

## ABSTRACT

BOSLEY, HOLLY ELIZABETH. Spatial Conceptualization of the Urban Tourist Bubble: Downtown Raleigh, North Carolina in Transition. (Under the direction of Larry Gustke and Gene Brothers).

Both tourism researchers and urban planners have used the term “tourist bubble” to describe a geographic area planned and managed for tourists within a destination. Despite their semantic intersection, there has been little collaboration between tourism and urban planning scholars. In professional practice, a similar disconnect exists between tourism professionals, whose primary responsibility is place promotion, and urban planners who often focus on development of the place product.

The purpose of this study was to design a standardized method for mapping the urban tourist bubble as perceived by tourism and urban planning professionals. A secondary objective of this study was to identify commonalities and disparities between tourism and urban planning professionals’ perceptions of the urban tourist bubble. Understanding the urban tourist bubble is important because individuals representing both of these professions influence policy decisions that affect the urban experience for visitors as well as residents.

A new methodology was developed for mapping the urban tourist bubble. Structured personal interviews were conducted with tourism professionals and urban planners to better understand these two stakeholder groups’ perceptions of the urban

tourist bubble in downtown Raleigh, North Carolina. The urban tourist bubble, defined as a distinct geographic area planned and managed for tourists, was then mapped based on respondents' perceptions of the most-visited tourist attractions in downtown Raleigh, North Carolina, as well as perceptions of the perimeter of downtown. This new mapping technique highlighted the commonalities and disparities between tourism and urban planning professionals' perceptions of tourism activity in a downtown area. From the data, this study reconceptualized downtown Raleigh as an interconnected set of tourist experience zones, defined by the associations among their contents, instead of a business improvement district of five downtown districts with artificial parameters. This new conceptual framework offers a more functional perspective of downtown, rather than one that is artificial or prefabricated.

Spatial Conceptualization of the Urban Tourist Bubble:  
Downtown Raleigh, North Carolina in Transition

by  
Holly Elizabeth Bosley

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to the memory of my grandmothers, Natalie (Penny) Bosley and Jeanne Starkweather.

## BIOGRAPHY

Holly Elizabeth Bosley was born July 9, 1979, in Cleveland, Ohio. She is the daughter of Paul R. Bosley, III and Sally P. Bosley. She has one younger brother, Paul.

Holly graduated from Shaker Heights High School in 1997. She then attended Denison University, where she graduated *summa cum laude* with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Spanish and International Studies, as well as a minor in Psychology. After one year of employment at the Hyatt Regency Cleveland, Holly moved to Raleigh, North Carolina. In 2004, she earned her Master of Science degree from North Carolina State University in the Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management (PRTM). She remained in Raleigh to pursue her Ph.D. in the same department.

While working toward degree completion, Holly taught several courses in the Department of PRTM, reinforcing her career goal of acquiring a university faculty position. In Raleigh, Holly was also an active volunteer with the Special Olympics aquatics team and worked as a swim instructor for children with disabilities.

In response to the stresses of graduate school, Holly became an avid runner and completed two half-marathons. She and Jay also completed their first full marathon together in October, 2008. Holly resides in Stamford, Connecticut, where she is the Coordinator of Recreation and Volunteers at a local non-profit agency. Holly will begin as an assistant professor at The College at Brockport in the fall of 2009.

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## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

In their influential urban planning book, *The Tourist City*, Judd and Fainstein (1999) acknowledged the role of tourism in shaping the spatial form of cities. Urban tourism activity can either be integrated into the urban fabric or confined to distinct urban tourist zones. These geographically defined zones, which are planned and managed for tourists, have been referred to as tourist bubbles (Jaakson, 2004; Judd & Fainstein). Other identifiers include tourist districts (Pearce, 1998, 2001) and urban tourism precincts (Hayllar, Griffin, & Edwards, 2008).

Research on tourist zones appears in the literatures of two distinct fields of study, tourism and urban planning, neither of which has mapped tourism behavior in an urban context. Despite their semantic similarities, there has been little collaboration between tourism and urban planning scholars with respect to urban tourism research. In professional practice as well, there is a disconnect between tourism professionals, whose primary responsibility is place promotion, and urban planners, who often focus on development of the place product.

The purpose of this study was to design a standardized method for mapping the urban tourist bubble as perceived by tourism and urban planning professionals. A secondary objective of this study was to identify commonalities and disparities between tourism and urban planning professionals' perceptions of the urban tourist bubble. Data

on perceptions of the urban tourist bubble, defined as a distinct geographic area planned and managed for tourists, were collected from tourism professionals and urban planning professionals to compare these two fields of research and practice. This study proposed a new methodology for mapping the urban tourist bubble based on respondents' perceptions of the most-visited tourist attractions in downtown Raleigh, North Carolina, as well as perceptions of the perimeter of downtown. This new technique highlights the commonalities and disparities between tourism and urban planning professionals and advances the literatures of both the tourism and urban planning fields.

The earliest research on tourism in cities was conducted by geographers (Pearce, 2001). However, Ashworth (1989, 2003) noted that geographers largely ignored urban tourism research in favor of rural research contexts. Ashworth (2003) described the absence of urban tourism research as a "double neglect" whereby "those studying tourism neglected cities while those studying cities neglected tourism" (p. 143). Much of the existing urban tourism research is case study research, which Page (1999) criticized for its inability to contribute to a greater theoretical understanding of the urban tourism phenomenon. As recently as 2004, Selby commented that "urban tourism has been severely neglected as an area of academic research" (p. 31).

In tourism research, the term "tourist bubble" has never been specifically used in an urban context, although comparable spatial constructs, such as the planned tourist district (Pearce, 1998; Selby, 2004), have been applied to urban tourism settings. Cohen

(1972) first introduced the word “bubble” to the tourism literature in his work on international tourist typologies, describing the “environmental bubble” as a familiar, comfortable microenvironment within a novel, foreign macroenvironment. Cohen’s environmental bubble was based on Boorstin’s (1961) early work on images and the “pseudo-event,” which is planned and lacks spontaneity. Other early references to a “bubble” in the context of tourism appeared in two separate chapters of the seminal anthology, *Hosts and Guests: The Anthropology of Tourism* (Graburn, 1989; Smith, 1977).

The term “tourist bubble” has recently resurfaced in the tourism research literature. Jacobsen (2003) used the term to describe the quest for the familiar in inter-European travel. Additionally, Jaakson (2004) applied Cohen’s (1972) conceptualization of the environmental bubble to cruise ship ports-of-call on the Pacific coast of Mexico.

Similar to Cohen (1972) as well as Jacobsen (2003), familiarity is also an element of the urban planning industry’s conceptualization of the urban tourist bubble, introduced by Judd and Fainstein (1999). The treatment of the urban tourist bubble has been purely descriptive, focusing on the construction of the urban tourist bubble as a strategy for urban revitalization. Frieden and Sagalyn (1989) used the term “trophy collection” (p. 259) to describe the checklist-style ensemble of attractions that cities amass to increase their attractiveness to visitors and (current and potential) residents as a “civic agenda....[and] a trophy collection that mayors want” (p. 259). Judd (1999) related this “trophy collection” to the development of the urban tourist bubble, noting

that urban tourist bubbles are standardized and contain identical attractive components such as a convention center, atrium hotel, shopping mall, and restored historic neighborhood.

The result of formulaic urban development, such as the urban tourist bubble, can be what Harvey (1989) termed a “zero-sum” game, whereby cities become more alike and have no features to differentiate themselves from competitor destinations. Selby (2004) described two negative effects of this “cookie cutter” approach to tourism development and promotion: “This sanitised version of urban tourism not only threatens to erode the uniqueness of urban destinations, but it may also devalue the urban tourism experience” (p. 25). Urban development efforts that attempt to keep pace with the competition create difficulties for tourism professionals who are charged with the task of positioning the city as a unique attraction. My study’s attempt to map the urban tourist bubble from the perspectives of tourism and urban planning professionals could foster a mutual understanding between the two groups.

Since the tourism industry exists within a working city, visitors and residents must share the same spaces and services, which may result in competition between the two groups (Pearce, 2001). This coexistence presents a methodological challenge for urban tourism researchers. Data on urban tourist behavior are difficult to collect, since “tourist patronage cannot be readily disaggregated from that of other users” (Pearce, 1998, p. 54). In other words, it is difficult to separate tourists from residents. In addition, day-

trippers, who comprise a significant portion of urban tourists, are excluded from those urban tourism statistics reporting the number of bed-nights in a city. Based on these current measures of tourism, it is difficult to capture information regarding “tourist flows within the city” (Pearce, 1998, p. 54). The limited status of urban tourism research reflects these impediments to data collection.

Ashworth (2003) noted that while tourism depends on cities, cities do not *need* tourism. In addition to its role as a destination, a city also serves as a gateway, staging post, and tourist source (Pearce, 2001). Although tourism can contribute to the economy of a city, tourism is just one of the many functions in a multifunctional city. While not essential for economic survival, tourism has been recognized for its ability to contribute positively to a city. For example, Selby (2004) noted that “an attractive place to visit tends to be an attractive place to live and work. Tourism has therefore become an important component of economic development” (p. 10), because it can broaden the tax base by attracting residents and businesses. Reciprocally, an attractive place to live and work can also be an attractive place to visit. What Law (1993) calls the “secondary elements” of an urban *tourism* destination such as restaurants, shopping, and evening entertainment, are the primary elements that influence *resident* satisfaction. Tourism facilities and tourist activity create an energetic environment that is essential for the creation of a livable city. Judd (1999) noted that community-wide celebrations, which

promote social cohesion and community pride among residents, are often held within the landscape of the urban tourist bubble.

Shared spaces, however, can lead to land use conflict between residents and visitors. Tyler and Guerrier (1998) warned that,

as tourism develops in cities, parts of the city become effectively “owned” by the tourists rather than the residents, in that their needs are considered paramount in planning the amenities in the area and their presence defines the character of the area. The paradox is that... the impetus for developing tourism in the first place was often to benefit those residents who may feel dispossessed by it. (p. 234)

This conflict between tourists and residents is echoed in the conflict between the professional responsibilities of tourism managers and urban planners. While urban planners are responsible for the infrastructural components of the tourist bubble, tourism professionals have the responsibility of creating and promoting a unique image for their city, as well as providing positive experiences for tourists while in the city. The current urban planning strategy of constructing uniform tourist bubbles is at odds with the efforts of tourism professionals, whose goal is to differentiate their city from the competition.

