooperation.

COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE

Q 1: In which country do you live? 1 - USA 2 - France 3 - Japan 4 - United Kingdom 5 - Canada
6 - Germany 7 - Mexico 8 - Australia 9 - other specify _____
=> If respondent is a U.S. resident, go to QUESTION 2: **ALL OTHERS** go to QUESTION 3

Q 2: Where do you currently live? city _____ state _____ **GO TO QUESTION 5**

INTERNATIONAL QUESTIONS

Q 3: How many days will you be in this country? _____ days 97 - dk 98 - refuse
Q 4: Through which city in the U.S. did you enter this country? 1 - Atlanta 2 - Dallas-Ft. Worth 3 - Los Angeles
4 - New Orleans 5 - San Francisco 6 - Boston 7 - Detroit 8 - Memphis 9 - New York / Newark
10 - Washington DC 11 - Chicago 12 - Houston 13 - Miami 14 - Pittsburgh 15 - other spec=>

ALL VISITORS

Q 5: Which other U.S. cities, if any, will you visit on this trip?
1 - Atlanta 2 - Dallas-Ft. Worth 3 - Los Angeles 4 - New York 5 - San Francisco 6 - Boston 7 - Detroit
8 - Miami 9 - Orlando 10 - Washington D.C. 11 - Chicago 12 - Houston 13 - Nashville
14 - Memphis 15 - other specify _____ 21 - none 97 - dk 98 - refuse

STAY-SPECIFIC QUESTIONS

The next several questions are about your stay in New Orleans and the people you are traveling with on this trip.

Q 6: For this trip to New Orleans, what is the **PRIMARY PURPOSE** for your visit? 98 - refused

• VACATION / LEISURE / PLEASURE:

- 1 - Passing Through 2 - Visit Friends / Relatives (incl weddings, funerals, other family religion-oriented event)
3 - Special Event **[IF SPECIAL EVENT CIRCLED, SPECIFY]** 30 - Mardi Gras 31 - Jazz Fest 32 - French Quarter Fest 33 - Essence Fest 34 - Other (specify) _____
4 - Sporting Event **[IF SPORTING EVENT CIRCLED, SPECIFY]** 40 - Saints 41 - Hornets 42 - LSU
43 - Tulane 44 - Other _____
5 - To Gamble 6 - Food / Dining 7 - Cruise **[IF CRUISE CIRCLED, GO TO QUESTION 6b]**

=> **6b:** Did you spend nights in New Orleans before/after your cruise? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> **6c:** If **YES**, how many nights? 1 2 3 4 More = _____
8 - Music 9 - Atmosphere/Ambiance 10 - Museum(s)/Arts 11 - Family Attractions 12 - Other Vacation / Leisure / Pleasure (including honeymoon, anniversary, sightseeing) => PROBE R12: On Cruise? 1 - Y 2 - N

• BUSINESS:

13 - Corp Meeting <50 14 - Assn/Convention/Trade Show 50or> 15 - Business Trip 16 - Other Business
=> **6d:** If 13 thru 16 answered: Are you extending your trip for pleasure? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - ref
=> **6e:** If **YES**, ask **Q 6e:** By how many nights? _____ nights 97 - dk 98 - refuse

• OTHER: specify other primary purpose for trip _____

Q 7: Did you use the Internet as a source of information when planning your trip to New Orleans?
1 - Yes **[IF YES to internet, then ask below, otherwise go to QUESTION 8]** 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES at Q7**, ask **7a:** Did you visit the New Orleans Metropolitan Convention and Visitors Bureau website
ROTATE 7a & 7b (www.neworleanscvb.com)? **SHOW** 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES at Q7**, ask **7b:** Did you visit the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation website
(www.neworleansonline.com)? **SHOW** 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES at Q7**, ask **7c:** Did you make any reservations on-line for your trip to New Orleans?
1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES at Q7c**, ask **7d:** What did you make on-line reservations for? [RI: check ALL that apply]
1 - Lodging 2 - Airline 3 - Attraction 4 - Event 5 - other specify _____
=> **7e** Did you visit any other websites? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES at Q7e**, ask **7f:** What other websites did you vist? Specify _____

Q 8: Did you use the services of a travel agent when planning your trip to New Orleans?
1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES**, ask **Q8a:** For what services did you use a travel agent? [RI: check ALL that apply]
1 - Plane 2 - Brochures 3 - Hotel 4 - other specify _____