The construct of the urban tourist bubble can be used as a vehicle for understanding the commonalities between the tourism and urban planning fields.

Mapping the construct of the urban tourist bubble is a first step in a comprehensive analysis of the forms and functions of the urban tourist bubble. The study site, downtown Raleigh, is at an urban development crossroads, and the results of this study are aimed at making a contribution toward an improved understanding between the disciplines of tourism and urban planning. This study will compare and contrast the tourism and urban planning disciplines in their perceptions of the spatial construct of the urban tourist bubble. Data are displayed and analyzed using maps, which serve as a *lingua franca* to communicate information across disciplines and professions. Once each profession understands that their work affects the other, tourism professionals and urban planners can work together to shape downtown spaces into livable cities that are also amenable to tourism.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study was to design a standardized method for mapping the spatial construct of the urban tourist bubble, defined generally as a geographic area planned and managed for tourists within an urban tourist destination. Unlike other geographic analyses of urban tourism, this study's methodology is not limited to a specific context but can be transferred to other urban settings.

To date, only one study (Jaakson, 2004) has attempted to map the tourist bubble, but the technique only applied to cruise ship ports-of-call. General models of urban tourist spaces have been proposed, such as Getz's (1993) tourism business district, and elements of successful urban tourism destinations have been delineated, such as Frieden and Sagalyn's (1989) "trophy collection" (p. 259) of components. Nevertheless, a standardized technique for mapping the tourist bubble has not yet been developed. Spatial analyses of a single dimension of urban tourism (e.g., accommodations) have been conducted, but integrated analyses of the many functions and dimensions of urban tourist destinations are rare (Pearce, 1995, 1998). This study's comprehensive spatial analysis of urban tourism bridges the gap across the disciplines of tourism, geography, and urban planning.

The following review of literature examines the existing state of research pertaining to tourism in urban areas. This chapter addresses strategies of downtown

economic revitalization through urban development, including the creation of an urban tourist bubble of visitor-oriented attractions and services. Other geographic descriptors of tourist zones are also examined. The conclusion of this chapter summarizes the body of knowledge of urban tourism research, along with a discussion of the impacts of urban tourism development on the local community.

#### Urban Economic Development and Business Improvement Districts

Selby (2004) noted that, “an attractive place to visit tends to be an attractive place to live and work. Tourism has therefore become an important component of [urban] economic development” (p. 10). Reciprocally, developing a city as an appealing place to live and work can also result in increased tourism. Urban economic development strategies, however, do not always include tourism development or promotion in their plans. Ashworth (2003) provided one explanation for this neglect, noting the asymmetrical relationship between cities and tourism. He explained that cities are important to tourism but tourism is not necessarily important to cities. Tourism is just one of many activities in a multifunctional city.

When the avenue of tourism development and promotion is not pursued, a common strategy for downtown improvement has been to establish a business improvement district (BID), which Friesecke (2006) defined as:

a geographically and mostly inner city area by which the property and business owners cooperate to improve the business and urban environment. The BID services provided are supplementary to those provided by the municipality and usually include security, maintenance of public spaces, removal of litter and graffiti, economic development, public parking improvements, special events and social services. (p. 2)

Houstoun (1997) noted that “many state laws require a map indicating which properties will be assessed and served by the BID” (p. 25), thus justifying the geographic component in Friesecke’s definition.

The BID concept originated in Toronto, Canada, with the designation of the Bloor West Village Business Improvement Area (BIA) in 1970. The BIA developed in response to the completion of the Bloor-Danforth subway line, when “many shoppers who formerly traveled along the surface [i.e., at street level] on Bloor Street in streetcars began disappearing underground” (Bloor West Village BIA, 2005). Today, BIDs and BIAs play an important role in downtown revitalization in cities, large and small, around the world. Many American cities, including Baltimore, Maryland; Cleveland, Ohio; and Raleigh, North Carolina have established BIDs to improve their downtown areas. A BID may or may not overlap with a city’s central business district (CBD). For example, in Missoula, Montana, the 70-block BID is contained within a larger CBD (Missoula Downtown Business Improvement District, 2008). In Los Angeles, however, the

boundaries of the BID correspond with the boundaries of the CBD (Los Angeles Downtown Center Business Improvement District [LADCBID], 2006).

Within BIDs, decision-makers sometimes fail to acknowledge the role of tourism as a strategy for improving the urban environment. From Los Angeles (LADCBID, 2006) and Milwaukee, Wisconsin (Milwaukee Downtown BID 21, n.d.) to Mobile, Alabama (Downtown Mobile Alliance, 2008) and South Bend, Indiana (Downtown South Bend, Inc., n.d.), a common motto of a BID is, “Making downtown a great place to live, work, and play!” This message targets local residents and businesses. Tourism is an afterthought to those charged with the task of downtown redevelopment. The rationale behind this prioritization is that when public dollars are used for revitalization, taxpayers (i.e., local residents and businesses) should be the key beneficiaries of development, not out-of-town visitors.

Chang, Milne, Fallon, and Pohlmann (1996) noted that in public-private partnerships common within heritage development projects, the public sector “tends to emphasize the social needs of the community” while the private sector “is more concerned with profitability and the bottom line” (p. 297). In fact, heritage tourism development is sometimes motivated by “residents’ demands for recreation and/or enrichment” (Chang et al., p. 299), rather than economic revitalization. Nonetheless, the “obvious economic goals of tourist attraction, employment generation and revenue creation...are often given greatest prominence because they legitimize the substantial

capital channeled into such an undertaking and provide tangible proof of returns on investment” (Chang et al., p. 299).

BID formation is not the only strategy for improving a downtown area. Robertson (1995), an urban planning researcher, summarized seven planning and design strategies often used by cities in an effort toward downtown redevelopment:

1. Pedestrianization: Visible pedestrian activity creates a positive image of downtown as a lively, safe place.
2. Indoor shopping centers: Downtown indoor malls compete with suburban malls in an attempt to attract more people to the downtown area. There are three types of downtown commercial centers:
  - a. Regional shopping malls with traditional anchor department stores,
  - b. Mixed-use centers that combine retail with a public transportation terminal, hotel, or convention center, and
  - c. Festival marketplaces, which feature local specialty shops, often incorporate a local historical theme, and emphasize dining and entertainment as well as retail. Successful examples of festival marketplaces include Ghirardelli Square in San Francisco, Union Station in St. Louis, Pike Place Market in Seattle, and Faneuil Hall in Boston.
3. Historic preservation: The two major types of urban preservation projects are festival marketplaces, described above, and historic downtown districts, typically

entertainment districts (e.g., Shockoe Slip in Richmond, Virginia; Old Sacramento; Laclede's Landing in St. Louis).

4. Waterfront development: Historically, waterfront usage was dominated by railroads and factories, preventing public access to the water's edge. Today, redeveloped downtown waterfronts accommodate both public open space and private development.
5. Office development: One of the most recognizable images of a city is its skyline, and these towers house offices, which provide office workers serving as "feeders" to downtown restaurants and shops.
6. Special activity generators: This strategy includes convention centers, arenas, and stadiums. Special activities, however, are infrequent by definition. These massive structures do not attract people to downtown on a regular basis, but they do provide the following three spillover benefits:
  - a. Visitors may spend money at nearby shops, restaurants, tourist attractions, and hotels.
  - b. The construction of a special activity facility could stimulate new construction, such as a hotel complex. (This was the case in Raleigh, when the new convention center spurred the construction of the adjacent Marriott City Center, as well as the nearby Lafayette boutique hotel.)

c. The special activity generator could revitalize a derelict area of downtown.

(This was the case with the city of Tampa's convention center.)

7. Transportation enhancement: Downtown must be perceived as accessible for people to choose to visit. Perceptions of accessibility are negatively affected by traffic, safety anxieties, and parking availability. Therefore, parking is one of the key issues for downtown redevelopment.

Of course, not all seven downtown redevelopment strategies need be applied simultaneously, nor was that Robertson's (1995) recommendation. However, after such a detailed list of recommendations, Robertson's conclusion was incongruously vague, providing only one broad suggestion for downtowns to differentiate themselves from their competition: "A downtown should reflect history, culture, and economy that are unique to its region, and not rely automatically on the ubiquitous redevelopment strategies listed here" (Shaping an Agenda for Downtown Development section, ¶ 3).

In fact, many strategies for downtown revitalization follow a prescription similar to Robertson's (1995) seven recommendations. Lloyd (2002) and MacCannell (2002) referred to the resultant homogeneous "big box" type of tourist space that results from urban revitalization. Chang et al. (1996) also noted the homogeneity in urban redevelopment, commenting that "the duplication of such features as waterfront zones, festival marketplaces, downtown malls and tourism-historic districts in a diverse array of

cities has been highlighted as evidence of a convergence in...urban planning theories” (p. 286).

Judd (1999) wrote about the competition among American cities to create attractive *urban tourist bubbles* for economic development purposes. To win the favor of convention and meeting planners, a city must have a mayor’s “trophy collection” (Frieden & Sagalyn, 1989, p. 259) of components, including “a shopping mall, new office towers, a convention center, an atrium hotel, a restored historic neighborhood....Add a domed stadium, aquarium, or cleaned-up waterfront to suit the circumstances, and you have the essential equipment for a first-class American city” (p. 259). Based on development trends in the 1990s (after the publication of Frieden and Sagalyn’s book), Judd also suggested that a casino gambling facility be added to the “trophy collection” inventory.

Frieden and Sagalyn (1989) acknowledged that these collections of downtown attractions often “fit together surprisingly well” (p. 259), even if they are not the result of long-range planning. However, the problem with this type of formulaic development is that nothing differentiates one city from another when every city has the same “trophy collection” of attributes. Robertson (1995) reiterated this dilemma, stating that “uniformity of function and appearance blurs the distinctiveness of each downtown” (The Uneven Effects of Downtown Development section, ¶ 6). In effect, these cities have developed a “‘postmodern anywhere’ feel that can be found in many cities in the U.S.

and around the world” (Short, Benton, Luce, & Walton, 1993, p. 221). Rojek (1995) paraphrased Zukin’s (1991) identification of the paradox of postmodern culture: “In making postmodern space more mobile and flexible it weakens our sense of living in situated geographic locales and increases or sense of being in universal cultural space” (p. 146). As the boundaries between the local and global are blurred, the result is the creation of “globally nondescript space” (Rojek, p. 147).