Q 9: When you were planning your trip, what was your personal perception of New Orleans, on a scale from 1 to 5, with 1 as the least favorable and 5 as the most favorable? _____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

Q 10: What was the primary source of information you used in making the decision to come to New Orleans?
[RI: READ RESPONSES 1 thru 6]
1 - Advertisements 2 - Internet 3 - Friends 4 - CVB information 5 - official Visitor's Guide **SHOW**
6 - Good Times Guide **SHOW** 7 - other specify _____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

Q 11: By the time you leave New Orleans, how much money will you have spent, EXCLUDING lodging and transportation to and from New Orleans (such as airfare)? **Please include only your individual expenditures** If respondent says, "don't know", ask ==> Just your best guess. \$ _____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

Q 12: Are you in the N.O. area just for the day or are you staying overnight? 1 - Overnight 2 - Day Trip 97-dk 98-ref
=> **If DAYTRIP at Q12, ask Q12a:** Are you staying overnight in MS? 1 - Yes (**Go to Q13**) 2 - No 97-dk 98-ref
=> **If OVERNIGHT at Q12, ask Q12b:** How many nights are you staying? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 More=_
=> **If OVERNIGHT at Q12, ask Q12c:** In what type of accommodations are you staying? (*Check one*)
1 - Hotel / Motel => **Ask Q12c1:** How many rooms do you have? ____ room(s) 97 - dk 98 - refuse
2 - RV Park / Campground
3 - Bed & Breakfast => **Ask Q12c2:** How many rooms do you have? ____ room(s) 97 - dk 98 - refuse
4 - Staying w/ Friends / Relatives
5 - Condominium / Timeshare 6 - other specify _____
=> **If responses 1, 2, 3 or 5 at Q12c, ask Q12d:** What is your daily room rate? 97 - dk 98 - ref
\$_____ [RI: if response exceeds \$150, clarify with "do you mean that your daily rate is \$____?"
=> **If responses 1, 2, 3 or 5 at Q12c, ask Q12e:** Does that include tax? 1-Yes 2-No 97-dk 98-ref

Q 13: Including yourself, how many people are in your **immediate party**? _____ people 97 - dk 98 - refuse
[RI: **If you get a number of 11 or more, probe for the number in their party, NOT in the whole group then ask**]
=> **Q13a:** How many of them are in each age bracket? <13_____ 13-17_____ 18-24_____ 25-34_____
35-49_____ 50-64_____ 65&up_____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

ARRIVAL-SPECIFIC QUESTIONS

The next set of questions are about your travel to and from New Orleans.

Q 14: What was your PRIMARY method of travel to New Orleans? (READ THESE RESPONSES - *Check only one*)
1 - Airplane 2 - Personal vehicle 3 - Train 4 - Boat / Cruise Ship 5 - Bus/Motorcoach 6 - Rental vehicle
7 - RV 8 - other specify _____ 98 - refuse

ACTIVITY QUESTIONS

Q 15: On this trip, what places did you visit or activities did you participate in? (**List up to 5 activities.**) 98-refuse

_____ **Q15a** Did you visit a Museum? 1 - Y 2 - N

SPENDING QUESTIONS

I'm now going to ask you a few questions regarding the money you spent while visiting New Orleans.
For the following questions, please include only your own *individual* expenses, and not those of your entire party.
By the time you leave New Orleans, how much money will you have spent in TOTAL for your ENTIRE TRIP on
Q 16a: Restaurants / Meals. Just your best guess. \$_____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse
Q 16b: Bars / Nightclubs. Just your best guess. \$_____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse
Q 16c: Gambling. Just your best guess. \$_____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse
Q 16d: Recreation / Entertainment, like Museums, Sightseeing, Shows, Music, Tours, Sporting events, etc.
Just your best guess. \$_____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse
Q 16e Shopping. Just your best guess. \$_____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse
Q 16f: Local transportation, like car rental, taxi, limo, shuttle, gasoline. Your best guess. \$_____ 97-dk; 98-ref

SATISFACTION / RETURN QUESTIONS

Now I'd like to ask you just a few questions on your overall impressions of new Orleans.
Q 17: How friendly/cooperative were the service people, (such as waiters, cab drivers, hotel employees etc.) you encountered in New Orleans? Were they 1 - Very Friendly 2 - Friendly 3 - Unfriendly 4 - Very Unfriendly
Q 18: Do you perceive New Orleans to be a 1-Very Safe 2-Smwhat Safe 3-Smwhat Unsafe OR 4-Very Unsafe tourist destination? 97-dk 98-refuse
Q 19: How satisfied were you with your overall visit to New Orleans? Were you: 1 - Very Satisfied 2 - Smwhat Satisfied 3 - Neither Satisfied/Dissatisfied 4 - Smwhat Dissatisfied 5 - Very Dissatisfied 97-dk 98-ref
=> **If NOT VERY SATISFIED at Q19, ask Q19a:** And what keeps you from saying you were very satisfied? 1 - Too Expensive 2 - Too Crowded 3 - Not enough to see 4 - Street Hustlers/Bums
5 - Bad Weather 6 - Traffic 7 - Difficulty getting around/ Lost (e.g., street signs) 8 - Dirty
9 - Felt Unsafe 10 - other specify _____ 97-dk 98-refuse
Q 20: How likely are you to return to New Orleans within the next five years? (READ RESPONSES 1 thru 4)
1 - Very Likely 2 - Likely 3 - Unlikely 4 - Very Unlikely 97-dk 98-ref
=> **If VERY LIKELY OR LIKELY at Q20, ask Q20a:** And why would you return? 1 - Fun / Vacation
2 - See More 3 - Friends / Relatives 4 - Business 5 - Special Events (e.g., Mardi Gras, Jazz Fest, etc.)
6 - Sporting Event (e.g., Sugar Bowl, Super Bowl, etc.) 7 - Atmosphere/Ambiance 8 - Food/Dining
9 - Music 10 - Gambling 11 - Cruise 12 - other specify _____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> **If VERY UNLIKELY OR UNLIKELY at Q20, ask Q20b:** And why would you NOT return? 1 - Too Expensive
2 - Street Hustlers/Bums 3 - Traffic 4 - Bad Weather 5 - Difficulty getting around / Poor street signs
6 - Too Crowded 7 - Too Far Away 8 - Other places to see 9 - Too Dirty 10 - other specify _____
97 - dk 98 - refuse

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Q 21: What is the ZIP code of your primary RESIDENCE? ____ ____ ____ ____ ____ 98 - refuse
Q 22: What is your marital status? 1 - Married / Living w/ Partner 2 - Single 3 - Divorce / Widow / Sep 98 - refuse
Q 23: Are there any children that live in your household? 1 - Yes 2 - No 98 - refuse
Q 24: Which category best describes your age: Are you 1 - 18-24 2 - 25-34 3 - 35-49 4 - 50-64 5 - 65 & up
98 - refuse
Q 25: Are you retired? 1 - Yes 2 - No 98 - refuse
Q 26: Are you a Student? 1 - Yes 2 - No 98 - refuse
Q 27: Which category best describes your current annual household income? (**CLIPBRD**) _____ number 98 - refuse
1 - under \$25,000 2 - \$25,000 - \$49,000 3 - \$50,000 - \$74,000 4 - \$75,000 - 99,000
5 - \$100,000 - \$149,000 6 - \$150,000 & up 98-refuse

APPENIDIX B
SURVEY VERSION B

Location#_____ M T W Th F S S 9a-12 12p-4 4p-6 6p-9 _____/_____/05 Gen _____ Eth _____ RI _____

SCREENERS version B (n=1000)

Q S1: Before we go to the survey questions, please tell me if you live in the New Orleans metro area or not.
1 - Live **IN** New Orleans Area 2 - Live **OUTSIDE** N.O. Area
[RI:If necessary, further clarify >50 miles from New Orleans (700, 701 & 704 - first three digits of zip - indicates N.O.)
=> If **NOT FROM** New Orleans, continue. => If **FROM** New Orleans, thank the person for their cooperation & terminate.

Q S2: Are you planning to leave New Orleans within the next 24 hours? 1 - Yes 2 - No
=> If **YES** then continue with survey; => If **NO** then thank the person for their cooperation; terminate.

AIRPORT ONLY

Q S3: Are you in between flights? 1 - Yes 2 - No
=> If **NO** then continue with survey; if **YES** then thank the person for their cooperation.

COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE

Q 1: In which country do you live? 1 - USA 2 - France 3 - Japan 4 - United Kingdom 5 - Canada
6 - Germany 7 - Mexico 8 - Australia 9 - other specify _____
=> If respondent is a U.S. resident, go to QUESTION 2: **ALL OTHERS** go to QUESTION 3

Q 2: Where do you currently live? city _____ state _____ **GO TO QUESTION 5**

INTERNATIONAL QUESTIONS

Q 3: How many days will you be in this country? _____ days 97 - dk 98 - refuse
Q 4: Through which city in the U.S. did you enter this country? 1 - Atlanta 2 - Dallas-Ft. Worth 3 - Los Angeles
4 - New Orleans 5 - San Francisco 6 - Boston 7 - Detroit 8 - Memphis 9 - New York / Newark
10 - Washington DC 11 - Chicago 12 - Houston 13 - Miami 14 - Pittsburgh 15 - other spec =>

ALL VISITORS

Q 5: Which other U.S. cities, if any, will you visit on this trip?
1 - Atlanta 2 - Dallas-Ft. Worth 3 - Los Angeles 4 - New York 5 - San Francisco 6 - Boston 7 - Detroit
8 - Miami 9 - Orlando 10 - Washington D.C. 11 - Chicago 12 - Houston 13 - Nashville
14 - Memphis 15 - other specify _____ 21 - none 97 - dk 98 - refuse

STAY-SPECIFIC QUESTIONS

The next several questions are about your stay in New Orleans and the people you are traveling with on this trip.

Q 6: For this trip to New Orleans, what is the **PRIMARY PURPOSE** for your visit? 98 - refused

• VACATION / LEISURE / PLEASURE:

1 - Passing Through 2 - Visit Friends / Relatives (incl weddings, funerals, other family religion-oriented event)
3 - Special Event [IF SPECIAL EVENT CIRCLED, SPECIFY] 30 - Mardi Gras 31 - Jazz Fest 32 - French
Quarter Fest 33 - Essence Fest 34 - Other (specify) _____
4 - Sporting Event [IF SPORTING EVENT CIRCLED, SPECIFY] 40 - Saints 41 - Hornets 42 - LSU
43 - Tulane 44 - Other _____
5 - To Gamble 6 - Food / Dining 7 - Cruise [IF CRUISE CIRCLED, GO TO QUESTION 6b]

=> 6b: Did you spend nights in New Orleans before/after your cruise? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> 6c: If **YES**, how many nights? 1 2 3 4 More = _____
8 - Music 9 - Atmosphere/Ambiance 10 - Museum(s)/Arts 11 - Family Attractions 12 - Other Vacation /
Leisure / Pleasure (including honeymoon, anniversary, sightseeing) => PROBE R12: On Cruise? 1 - Y 2 - N

• BUSINESS:

13 - Corp Meeting <50 14 - Assn/Convention/Trade Show 50or> 15 - Business Trip 16 - Other Business
=> 6d: If 13 thru 16 answered: Are you extending your trip for pleasure? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - ref
=> 6e: If **YES**, ask Q 6e: By how many nights? _____ nights 97 - dk 98 - refuse

• OTHER: specify other primary purpose for trip _____

Q 7: Did you use the Internet as a source of information when planning your trip to New Orleans?
1 - Yes [IF YES to internet, then ask below, otherwise go to QUESTION 8] 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES** at Q7, ask 7a: Did you visit the New Orleans Metropolitan Convention and Visitors Bureau website
ROTATE 7a & 7b (www.neworleanscvb.com)? **SHOW** 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES** at Q7, ask 7b: Did you visit the New Orleans Tourism Marketing Corporation website
(www.neworleansonline.com)? **SHOW** 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES** at Q7, ask 7c: Did you make any reservations on-line for your trip to New Orleans?
1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES** at Q7c, ask 7d: What did you make on-line reservations for? [RI: check ALL that apply]
1 - Lodging 2 - Airline 3 - Attraction 4 - Event 5 - other specify _____
=> 7e Did you visit any other websites? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **YES** at Q7e, ask 7f: What other websites did you vist? Specify _____

Q 8: Did you use the services of a travel agent when planning your trip to N. O.? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - ref
=> If **YES**, ask Q8a: For what services did you use a travel agent? [RI: check ALL that apply]
1 - Plane 2 - Brochures 3 - Hotel 4 - other specify _____