One reason for this uniformity in style is that many cities use the same “signature” architects (Short et al., 1993, p. 221). James Rouse, for example, was the preeminent developer of festival marketplaces, and his projects included: Boston’s Faneuil Hall and Quincy Market, San Francisco’s Ghirardelli Square, Baltimore’s Harborplace, and New York City’s South Street Seaport. Hall (2002) described this phenomenon as the “Rousification of America” (p. 386). These “Rousified” festival marketplaces have a similar ambiance, are often filled with the same collection of national retail chains, and reflect the characteristics of postmodern space described in the previous paragraph.

The byproduct of such standardized development is a sense of placelessness, described by Relph (1976) as a geography that is “lacking both diverse landscapes and significant places” (p. 79). For individuals in these placeless settings, the homogenous landscape facilitates a shallow and meaningless experience within these environments. Relph explained this lack of “awareness of the deep and symbolic significances of places”

(p. 82) as an inauthentic attitude to place, which is synonymous with a loss of sense of place. This issue of placelessness is critical to tourism, since “the appeal of tourism is the opportunity to see something different, [but] cities that are remade to attract tourists seem more and more alike” (Fainstein & Judd, 1999, pp. 12-13).

When cities are developed and promoted using similar strategies, the result can be what Harvey (1989) termed a “zero-sum” game, whereby cities become more alike by following a “formula” for urban development. Selby (2004) described two negative effects of this formulaic approach to development and promotion. The first is that the uniqueness of cities is threatened. The second effect is that, as cities lose their uniqueness, the urban tourism experience is devalued, similar to what has happened in overdeveloped coastal resorts. Urban tourist destinations that lack unique characteristics will find it difficult to differentiate themselves against other competitor destinations. Differentiation is essential to the marketing activity of positioning, which is addressed in the subsequent section.

#### Positioning the Sanitized City

Judd (1999) compared the urban tourist bubble to a theme park, citing Smith’s (1980) depiction of a theme park as a fantasy that provides “entertainment and excitement, with reassuringly clean and attractive surroundings” (as cited in Judd, 1999, p. 39). Urban destinations are challenged with the task of combating negative

stereotypes of cities as dangerous and dirty. Tourism is often viewed as the strategy for image enhancement, because if tourists have positive experiences in a city, then positive word-of-mouth could cause perceptions to change (Collinge, 1989, as cited in Selby, 2004, p. 17).

The downtown shopping mall has been described as “a means of creating defended space [for tourists] even in the midst of urban crime and decay” (Judd, 1999, p. 46). These malls are targeted toward tourists rather than the resident population. Because of their enclosed nature, downtown malls segregate tourist shoppers from the working city, presenting tourists with a “sanitized” image of the city.

Tyler and Guerrier (1998) described a challenge to this form of sanitized urban development:

The successful urban tourist space is...one which offers excitement, spectacle and stimulation at the same time as safety, security and familiarity. This need to provide a safe playground for the global middle class may result in a sanitisation of traditional urban areas. The paradox is that at some point this process may make the area less attractive to precisely those people it is trying to attract. (p. 233)

Law's (1993) term for these sanitized cities was “clone cities” (p. 170), suggesting that cities are replicating a “master” formula for urban development.

To attract visitors, however, cities need to “develop something either distinctive or specialized...based on something inherent in the place and its history, or a theme which has been identified” (Law, 1993, p. 170). This recommendation relates to the marketing concept of positioning, or the differentiation of a destination from its competitors so that it occupies a distinctive place relative to other destinations in the minds of potential visitors (Ries & Trout, 1981/1986). Positioning is often overlooked when this strategy of “checklist” urban development is followed. Chang et al. (1996) argued, however, that heritage tourism development afforded cities the opportunity “to assert their place-uniqueness in a rapidly globalizing world” (p. 295), in contrast to the formulaic approach to urban development followed by many cities.

In his seminal piece entitled *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors*, Porter (1980) described three generic competitive strategies: cost leadership, differentiation, and “focus.” Of his three strategies, differentiation is most relevant to this discussion and is described as “creating something that is perceived industry-wide as being unique” (Buhalis, 2000, p. 106). Differentiation can be a struggle for cities which have adhered to a standardized downtown revitalization strategy.

In sum, the undifferentiated, sanitized city results from an effort to redevelop an urban area so that it is safe, clean, and comfortable for visitors. In reference to this process of sanitization, Judd (1999) wrote that,

where crime, poverty, and urban decay make parts of a city inhospitable to visitors, specialized areas are established as virtual tourist reservations. These become the public parts of town, leaving visitors shielded from and unaware of the private spaces where people live and work. (p. 36)

The term that Judd used to describe this type of specialized area is “the tourist bubble,” a construct that is addressed in detail in the following section.

### Tourist Bubbles and Enclaves

The term *tourist bubble* has been addressed in the context urban tourism (e.g., Judd, 1999) as well as other tourism settings (e.g., resorts, package tours) and is used to describe a concentrated geographic area of tourist facilities and attractions. This section chronicles the usage of the term “bubble” in the tourism literature and introduces the related concept of a tourism enclave.

In the tourism planning literature, Gunn (1988) described four elements that comprise a destination zone: linkage corridors, attraction clusters, service community, and circulation corridor. The linkage corridors (i.e., roads and highways) connect the attraction clusters (i.e., things to see and do) to the service community (i.e., services and amenities for tourists), and the circulation corridor is the access route to the destination zone (i.e., interstate highways, airports, seaports). Gunn later modified this idea by identifying the residential community as a tourism “no-go” area separate from the

tourism product delivery system (Fagence, 2004, p. 207). While Gunn never explicitly used the word “bubble,” his distinction between residential zones and tourist zones reflects some key properties of the tourist bubble.

One of the primary characteristics of a tourist bubble is its separation from the surrounding environment. This separation is usually created by natural or built spatial features (Fagence, 2004; Jaakson, 2004; Torres, 2002, Torres & Momsen, 2005; Wagner, 1977), but it can also be psychologically constructed (Buck, 1978; Edensor, 1998; Smith, 1977). A walled resort, for example, results in a spatially defined bubble with a distinct perimeter. In contrast, tourist-directed messages warning about the dangers of the surrounding community create a psychological bubble with a more nebulous boundary. Whether spatially or psychologically constructed, the presence of a tourist bubble prevents interaction between tourists and local residents. Machado’s (2003) definition of “bubble tourism,” centered on the notion of “minimum contact with the local society or economy” (p. 9), illustrates this key characteristic of the tourist bubble.

Cohen (1972) introduced the word “bubble” to the tourism literature in his work on international tourist typologies. He defined an “environmental bubble” as a familiar, comfortable microenvironment within a novel, foreign macroenvironment. Cohen proposed a typology of four international tourist types distinguished by their desire for varying degrees of familiarity and novelty. The organized mass tourist types, who seek a high degree of familiarity and a low degree of novelty, remain within this environmental

bubble, which is reminiscent of their home country in terms of the amenities offered. Individual mass tourists, the second of Cohen's four tourist types, spend most of their time within the familiar environmental bubble. They venture out occasionally in search of novelty, albeit in predictable and controlled contexts. Explorers are the third type of tourists, and they are motivated by novelty but do not immerse themselves completely into the host society. Explorers stay close enough to the environmental bubble that they can retreat to the safety of the familiar if necessary. Cohen's fourth and final international tourist type, the drifter, "tries to live the way the people he [sic] visits live, and to share their shelter, foods, and habits" (p. 168). The drifter rejects the insulation of the environmental bubble and instead embraces the "exotic" elements of the host community. Familiarity, therefore, is a central component of Cohen's environmental bubble. Turner and Ash (1975) described this type of environmental bubble as "a small monotonous world that everywhere shows us our own image...[such that] the pursuit of the exotic and diverse ends in uniformity" (p. 292). Organized mass tourists seek familiarity within the environmental bubble, while drifters shun familiarity in favor of local novelties outside the bubble.

Since Cohen's (1972) introduction of the environmental bubble in the context of international tourism experiences, the characteristic of familiarity has been used in other conceptualizations of tourist spaces and experiences, including Smith's (1977) "tourist

bubble,” Graburn’s (1989) “home-grown bubble,” Farrell’s (1979) “enclave of familiarity,” and Cohen’s (2004) “backpacker enclaves.”

This desire for the familiar is more common among mass tourists than individual travelers (Cohen, 1972) and is reflected in food preferences (Torres, 2002) as well as accommodations (Graburn, 1989). Torres studied the food preferences of tourists in Mexico’s Yucatan Peninsula, and concluded that “mass tourists will generally demand familiar comforts and amenities, including greater access to home country foods” (p. 299).

A preference for familiarity was also depicted in the documentary film, *Trekking on Tradition* (Rhodes, 1992), which chronicled mountain tourism in Nepal, particularly the long-distance treks of Western tourists. The Nepalese lodge owners catered to Westerners’ demands for familiar foods (e.g., spaghetti, apple pie) to attract business, since the menu was often the deciding factor for trekkers choosing a lodge.

Supplying “familiar” items to tourists can result in a negative impact on the environment. In Nepal, the lodge owners consumed more energy (in the form of firewood) preparing Western foods than they would have consumed preparing their traditional foods (Rhodes, 1992). Torres (2002) and Graburn (1989) also observed that tourists’ demand for the familiar can result in greater impact on the host culture and/or environment because meeting their demands often requires the use of additional resources.

Graburn (1989) described a hierarchy of prestige for travel experiences, with distant, exotic, or rugged travel being more prestigious than safe, package travel. Graburn emphasized the importance of familiarity to tourists who elect this second type of “lower-status” travel experience, described as “the tourism of the timid,” for tourists who “carry the home-grown ‘bubble’ of their lifestyle around with them” (p. 35). Graburn noted that these tourists “worship ‘plumbing that works’ and ‘safe’ water and food” (p. 35).

Smith (1977) described the tourist bubble in terms of Turner’s (1969) *communitas*, or a loose social bond or a feeling of solidarity among tourists created in situations of liminality such as travel. Smith described such situations where tourists are “physically ‘in’ a foreign culture while socially ‘outside’ the culture...This understanding of the ‘bubble’ includes tourists who congregate with their compatriots in hotel bars and lobbies, creating their own reality” (p. 6). Smith’s conceptualization of the tourist bubble, then, is social/psychological rather than spatial.

Turner’s (1974) liminoid zone is another concept that relates to the tourist bubble. Tourism researchers have often used the terms *liminal* and *liminoid* when describing visitor behavior in a destination setting. While both words refer to an “in-between” phase, *liminal* (van Gennep, 1906) describes pre-industrial “obligated rituals and ceremonies” (Currie, 1997, p. 888), while *liminoid* (Turner) describes the post-industrial voluntary passage from work to leisure settings.

Turner (1974) described this liminoid zone as being “out of time and place,” a phrase later used by Wagner (1977) as the basis for her behavioral analysis of tourists on package tours. Wagner found that tourists’ inappropriate behavior was often ignored by local authorities if it remained confined within a distinct tourist space, such as a hotel’s perimeters. Wagner considered the resort property line to be the spatial boundary marking the tourist bubble within which tourists’ “normless overt behavior” (Wagner, p. 44), such as nude sunbathing or scanty dress in sacred places, was tolerated. In this liminoid zone, “conventional social ties are suspended” (Urry, 1990, p. 10), and the societal norms of the “real world” are abandoned in favor of socially inappropriate behavior in an anti-structure setting (Turner, 1969).

In addition to their spatial separation within the confines of a tourist resort, Wagner (1977) also addressed the social separation of mass tourists participating in inclusive tour packages. From the perspective of the local population, “tourists are seen as a clearly demarcated group, whose dress, behavior and life-style set them apart and show them to be an intrusive group” (Wagner, p. 43). Wagner’s early work on tourist behavior within a spatially and socially separated region is closely connected with contemporary work on the tourist bubble and enclave.

One of the most comprehensive studies of the tourist bubble was Jaakson’s (2004) spatial analysis of the activity patterns of cruise ship passengers in port. He examined the dimensions and elements of the tourist bubble, both tangible (i.e.,

physical) and intangible (i.e., perceived by tourists), and his pedestrian flow methodology was later applied by Nillson, Marcussen, Pedersen, and Pedersen (2005) in their study on cruise tourism in the Baltic Sea region.

Jaakson (2004) applied Cohen's (1972) conceptualization of the environmental bubble, which "confine[s] and isolate[s] mass tourists by 'protective walls'" (Jaakson, pp. 44-45), to cruise ship ports-of-call. He delimited the contours of the tourist bubble by calculating pedestrian flow at the street level using Burton and Cherry's (1970) *principle of the moving observer*. Jaakson counted the number of pedestrians on a predetermined number of streets at two points in time: 1) when no cruise ship was in port and 2) when a cruise ship was in port. Jaakson's map of the tourist bubble was a street map, with a gradient of shadings to indicate the percent change from observation 1 to observation 2. Darker shading indicated a higher percent change. Jaakson found that tourists were funneled through a series of "entry sieves" (p. 52), from disembarkation of the cruise ship to walking down the pier toward the port town. Jaakson assigned the terms *core* and *periphery* to the tourist bubble and the transition zone between the bubble and the outlying macroenvironment, respectively. In the periphery, Jaakson found that "the number of tourists and tourist facilities are gradually outnumbered by local residents and by non-tourist oriented facilities" (p. 52). Implicit in Jaakson's analysis is the assumption that a high ratio of tourists to residents is a defining characteristic of the tourist bubble.

Jaakson (2004) also identified a number of “boundary cues” that visitors interpret as signs that they are approaching the periphery of the tourist bubble. Within the core of the tourist bubble, one encounters tourism shops, restaurants, and outdoor souvenir stalls. As one moves through the bubble toward the periphery, tourism shops and restaurants are gradually replaced with hardware stores and grocery stores – retail outlets aimed at residents, not short-term visitors.

While Jaakson’s (2004) methodology is the only documented tool for *mapping* the geographic extent of the tourist bubble, many other researchers have *described* properties of the bubble using terms such as protective boundaries (Buck, 1978; Fagence, 2004) and enclavic tourist spaces (Davis & Morais, 2004; Edensor, 2001; Freitag, 1994).

Buck (1978) and Fagence (2004) studied the concept of boundary maintenance among the Old Order Amish. Deliberate planning efforts on the part of the tourism industry in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania have resulted in a protective barrier (Fagence) around Old Order Amish communities. This protective boundary, which is both spatially and psychologically constructed, makes it difficult for tourists to access Amish private spheres of life.

The spatial construction of the protective boundary is formed by concentrating tourist attractions in a “tourist zone” separate from the Amish residential and farming zones. These zones are based on Gunn’s (1988) destination zone concept, whereby the

attraction clusters are connected to each other with linkage corridors and the residential community is geographically isolated from the attraction clusters.

The psychological construction of the protective boundary is created by tour operators who deliberately reinforce in tourists the feeling of being “strangers in a strange land” (Buck, 1978, p. 229). The psychological and spatial boundaries, resulting from visitors’ lack of knowledge and the commodification of a “staged authentic” tourist zone, prevent tourists from independently entering Amish back regions, or private spheres of life.

Similar to the sensation of being “strangers in a strange land” in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, Edensor (1998) described another case of a psychological component to the tourist bubble in a resort near the Taj Mahal, the white marble mausoleum in Agra, India, one of the most recognizable tourist attractions in the world. The crammed itinerary and warnings of the dangers outside the confines of the resort dissuaded most package tourists from venturing beyond the confines of the familiar environmental bubble of the resort, creating a psychological bubble around the resort property.

Regardless of the spatial features of the area, package tourists’ desire for familiarity and safety can result in a psychological tourist bubble. However, not all tourists are package tourists, and not all tourism spaces are tourist bubbles. Edensor (2001) distinguished between enclavic and heterogeneous tourist spaces. While enclavic

tourist spaces are synonymous with Cohen's (1972) environmental bubbles (characterized by familiarity and control), heterogeneous spaces have permeable borders, with unencumbered entry and exit for both tourists and residents.

Inside heterogeneous tourist spaces, tourists and residents interact freely and casually. Residents are still able to conduct the business of everyday life within this zone because the local community exists alongside, rather than separate from, tourism. Edensor (1998) described a heterogeneous tourist space in Taj Ganj, a mixed-use area near the Taj Mahal mausoleum that provides for the needs of both tourists (e.g., hotels, shops, restaurants) and residents (e.g., domestic dwellings, schools, public offices, mosques). Edensor emphasized, however, that even though heterogeneous tourist space is mixed-use space, it is nonetheless commercialized space because of local economic dependence on tourism dollars.

Within enclavic tourist spaces, tourist behavior is controlled using spatial and psychological means. Davis and Morais (2004) described the tourism development enclave in rural Williams, Arizona, created by the construction of the Grand Canyon Railway's depot and resort in 1989. Davis and Morais defined the enclave by its resultant restriction of tourist interaction with the downtown area outside of property lines. The resort and the downtown Williams commercial area are located on opposite sides of the railroad tracks. The resort's goal was to provide visitors with everything they needed (e.g., lodging, food, attractions, shopping, evening entertainment) so that they never had

to leave the property. In this case, the enclave was primarily defined by tourists' lack of interaction with local *businesses*, rather than local *residents*. The local community does not receive any positive economic impact from the growth of tourism in Williams because the majority of tourist spending is confined to the boundaries of the absentee corporate-owned enclave resort. Momsen (2005) noted a similar absence of local economic gain among Caribbean islands that are home to all-inclusive resorts, identifying "'leakage' of receipts from tourism" (p. 214).

Davis and Morais (2004) explained three ways in which the physical landscape (i.e., the built resort) affects tourists' movement within the town of Williams. First, the resort buildings draw attention away from the downtown area. The view of downtown is blocked from the parking area so that when one enters the resort by car the only view is of the resort itself, and the entertainment stage was strategically built on the far side of the property "to draw people away from access points to downtown" (Davis & Morais, p. 7). Secondly, as mentioned above, the resort has a variety of offerings to meet tourists' needs and to obviate their departure from the property – a strategy not unlike the cruise industry's attempt at "revenue capture" in their design of cruise ships as travel destinations in themselves (Weaver, 2005, p. 165). Finally, the resort's consistent use of a railroad image theme attracts visitors who are seeking a "railroad experience." This theme does not exist in the town of Williams, so visitors motivated by the "railroad experience" would not find appealing tourism options in the town. These three

consequences of the deliberate design of the tourism enclave reiterate the element of control within the tourist bubble (Cohen, 1972).

Carrier and Macleod (2005) provided an example of an enclavic tourist space in their description of Casa del Mar, a hotel compound in the Dominican Republic. To construct this all-inclusive resort (which is adjacent to a national park), the entire village of Bayahibe was moved a half a mile away. Moreover, local residents were denied beach access. With its one-way access, the tourist bubble surrounding the resort was the antithesis of the heterogeneous tourist space defined by Edensor (2001). Carrier and Macleod explained that “guests at Casa del Mar and the other hotels regularly invade village space in organized tours, while hotel guards stop Bayahibe residents from invading tourist space” (p. 321). Carrier and Macleod described this ecotourism scenario as a psychological ecotourist bubble that obscured the antecedents (e.g., negative environmental impact of air travel to a destination) and corollaries (e.g., displacement of local village so that a resort could be constructed) of a tourism experience. This ecotourist bubble also manifested itself spatially in terms of ecotourists’ lack of understanding of local resource use.

#### Tourist Districts and Other Geographic Descriptors of Tourist Zones

In addition to the tourist bubble and enclave, many other terms have been used to describe the geographic area of a city that is defined for tourist use including:

recreational business district (Stansfield & Rickert, 1970), tourism business district (Getz, 1993), tourist district (Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999; Hovinen, 2002; Pearce, 1998, 2001), and tourism precinct (Hayllar & Griffin, 2005; Hayllar, Griffin, & Edwards, 2008). In this section, these terms are reviewed, with emphasis on their application to urban tourism. In addition, methodological difficulties in mapping these types of spaces are delineated.

Stansfield and Rickert's (1970) recreational business district has served as a platform for the geographic analysis of tourist-oriented development. In their examination of retail districts on the New Jersey shore and Niagara Falls, Canada, Stansfield and Rickert distinguished the recreational business district from other local business districts in terms of: intended audience (tourists instead of residents), access (pedestrian instead of vehicular), and location (spatially separated from other business districts). Others have since used the framework laid by Stansfield and Rickert to analyze the recreational business district (Meyer-Arendt, 1990), typically in the contexts of tourism geography and tourism planning.