Q 9: When you were planning your trip, what was your personal perception of New Orleans, on a scale from 1 to 5, with
1 as the least favorable and 5 as the most favorable? _____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

Q 10: When you were planning your trip, who made the decision to come to N.O.? _____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

Q 11: What was the PRIMARY source of information you used in making the decision to come to New Orleans?
[RI: READ RESPONSES 1 thru 6]
1 - Advertisements 2 - Internet 3 - Friends 4 - CVB information 5 - official Visitor's Guide **SHOW**
6 - Good Times Guide **SHOW** 7 - other specify _____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> Q11a: Did you see or hear any advertising about New Orleans prior to your visit?
1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - dk 98 - refuse
=> If **Yes** at Q11a, ask Q11b: Where did you see or hear advertising about New Orleans? [RI: READ 1 thru 6]
1 - Newspaper 2 - Magazine 3 - TV 4 - Radio 5 - Mail 6 - Internet 97 - dk **CONTINUE REVERSE**

Q 12: Please rate the importance of each of the following characteristics when planning any type of trip using a scale of 1 to 5, where **5 = Extremely Important, 4 = Important, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Not so Important and 1 = Not at all Important:** (CIRCLE APPROPRIATE NUMBER AT EACH QUESTION)

a. Exciting 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	b. Adult Destination 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
c. Popular 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	d. Unique 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
e. Family Atmosphere 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	f. Entertainment 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
g. African-American Values . 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	h. Affordable 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
i. Sports & Recreation 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	j. Safety 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
k. Cleanliness 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	l. Friendly People 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk

Q 13: What other cities have you visited in the last 2 years? 97 - Don't know 98 - Refuse

Q 14: Is this your first visit to New Orleans? 1 - Yes 2 - No 97 - Don't know 98 - Refuse

Q 15: By the time you leave New Orleans, how much money will you have spent, EXCLUDING lodging and transportation to and from New Orleans (such as airfare)? **Please include only your individual expenditures** If respondent says, "don't know", ask ==> Just your best guess. \$ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

Q 16: Are you in the N.O. area just for the day or are you staying overnight? 1 - Overnight 2 - Day Trip 97-dk 98-ref
=> **If DAYTRIP at Q16, ask Q16a:** Are you staying overnight in MS? 1 - Yes (**Go to Q17**) 2 - No 97-dk 98-ref
=> **If OVERNIGHT at Q16, ask Q16b:** How many nights are you staying? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 More=_
=> **If OVERNIGHT at Q16, ask Q16c:** In what type of accommodations are you staying? (*Check one*)
1 - Hotel / Motel => **Ask Q16c1:** How many rooms do you have? ____ room(s) 97 - dk 98 - refuse
2 - RV Park / Campground
3 - Bed & Breakfast => **Ask Q16c2:** How many rooms do you have? ____ room(s) 97 - dk 98 - refuse
4 - Staying w/ Friends / Relatives
5 - Condominium / Timeshare 6 - other specify _____
=> **If responses 1, 2, 3 or 5 at Q16c, ask Q16d:** What is your daily room rate? 97 - dk 98 - ref
\$ _____ [RI: if response exceeds \$150, clarify with "do you mean that your daily rate is \$____?"
=> **If responses 1, 2, 3 or 5 at Q16c, ask Q16e:** Does that include tax? 1-Yes 2-No 97-dk 98-ref

Q 17: Including yourself, how many people are in your immediate party? ____ people 97 - dk 98 - refuse
[RI: If you get a number of 11 or more, probe for the number in their party, NOT in the whole group then ask]
=> **Q17a:** How many of them are in each age bracket? <13____ 13-17____ 18-24____ 25-34____
35-49____ 50-64____ 65&up____ 97 - dk 98 - refuse

ARRIVAL-SPECIFIC QUESTIONS

The next set of questions are about your travel to and from New Orleans.