Getz (1993) contrasted the recreational business district (RBD) with what he termed the tourism business district (TBD), noting that RBDs "are most commonly associated with beach resorts" (p. 584), while the TBD is more pertinent to cities. (Getz compared the forms and functions of TBDs and RBDs in the table reproduced in Table 2.1 below.) He defined the TBD as "concentrations of visitor-oriented attractions and services located in conjunction with urban central business district (CBD) functions" (p.

583) and noted that “in older cities, especially in Europe, the TBD and CBD often coincide with heritage areas” (p. 583). Getz emphasized the synergistic relationship between the TBD and the CBD, explaining that access to both districts was essential for creating “a critical mass of attractions and services to encourage tourists to stay longer” (p. 597). Getz examined the planning aspect of TBDs in his comparison of Niagara Falls, New York, and Niagara Falls, Canada.

Table 2.1

*Getz’s (1993) Comparison of Tourism and Recreational Business Districts’ Forms and Functions* (p. 586)

Tourism Business District	Recreational Business District
All-year orientation	Seasonal orientation
Concentrated form	Linear or T-shaped form
Attractions may be completely cultural and purpose-built	Attractions are usually natural
May incorporate or develop separately from traditional CBDs	Develop separately from resident-oriented CBD; may merge with, or influence the CBD over time
Functions include:	Functions include:
Offices	Catering/beverages
Business services	Entertainment/amusements
Attractions	Gifts and souvenirs
Visitor services	Some accommodation
Government	
Culture	
Major shopping	
Transport systems	
Image and meanings are predominantly cultural/urban	Cultural and natural images and meanings are blended

Different from a recreational or tourism business district, the concept of a central business district (CBD) describes a corporate center for white-collar office workers resulting in one-dimensional use of downtown space. In a CBD, downtown shops and restaurants cater to office workers; consequently, these establishments close each weekday at 6pm and are closed for the weekend (Robertson, 1995). The CBD has been acknowledged to be an unsuccessful urban development strategy. For example, Jacobs (as cited in Robertson) stated that ““a central business district that lives up to its name and is truly described by it is a dud”” (Robertson, *The Uneven Effects of Downtown Development Strategies* section, ¶ 2). Some cities, however, have replaced the traditional monocentric CBD with a more contemporary metropolitan area that, while still centered on corporate headquarters and office jobs, also appeals to visitors – both out-of-town tourists and visitors from nearby suburbs (Kaplan, Wheeler, & Holloway, 2004). These downtown redevelopment strategies, including transit improvements, waterfront development, and cultural attractions, reflect the multi-functional nature of revitalized urban centers.

Pearce (1998) described the multiple urban functions of tourist districts, in his analysis of tourist districts in Paris, noting the multi-functionality of individual tourist districts as well as the linkages between districts. Pearce analyzed the spatial and functional associations between tourist sites within three districts: the Ile de la Cité, an island in middle of the Seine River that is home to Notre Dame and other historic

buildings; Montmartre, a primarily residential district on the periphery of the city with a “village-like’ form and atmosphere and a pronounced sense of local community” (p. 57); and the Opéra quarter, a district known for its shopping opportunities.

Pearce (1998) found that the spatial association of attractions within a tourist district did not necessarily imply functional linkage. The Ile de la Cité is a small island with a number of sites that are associated spatially (due to their shared presence on the island) but not functionally. Pearce concluded that “the historic buildings which are the prime attractions in the Ile de la Cité [e.g., Notre Dame cathedral] are much less functionally integrated in a tourism sense than sheer spatial association might at first suggest” (p. 56). Functional integration was best illustrated in the case of the Opéra quarter, where “a major tourist attraction [the Musée du Louvre] has engendered a concentration of small secondary services [souvenir shops, foreign exchange outlets, clothing stores, cafés] tapping the tourist traffic and offering visitors advantages of comparative shopping” (p. 61). This concentration of commercial activity – which capitalizes on agglomeration or “the clustering of similar as well as dissimilar economic, social, cultural, and governmental activities in a given location” (Kaplan et al., 2004, p. 139) – is akin to the contemporary form of the central business district as well as Getz’s (1993) tourism business district.

In terms of accessibility, which Getz (1993) mentioned in the context of tourism business districts, Pearce (1998) referred to the “external connection nodes” (p. 63) of

metro stations and motorcoach parking that facilitate travel between tourist districts. Ease of movement between tourist districts is relevant to Pearce's conclusion that, due to the short average length of stay for tourists in Paris, linkages might be more prevalent among the major attractions on a city-wide level (e.g., Notre Dame, the Eiffel Tower, Louvre, Sacré Coeur) than within tourist districts anchored by one major attraction. Nevertheless, Pearce encouraged the continued analysis of tourism on a district-wide scale because of the "varying degree of compatibility between tourism and other urban functions" (p. 63) uncovered in his study.

In another analysis of the tourist district, Pearce (2001) classified six general types of urban tourist districts: historic districts (e.g., Boston [Ehrlich & Dreier, 1999]), ethnic districts (e.g., Little Italy in New York [Conforti, 1996]), sacred spaces (e.g., Jerusalem [Schachar & Shoval, 1999]), redevelopment zones (e.g., Baltimore's Inner Harbor [Judd, 1999]), entertainment destinations (e.g., midtown Manhattan [Sassen & Roost, 1999]), and functional tourism districts (e.g., Getz's [1993] tourism business district). Another district, a cultural tourism district – comprised of museums, galleries, and spaces for outdoor festivals and events – could also be added to this classification schema.

A common urban tourism strategy is to geographically cluster those attractions that would be classified as cultural tourism products such as museums and art galleries. The quintessential example of this clustering is the Smithsonian Institution in Washington, D.C. (Selby, 2004). Downtown Raleigh also has a smaller museum cluster

comprised of the North Carolina Museum of Natural Sciences and the North Carolina Museum of History. There is also a separate cluster of smaller art galleries in the City Market area, which is in close proximity to a third major downtown museum, Marbles Kids Museum. In addition to fixed attractions, large festivals and events that draw visitors to a city are often arts-related. These festivals and events generate positive economic impact for a city. In fact, “economic development has embraced the arts to the extent that the term ‘arts industry’ is now in common usage” (Selby, p. 22). Cultural tourism districts, or clusters, have been identified in South Beach, Miami, Florida (Stofik, 2005), as well as Cape Town, South Africa (Visser, 2003).

In many studies, tourist districts are mentioned but not defined. Dimanche and Lepetic (1999), for example, in their article on tourism and crime in New Orleans, referred to the tourist district as an area distinct from the French Quarter, but failed to provide any definition of what that tourist district entailed. Hovinen (2002) also mentioned, but did not delineate, tourism districts in Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, a high-volume tourist destination known for its Amish heritage.

A synonym for the tourist district is the tourism precinct. The term precinct is more prevalent in the Australian tourism literature (e.g., Hayllar & Griffin; Hayllar, Griffin, & Edwards, 2008; McDonnell & Darcy, 1998), while district is more commonly used by European and American researchers (e.g., Hovinen, 2002; Pearce, 1998, 2001). Hayllar and Griffin defined the tourism precinct as “a distinctive geographic area within a larger

urban area, characterized by a concentration of tourist-related land uses, activities and visitation, with fairly definable boundaries” (p. 517). While Hallyar and Griffin provided a definition, they did not explain *how* these “fairly definable boundaries” of a tourism precinct are defined or mapped. The purpose of my study was to fill this gap by developing a method for mapping this concentration of tourist-related places to display areas of urban tourism activity.

Although Pearce (1998) provided the most comprehensive spatial and functional analysis of the urban tourist district, his methodology is unfeasible for most researchers operating under temporal and financial constraints. He analyzed his data “largely in terms of agglomerative processes, using information gathered in 1995 and 1996 by observation, records of visitors’ patterns where available, discussions with key personnel and analysis of plans and other relevant documentation” (p. 53). While undoubtedly thorough, this method of analysis is not standardized. Following similar procedures in another urban tourist destination would be difficult.

Pearce (1998), Cockerell (1997), and Murphy (1992) revealed other practical issues in researching urban tourism demand. Pearce (1998) noted a key dilemma in quantifying tourists’ demand for resources in an urban destination. Since urban tourist destinations are multi-functional cities, tourism cannot be parceled out from other urban activities. When looking at visitation records or public transportation usage, “tourist patronage cannot be readily disaggregated from that of other users [or patrons]” (p. 54).

For example, discerning how many of the millions of daily passengers on the New York City subway are tourists would be a costly undertaking. An additional dilemma in analyzing urban tourism demand is that the majority of urban tourism statistics are based on overnight accommodations data, even though day-trippers comprise a large percentage of the total number of urban tourists (Cockerell, 1997).

Murphy (1992) attempted to separate tourists from non-tourists in downtown Victoria, British Columbia, through the use of non-participant observation methods to track tourist patterns. An observer unobtrusively followed subjects from their hotel door to the heritage attractions they visited. However, it was the observer's responsibility to classify subjects as either tourists or residents based solely on behavioral observation. Those departing from a hotel or taking photographs of the downtown area were classified as tourists, while those using public bus transfers and parking structures were classified as local residents. In addition, the observer classified subjects' heritage-related behavior into one of three categories: observing a heritage feature of the landscape, reading heritage plaques or other heritage displays, and entering a heritage attraction. These assumptions limited the generalizability of the study. The practical difficulties that accompany demand-side research, such as the ones encountered by Murphy, may provide a partial explanation for the supply-side bias in the urban tourism literature.

Another challenge in urban tourism research is that an urban tourist destination (e.g., a city) rarely has distinct boundaries. Selby (2004) noted that “management is made more difficult by the ill-defined boundaries of tourist areas” (p. 28). Research is also made more difficult by this absence of a precise study site. With the exception of island destinations and walled cities, an urban tourist destination has amorphous boundaries, especially from the point of view of the tourist, who is most likely unaware of “official” boundaries.

Based on findings from Pearce (1998), Murphy (1992), and Selby (2004), one may conclude that research on the spatial analysis of urban tourism is a difficult task, which is why it has rarely been attempted. My study presents a new technique for mapping the urban tourist bubble and contributes to the scholarship of urban tourism, a research context that has been largely overlooked. This incoherent and inadequate body of research is addressed in the following section.

#### The Fragmented Condition of Urban Tourism Research

In general, the body of urban tourism research appears fragmented. The research topic of urban tourism is relevant to both groups that have addressed the urban tourist bubble: tourism researchers and urban planners. Nevertheless, investigating the topic of urban tourism has sometimes been neglected by researchers in both areas of study. In his seminal piece, “Urban tourism: An imbalance in attention,” Ashworth

(1989) described the dearth of urban tourism research as a “double neglect... [whereby]...those interested in the study of tourism have tended to neglect the urban context in which much of it is set, while those interested in urban studies...have been equally neglectful of the importance of the tourist function of cities” (p. 33). From the time of Ashworth’s commentary until the completion of my study, urban tourism research has been slow to evolve as compared to other areas of tourism research over the same time period.

Ashworth (1989) provided three reasons why those interested in urban studies neglected tourism in their research. First, the tourist in the city was largely invisible, which marginalized the study of urban tourists and tourism among urban studies scholars. Secondly, as a result of the near invisibility of the urban tourist, tourism districts were difficult to delineate. Thirdly, “the invisibility of urban tourism and the near impossibility of demarcating it rendered it too difficult to study...tourism was not quantifiable in cities as it was more readily in rural areas” (Ashworth, 2003, p. 145). This conclusion parallels the research difficulties encountered by Pearce (1998) and Murphy (1992) described in the previous section.

Page (1995) offered another explanation for the neglect of urban tourism as a research focus, summarized by Selby (2004) as “a vicious circle whereby the lack of quality research results in a lack of interest within the public sector to understand urban

tourists. The lack of interest makes further research difficult, as both funding and data sources are limited” (p. 31).

Page (1999) also noted that much of the urban tourism literature is comprised of descriptive case studies, which “do not contribute to the greater theoretical or methodological understanding of urban tourism” (p. 163). Even as recently 2004, Selby commented that “urban tourism has been severely neglected as an area of academic research” (p. 31), which is problematic because urban tourism has considerable economic and cultural implications for both residents and visitors of urban areas. With neither a theoretical foundation nor a substantial body of research, urban tourism research efforts are stymied.

Overall, the urban research that exists is largely descriptive and lacking in application beyond the geographic extent under investigation. Selby (2004) also observed an incoherence in urban tourism research, describing the existing urban tourism research as “fragmented and...inaccessible” (p. 12). One reason for this incoherence is the variety of spatial scales or levels of analysis applied in urban tourism research. Both Selby (2004) and Pearce (2001) observed that the majority of urban tourism research has been conducted at the city-wide level. The downfall of most city-specific studies is their “failure to make links with other cities or broader questions [which] limits their ability to advance the understanding of urban tourism as a whole” (Pearce, p. 932).

In an attempt to remedy the fragmented state of urban tourism research, Pearce (2001) proposed an integrative framework for urban tourism research, represented as two axes: *scale*, comprised of regional/national/international, city-wide, district, and site; and *themes*, comprised of demand, supply, development, marketing, planning, organization, operations, and impact assessment. In this model, each individual cell represents the intersection between a particular scale and theme (e.g., city-wide marketing; site operations).

One application of Pearce's (2001) model could be a basic classification of the existing urban tourism literature by cell. While such a classification would illuminate gaps in the literature, a descriptive study was not what Pearce had in mind. Instead, Pearce's primary recommendation was the creation of systematic linkages through research: following one theme across multiple scales or multiple themes within one scale. Pearce termed these types of connections horizontal (i.e, multi-theme) and vertical (i.e., multi-scale) linkages. In his integrative framework, Pearce saw the potential for "facilitat[ing] a bridging of the gap between the tourism and urban studies literatures" (p. 941). Pearce also suggested that future research studies follow his integrative approach by creating "broader research designs involving diverse methodologies...and interpreting the subsequent results through a variety of lenses" (p. 941).

My study answers Pearce's (2001) call for bridging the gap between tourism and urban studies by mapping the spatial construct of the urban tourist bubble, a concept that intersects the tourism and urban studies literatures. In addition, the research tool of geographic information systems (GIS) was incorporated into the methodology so that results could be interpreted spatially.

### Urban Tourism Contexts

Urban tourism as a strategy for economic revitalization is the location of the intersection between tourism and urban planning perspectives. Often this effort toward urban revitalization occurs in areas where traditional industries (e.g., manufacturing, retail) have disappeared and alternative industries are sought. Urban tourism also exists in historic cities. This section of the literature review describes the motivations for urban tourism development, the types of urban tourist destinations, approaches to urban tourism research, and urban tourism supply and demand.

Law (1993) listed four factors that have contributed to the rise of tourism development in urban areas: first, the decline of traditional manufacturing industries; second, the need to provide jobs for urban residents; third, the general perception of tourism as an economic growth industry; and fourth, the prospect that tourism will revitalize urban centers (as cited in Chang, Milne, Fallon, & Pohlmann, 1996, p. 286).

Not all urban tourism destinations, however, have economic revitalization as a primary aim. Pearce (1998) and Selby (2004) contrasted between two types of urban tourist destinations: the tourist-historic city (e.g., York, England; Rome, Italy) and the planned tourist district (e.g., Baltimore Inner Harbor, London Docklands). The historic city is the predominant context for urban tourism research conducted by tourism scholars, while the planned tourist district is more often the context for urban planning research.

In the historic city, “urban tourism is an established phenomenon, and contemporary policy is often concerned with minimising the negative impact of tourism” (Selby, p. 10), including sociocultural and environmental impacts resulting from increased visitation. Urban tourism research on historic destination cities is often set in a European context (Burtenshaw, Bateman, & Ashworth, 1991), though Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) also included the American cities of Savannah, Georgia; Charleston, South Carolina; and Boston in their categorization of tourist-historic cities.

Research can be used “to inform the planning and management decision making process” (Mason, 2003, p. 171). Pearce (2001), however, described the existing research associated with tourism in historic cities as “reactive” (p. 927). Research on the tourist-historic city has been conducted as an attempt to solve existing problems rather than as a preventive measure. Historic cities, which were not originally designed with mass tourism in mind, must mitigate the negative impacts of overcrowding, traffic congestion,

and pollution (Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). These negative impacts can lead to degradation of the cultural resources that attract tourists in the first place. Visitor management is essential to the mitigation of negative impacts of tourism, and van der Borg (1998) emphasized the territorial distribution of visitors in the city (encouraging visitation to lesser-known attractions, as opposed to only the “musts”) as well as the temporal distribution of visitors throughout the year.

Different from historic cities, which “inherit” their tourism product, the planned tourist district is an area of the city which is designed and developed specifically for tourism. The intersection of tourism and urban planning research is often located in discussions of these planned tourist districts created for economic development purposes. In fact, tourism as urban regeneration was the topic of Judd and Fainstein’s (1999) *The Tourist City*, which presented a range of planning perspectives on urban tourism, with chapters dedicated to urban tourism in: Orlando, Las Vegas, Cancún, Boston, Prague, Jerusalem, and cities in Southeast Asia. This type of urban tourism for economic development is pertinent to the present study of downtown Raleigh, which is not considered to be a heritage city like Savannah or Charleston, two of its competitor destinations.

Within the two setting categories of the tourist-historic city and planned tourist districts, scholars have suggested different ways to approach urban tourism research. Ashworth (1989) described three approaches to urban tourism research: supply-side

research, demand-side research, and policy research (as cited in Selby, 2004). Pearce's (2001) integrative framework for urban tourism research, reviewed in the previous section, was more comprehensive and included the elements of demand, supply, development, marketing, planning, organization, operations, and impact assessment.

Urban tourist destinations face several unique challenges. First, since the tourism industry exists within a working city, visitors and residents must share the same spaces and services, which may result in competition between the two groups (Pearce, 2001). An additional challenge of an urban tourism context is that "a city may have multiple and overlapping tourism roles: as a gateway, staging post, destination, and tourist source" (Pearce, p. 927). Cities are gateways when they serve as hubs linking tourists with other nearby destinations and attractions. Law (1996) noted that international visitors often use a city as a gateway, citing the example of London as a gateway city for overseas tourists who take day-trips to surrounding towns such as Oxford, Bath, and Stratford-upon-Avon. Cities take on the role of staging posts when they host (or "stage") major events, as was the case with Barcelona and the 1992 Summer Olympic Games (Smith, 2005). Cities are tourist sources because an urban area, by definition, is densely populated.

Regarding the city as a destination, Law (1996) described cities as "multi-purpose destinations" (p. 7), and noted that people visit cities for a variety of reasons including: business, leisure and entertainment, to visit friends and relatives (VFR), and to undertake

personal business. Cities are popular destinations because their attractions and events are well developed, they are accessible, they have a large inventory of hotels, and because cities have large populations, they are a popular destination for the VFR traveler (Law). Visitors to urban destinations are often motivated by a combination of factors, for example, choosing to attend a professional meeting in a city where friends or relatives live.

Based on these various motivations for visiting an urban destination, Pearce (2001) described the urban tourism demand as “multidimensional and frequently multipurpose in nature” (p. 928). Likewise, the urban tourism supply is multifaceted (e.g., cultural attractions, shopping, night life, historic districts), comprising what Erlich and Dreier (1999) described as an “urban ambiance” (p. 161). In a successful urban tourist destination, the supply and demand are complementary.

Judd (1995) linked urban tourism supply and demand in his reference to the urban tourism product as an “agglomeration” of components. He explained that “a full panoply of services and businesses is necessary to make the space maximally attractive to consumers of the tourist space” (p. 179). According to Jansen-Verbeke (1988), the urban tourism product consists of primary and secondary resources. Primary resources, or the elements that attract visitors to an urban area, include historic buildings, urban landscapes, museums and art galleries, concerts, spectator sports, conferences, exhibitions, and special events. Secondary resources are the activities that support or

enhance the visitor experience and include: shopping, catering, accommodation, transport, and tourism agencies. In sum, visitors do not typically choose a city because of any one particular attraction or feature. The assembly of all these resources, primary and secondary, makes the tourist city an attractive destination.

### Impacts of Urban Revitalization

Urban tourism has the potential to deliver economic benefits to the local community. Using the categories of direct, indirect, and induced economic impact, Selby (2004) described how urban tourism creates jobs, benefits support industries, and bolsters the local economy. In addition, urban tourism products, such as facilities and attractions, “can also increase civic pride, enterprise and confidence” among local residents (Selby, p. 20). Having a facility like a world-class athletic stadium can generate a feeling of community pride among residents.