Q 18: What day of the week did you arrive in New Orleans? 1 -M 2 -Tu 3 -W 4 -Th 5 -F 6 -Sa 7 -Su 98 - Ref

Q 19: What day of the week will you leave New Orleans? 1-M 2 -Tu 3 -W 4 -Th 5 -F 6 -Sa 7 -Su 98 - Ref

Q 20: What was your PRIMARY method of travel to New Orleans? (READ RESPONSES 1 thru 7 - *Check only one*)
1 - Airplane 2 - Personal vehicle 3 - Train 4 - Boat / Cruise Ship 5 - Bus/Motorcoach 6 - Rental vehicle
7 - RV 8 - other specify _____ 98 - refuse

ACTIVITY QUESTIONS

Q 21: On this trip, what places did you visit or activities did you participate in? (**List up to 5 activities.**) 98-refuse

_____ **Q21a** Did you visit a Museum? 1 - Y 2 - N

Q 22: How important was casino gambling in your decision to come to New Orleans? Was it . . .
1 - Very Important 2 - Somewhat Important 3 - Not Very Important 4 - Not at all Important 97 - DK 98 - Ref

SATISFACTION / RETURN QUESTIONS

Now I'd like to ask you just a few questions on your overall impressions of New Orleans.

Q 23: How satisfied were you with your overall visit to New Orleans? Were you: 1 - Very Satisfied 2 - Smwhat Satisfied 3 - Neither Satisfied/Dissatisfied 4 - Smwhat Dissatisfied 5 - Very Dissatisfied 97-dk 98-ref

Q 24: Please rate your satisfaction with New Orleans for each of the following characteristics using a scale of 1 to 5, where **5 = Extremely Satisfied, 4 = Satisfied 3 = Neutral, 2 = Not so Satisfied and 1 = Not at all Satisfied:** (CIRCLE APPROPRIATE NUMBER AT EACH QUESTION)

m. Exciting 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	n. Adult Destination 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
o. Popular 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	p. Unique 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
q. Family Atmosphere . 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	r. Entertainment 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
s. African-American Values . 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	t. Affordable 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
u. Sports & Recreation 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	v. Safety. 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk
w. Cleanliness 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk	x. Friendly People 5	4	3	2	1	97 - dk

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Q 25: What is the ZIP code of your primary RESIDENCE?____ 98 - refuse
Q 26: What is your marital status? 1 - Married / Living w/ Partner 2 - Single 3 - Divorce/ Widow/ Sep 98 - ref
Q 27: Are there any children that live in your household? 1 - Yes 2 - No 98 - refuse
Q 28: Which category best describes your age: Are you 1 -18-24 2 - 25-34 3 - 35-49 4 -50-64 5 -65 & up 98 - ref
Q 29: Are you retired?1 - Yes 2 - No 98 - refuse
Q 30: Are you a Student? 1 - Yes 2 - No 98 - refuse
Q 31: Which category best describes your current annual household income? (**CLIPBRD**) _____ number
1 - under \$25,000 2 - \$25,000 - \$49,000 3 - \$50,000 - \$74,000 4 - \$75,000 - 99,000
5 - \$100,000 - \$149,000 6 - \$150,000 & up 98-refuse

APPENDIX C

MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

CONSTRUCT	QUESTION ON SURVEY	MEASUREMENT
ETHNICITY First line of Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coded as White, Black, or Other • 3 Categories 	Nominal
INCOME Questions 27 & 31	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which category best describes your current household income? • 6 categories 	Interval
AGE Questions 28 & 24	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Which category best describes your age? • 5 categories 	Ordinal
GENDER First line of survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coded as Female or Male • 2 categories 	Nominal
ACTIVITIES PARTICIPATED IN Questions 21 & 15	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • On this trip, what places did you visit or activities did you participate in? • Up to 6 activities listed 	Nominal
SPENDING Questions 16a-16f	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For the following questions, please include only your own individual expenses, and not those of your entire party. By the time you leave New Orleans, how much money will you have spent in total for your entire trip on (Just your best guess): <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. restaurants/meals. 2. bars/nightclubs 3. gambling 4. recreation/entertainment, like museums, sightseeing, shows, music, tours, sporting events, etc. 5. shopping 	Ratio

VITA

Kim Howard Williams was born in New Orleans, Louisiana on July 9, 1973. She received her Bachelor of General Studies from the University of New Orleans in the Fall of 1995. She received her Masters in Business Administration from the University of New Orleans in the Spring of 2000. Kim Howard Williams currently resides in New Orleans with her husband Richard Antoine Williams, Sr. and their three children, Ashley, Richard, Jr., and Kristi.