Critics have noted, however, that downtown revitalization projects, especially in cities with manufacturing roots, are often geared toward the professional sector. For example, in the context of Detroit, Frieden and Sagalyn (1989) noted that “office doors were opening for the educated while industrial lofts and warehouses were closing their doors on blue-collar workers. Jobs created by the office economy raised questions about who would benefit from the new downtown” (p. 261). Low-paying service-industry jobs with limited opportunity for advancement (e.g., restaurant wait staff, hotel front line)

might be the only work available for downtown residents formerly employed in the industrial manufacturing sector.

Robertson (1995) characterized these downtowns as “dual cities” (The Uneven Effects of Downtown Development Strategies, ¶ 3), with two user groups: the white-collar professionals and the lower-income earners. Robertson contrasted these two user groups as follows:

These two distinct groups of downtown users are separated not only by economic class, but by spheres of activity as well. The sphere of activity for office workers is likely to be the clusters of new office buildings, and the nearby shops and restaurants geared to the incomes of businesspeople. The second-hand shops, and shops with lower-priced goods and services that serve individuals with more modest incomes are in a different part of downtown, probably on the periphery. (pp. 8-9)

Tourism development presents an additional spatial dichotomy between local residents and visitors. To illustrate, Judd (1999) explained that the urban tourist bubble is a place of pure consumption for visitors who are more affluent than those living in the surrounding community.

Another criticism of urban revitalization is its potential negative impact of tourism on local residents. Robertson (1995) cited the case of New Orleans, where visitation doubled in five years with the introduction of tourist attractions to the downtown

including a convention center, aquarium, and riverboat casino. Resident support for tourism, however, decreased in reaction to this increase in the number of people in downtown New Orleans. The importance of understanding urban residents' socially oriented perceptions of tourism is explained in the following section.

### Sociocultural Impacts of Tourism

Research on tourism community relationships is central to the social sustainability of tourism development efforts (Davis & Morais, 2004; Pearce & Moscardo, 1999). Tourism planners must consider the attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors of local residents because their negativity toward tourism and tourists can detract from efforts at attracting visitors to the community (Williams & Lawson, 2001). Zehnder (1976) noted the importance of assessing resident perceptions of tourism impacts in the following statement:

Of all the factors which determine pleasure and enjoyment in travel, there is none more important than the way travelers are treated by the local residents of tourist areas. Their attitudes toward tourists are extremely important, for most of us avoid places where we are not readily accepted.

(p. 212)

In other words, the tourist's experience can be negatively impacted by the unwelcoming behavior of local residents.

In urban destinations in particular, positive interactions between residents and visitors are important because urban tourists seek these interactions. Webber (1964) wrote that, “it is interaction, not place that is the essence of the city and city life” (Page & Hall, 2003, p. 342). Page and Hall explained that, “the attraction of the city for tourists is the possibility for enhanced interaction for a given period of time. If you want to minimise interaction you go to a wilderness area or to rural areas, if you want to maximise interaction you go to the city” (p. 342). Therefore, positive interactions between residents and visitors contribute to a positive urban tourist experience.

Local residents are often referred to as “hosts” (Smith, 1977), which implies an expectation that residents will be welcoming and hospitable toward visitors. This expectation, however, is only realistic if local residents perceive the benefits of tourism to the local community. Social exchange theory, the predominant theoretical framework for research on the sociocultural impacts of tourism on host communities, explains that residents and visitors can mutually benefit from tourism (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Ap, 1992; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Sirakaya, Teye, & Sonmez, 2002). Residents who witness the benefits of tourism in their community will be more receptive to visitors. Similarly, residents who are more engaged with the tourism industry will have more positive attitudes about tourists and the industry as a whole (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005). Recalling that urban redevelopment is often undertaken with the goal of

improving the lives of local residents (Chang et al., 1996), resident satisfaction with the tourism industry is paramount to successful urban revitalization.

Social exchange theory reveals that resident involvement with tourism development can lead to more positive perceptions of the tourism industry. This type of involvement is often absent from development that occurs in isolation, such as the tourist bubbles and enclaves discussed in an earlier section of this chapter, which may cause dissatisfaction among local residents. It may also result in a disappointing experience for tourists, since interaction with the local population is limited.

In addition to resident involvement, the ratio of tourists to residents is another variable that has been examined in relation to resident perceptions of tourism. Smith, Bond, and Kagitcibasi (2006) observed that, “the sheer scale of contemporary tourism ensures that it has a substantial impact on host populations, particularly where the ratio of tourists to local population is high” (p. 217). A higher ratio of tourists to residents leads to more negative perceptions of tourism impacts. Harrison (1992) referred to this ratio as the “tourist intensity rate” (Shaw & Williams, p. 171), which compared annual tourism arrivals to local population size. A higher intensity rate suggested more pressure on local facilities, translating to more negative impacts on host communities. Momsen (2005) referred to the tourism density ratio, a calculation of the number of tourists per square kilometer, and the tourism penetration ratio, which compares the number of tourists per 1,000 residents on a given day. McElroy & de Albuquerque (1998) and

Padilla and McElroy (2005) used the tourism penetration ratio as a proxy measure of sociocultural impact in their calculation of an aggregate Tourism Penetration Index.

Using this type of ratio as an indicator of resident perceptions of tourism impact (i.e., a higher the ratio leads to more negative perceptions) assumes homogeneity across cities. However, every city has a unique spatial design that influences the frequency and nature of interactions between residents and visitors. If urban tourism facilities and attractions are isolated from the rest of the city, as is the case with the urban tourist bubble, then interactions are minimized. An improved understanding of the nature of tourism spaces and the frequency and types of resident-visitor interactions can lead to a more positive urban tourist experience and improved perceptions of tourism from the point of view of urban residents.

#### Authenticity in the Front and Back Regions of Tourist Destinations

Using the theatre as a metaphor, Goffman (1959) claimed that social spaces have “front” and “back” stages. Goffman defined the front region (or “front stage”) as “the place where the performance [for tourists] is given” (p. 107), whereas the back region or back stage is where the local population lives, works, and plays. Based on this claim, MacCannell (1973) explained that tourists seek authenticity in the back regions of tourism destinations.

MacCannell (1973) used Goffman's (1959) definitions of front and back regions as upper and lower anchors on a six-stage continuum for describing tourist settings.

MacCannell contended that tourists seek out authentic experiences by attempting to move through the continuum toward the back region of a destination. Stage 1 on the continuum is Goffman's front region, or "the meeting place of hosts and guests" (MacCannell, p. 590). Stage 2 is "a touristic front region that has been decorated to appear, in some of its particulars, like a back region" (MacCannell, p. 598). This setting is still a front region, but with added "atmosphere." The North Carolina State Farmers' Market restaurant is a local example of a Stage 2 tourist setting: patrons are most certainly in the restaurant's front region, but the farm-themed decorations such as the tractor in the front of the store serve as reminders of the back region (i.e., where the food came from). Stage 3 is defined as "a front region that is totally organized to look like a back region," and Stage 4 is "a back region that is open to outsiders" (MacCannell, p. 598). Stages 3 and 4 can be difficult to distinguish from each other, especially if the simulated back region in Stage 3 is an accurate representation of the true back region in Stage 4. Moving closer to the closed back region that resides at the far pole of MacCannell's front/back continuum, Stage 5 is "a back region that may be cleaned up or altered a bit because tourists are permitted an occasional glimpse in" (p. 598). In contrast to Stage 4, which is completely open to visitors, access to Stage 5 is somewhat restricted – and consequently more attractive to some tourists. Finally, Stage 6 is

Goffman's back region, which is the ultimate goal of authenticity-seeking tourists because it is seen as unstaged, exclusive, and truly *authentic*.

Tyler and Guerrier (1998) summarized the relevance of these front and back regions to the study of urban tourism in the following passage:

All tourists change the nature of the space that they occupy...both materially by their presence and symbolically by designating a space a "tourist area". Drawing on MacCannell (1976) [*sic*], a tourist city becomes a patchwork of "front areas" where the residents (hosts) perform for the benefit of the tourists and "back areas" where the residents go about their everyday business. As the "front areas" take over the centre of the city so the "back areas" are crowded out to the periphery. (p. 234)

The relationship between residents and visitors is critical to a destination's image and can affect – for better or worse – the visitor experience and resident attitudes toward tourism development. Therefore, it is prudent to protect those "back areas" that are important, and sometimes even sacred, to urban residents. Spatial analyses of a city's tourism activity can shed light on geographic areas that might be susceptible to this type of resident-visitor interaction.

## Geographic Analysis of the Urban Tourist Bubble

Tourism is inherently geographic. The earliest research on urban tourism was conducted by geographers (Pearce, 2001). Today, the two disciplines are intertwined in books (e.g., *The Geography of Tourism: Environment, Place and Space*; Hall & Page, 2002; *Tourism Geography*; Williams, 1998; *Geography of Travel and Tourism*; Hudman & Jackson, 2002; *Worldwide destinations: The Geography of Travel and Tourism*; Boniface & Cooper, 2005) as well as journals (e.g., *Tourism Geographies*). Yet the contemporary tool of geographers, geographic information systems (GIS), is rarely applied to tourism-related problems. (See Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999.)

This study examined the spatiality of urban tourism using the construct of the urban tourist bubble as a conceptual framework. As described in this literature review, urban tourism occurs in several forms (cf., tourist-historic city, planned tourist zone). Construction of a planned tourist zone is often used as a strategy for urban economic revitalization. The urban tourist bubble, or a geographic area planned and managed for tourists within an urban tourist destination, has been addressed by both tourism and urban planning scholars. However, it has not been mapped in an urban context. The next chapter will describe the methodology developed to map the urban tourist bubble in Raleigh, North Carolina.

## CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

This chapter describes the methods used to map the downtown tourist bubble of Raleigh, North Carolina. Tourism is inherently geographic (Williams, 1998). Therefore, a mapping technique was applied to examine the spatial properties of the urban tourist bubble. To date, the only technique that has been used to map the tourist bubble in a destination is that of calculating pedestrian flow (Jaakson, 2004; Nillson et al., 2005), which can only be used in destinations with predictable inflows of tourists such as cruise ship ports-of-call. My study proposed a new method for mapping the urban tourist bubble based on the perceptions of tourism and urban planning industry professionals. Geographic representations of the perceptions of the two groups of industry professionals were then compared. The methodology is described in the following sections of this chapter: study site, instrument development, field test, informed consent, population of interest, sampling frame, data collection, and method of analysis.

### Study Site

This study was conducted in Raleigh, North Carolina, the state's capital with a population of 350,000. The greater Raleigh area receives 11.5 million visitors annually (Greater Raleigh Convention and Visitors Bureau [GRCVB], 2007a), of which 3.5 million (30%) visit downtown Raleigh (Downtown Raleigh Alliance [DRA], n.d.). According to visitor information disseminated by the Greater Raleigh Convention and Visitors Bureau

and the Downtown Raleigh Alliance, the attractions in downtown Raleigh include: government buildings, such as the State Capitol Building, Legislative Building, Executive Mansion (residence of the governor of North Carolina), and State Archives; attractions, such as the Progress Energy Center for the Performing Arts, North Carolina Museums of Natural Sciences and History, Marbles Kids Museum and IMAX Theater at Marbles Kids Museum; art galleries in the City Market area; the historic neighborhood of Oakwood; and two urban parks, Moore Square and Nash Square Park. In addition, the Raleigh Convention Center and adjoining Marriott hotel opened their doors in the fall of 2008.

A business improvement district (BID) was formed in Raleigh in 2004 to generate revenue for downtown services including maintenance, safety, and advocacy (DRA, n.d.). Within the geographic boundary of the BID, five districts have been delineated: Fayetteville Street District, Moore Square District, Glenwood South District, Warehouse District, and Capital District (DRA, 2007). (See Appendix A for a map of these five districts.) These districts are defined geographically but described as “interdependent,” with each having a unique set of offerings. The Moore Square District, for example, is best known for its arts venues (e.g., museums, galleries), while the Glenwood South District is characterized by its nightlife and restaurant scene. The interdependence of these districts is reminiscent of Pearce’s (1998) description of Paris’ urban tourist districts, “which may differ not only in their tourist attributes but also in their other urban functions” (p. 52).

The Greater Raleigh Convention and Visitors Bureau has identified nine entertainment districts in Raleigh (GRCVB, 2007b), most of which are centrally located. These districts are: Cameron Village, Capital, Fayetteville Street, Five Points, Glenwood South, Moore Square, N.C. State and Hillsborough Street, North Hills, and Warehouse Districts. Five of these districts overlap with the districts defined by the DRA. The other four fall outside of the business improvement district boundary.

Different from the DRA's (n.d.) five interdependent districts, the GRCVB's (2007b) entertainment districts are not depicted spatially. However, their geographic location is described in general terms. For example, the North Hills entertainment district's location is described as "north of downtown Raleigh, off Six Forks Road" (GRCVB, 2007b).

This section outlined two categorization schemes for describing Raleigh's tourism offerings. While they are different in some respects, both schemes compartmentalize Raleigh into labeled districts. In this study, a survey was administered to tourism and urban planning professionals to gauge their perceptions of the geographic extent of tourism activity in downtown Raleigh. The development of the survey instrument is described in the next section.

### Instrument Development

The initial survey instrument, a semi-structured interview protocol, was developed with assistance from two external consultants with extensive knowledge of

the tourism system in Raleigh. These consultants were identified because of the breadth and depth of their professional experience in the tourism industry.

Interview questions were designed to gather information about respondents' "top of mind" perceptions of the tourism system in downtown Raleigh as well as their perceptions of the location of downtown Raleigh's perimeter. The sample, which will be described in a subsequent section of this chapter, was comprised of tourism industry and urban planning professionals in the downtown Raleigh area. An interview was selected as the vehicle for data collection rather than a mail-back survey, e-mail survey, or other form of written questionnaire so that respondents could not conduct research or discuss the questions with colleagues before responding. The intention of the interview was to capture respondents' *initial perceptions*, as opposed to calculated responses.

The instrument was field tested on four former Raleigh area tourism employees who had since relocated to other areas of the country. Due to the small sampling frame, out-of-town respondents were selected to avoid using potential sample respondents in the field test. Several changes were made to the interview script based on this field test. These changes are described in the following section of this chapter.

The final interview protocol (contained in Appendix B) consisted of three sections. Section One included background questions about employment experience and place of residence (e.g., number of years in respective industry, number of years in the Raleigh area, current town of residence). Section Two asked respondents to

generate lists based on their perceptions of the most-visited attractions and places, restaurants, and accommodations in downtown Raleigh. Section Three of the interview was a checklist task where respondents were asked to indicate whether they considered each of 21 places to be in downtown Raleigh by responding with “yes,” “no,” “maybe,” or “I don’t know.” The places on this list were all well-known places or “local landmarks,” and were selected because of their location near the perimeter of the Downtown Raleigh Alliance’s map of downtown Raleigh’s BID. Most places were located outside the boundaries of the BID, and places to the north, south, east, and west of the BID were intentionally selected.

#### Field Test

In the preliminary interview protocol, Section Two contained questions that asked respondents to rank the top 10 attractions, restaurants, and accommodations that tourists visit in downtown Raleigh. Based on feedback from field test respondents, this question was modified so that respondents were only asked to list the top *five* places visitors stay overnight when their primary trip purpose is to visit downtown Raleigh. Feedback from the field test indicated that respondents would have struggled to identify 10 lodging properties, primarily because there are limited options for overnight stay in downtown Raleigh. Consequently, the field test was useful in refining the identification of lodging properties included in Section Two of the interview.

The field test was methodologically important for another reason. As stated above, field test respondents were selected because they were no longer living in Raleigh. Consequently, their interviews were scheduled by email correspondence and then conducted over the telephone at a later date. Four out of five possible interviews were conducted within one week of initial email contact. This method of scheduling and conducting field test interviews was both successful (in terms of a high response rate) and efficient. Therefore, it was determined that study respondents would be given the option of personal or telephone interviews, as opposed to conducting personal interviews with all respondents. Although two methods of data collection presented the issue of decreased reliability, there were two positive outcomes. First, a shorter data collection period happened, and second, a higher response rate was obtained. The same standardized interview protocol was followed for telephone and in-person interviews.

#### Informed Consent

The interview script was submitted to North Carolina State University's Institutional Review Board for review in May, 2007. It was approved and data collection commenced on August 17, 2007.

#### Population of Interest

The population of interest for this exploratory study was tourism professionals, defined as all individuals with direct professional experience with tourist behavior in

downtown Raleigh, and urban planning professionals, defined as all individuals with professional responsibilities associated with the revitalization of downtown Raleigh.

### Sampling Frame

A purposive sampling technique was used to identify the study's initial sampling frame. Purposive sampling is a nonprobability sampling strategy used to seek out predefined groups and is often used in exploratory studies (Trochim, 2006).

With assistance from two external consultants (mentioned earlier in this chapter) and the President and CEO of the Greater Raleigh Convention and Visitors Bureau, the initial sampling frame was developed by enumerating all tourism industry professionals whose job responsibilities included interaction with visitors. The consultants identified three tourism-oriented organizations in Raleigh:

1. Greater Raleigh Convention and Visitors Bureau (GRCVB), the city- and county-level tourism authority;
2. North Carolina Division of Tourism, Film and Sports Development (NCDTFSD), the state-level tourism authority with an emphasis on marketing and promotion; and
3. Capital Area Visitor Services (CAVS), an information center geared toward visitors to the North Carolina government complex in downtown Raleigh (e.g., State Capitol Building, Legislative Building).

Only those staff members with direct knowledge of and/or experience with visitor behavior in downtown Raleigh were chosen for inclusion in the sampling frame. From this sampling frame of 25 individuals, a census was sought.

A sampling frame of urban planners and others with a professional interest in downtown Raleigh revitalization was constructed using online staff directories of three urban planning-related organizations in downtown Raleigh:

1. the Urban Design Center, a publicly funded agency housed within the Raleigh Department of City Planning, whose projects include Livable Streets, downtown parking, and downtown way-finding (e.g., signage, maps);
2. Empire Properties, a private real estate development company with a focus on historic preservation of downtown buildings; and
3. the Downtown Raleigh Alliance, a non-profit organization responsible for the creation of the downtown Raleigh BID.

From this sampling frame of 28 individuals, a census was sought.

In addition to the purposive sampling of individuals employed at the tourism and urban planning-related organizations in Raleigh, a snowball sampling strategy was used to recruit additional sample respondents: people employed in the tourism and urban planning fields who may not have otherwise been considered for inclusion in the study sample. In snowball sampling, respondents from the initial sampling frame were asked to recommend others with a professional knowledge of downtown Raleigh who could be

contacted for inclusion in the study. For this reason, the total sample size ( $n = 68$ ) was greater than the original sampling frame.

#### Data Collection

Over a three-month span (August – October, 2007), standardized in-person and telephone interviews were conducted with 45 tourism industry professionals and 23 urban planning/ design professionals for a total sample size of 68 respondents. See Table 3.2 for a list of all organizations included in the final sample, as well as each organization's subsample categorization.

Table 3.1

*Number of Respondents from Downtown Raleigh Organizations by Organization Type*

<b>Organization Name</b>	<b>Number of Respondents</b>	<b>Organization Type</b>	<b>Subsample Categorization</b>
Artspllosure	1	Arts	Tourism
Big Easy	1	Restaurant	Tourism
Capital Area Visitor Services	3	Tourism	Tourism
Chamber of Commerce	1	Tourism	Tourism
Downtown Raleigh Alliance			
- Staff	10	Urban planning / design / management	Urban Planning
- Board of Directors	7	Urban planning / design / management	Urban Planning
Empire Properties	3	Urban planning / design / management	Urban Planning
Marbles Kids Museum	3	Arts	Tourism
Greater Raleigh Convention and Visitors Bureau (GRCVB)			
- Staff	10	Tourism	Tourism
- Board of Directors	6	Tourism	Tourism
Meeting Planners	2	Tourism	Tourism
Mo's Diner	1	Restaurant	Tourism
North Carolina Division of Tourism, Film, and Sports Development	7	Tourism	Tourism
Sheraton Raleigh	3	Hotel	Tourism
The Borough	3	Restaurant	Tourism
The Conference Table (advisory group to GRCVB)	1	Tourism	Tourism
City of Raleigh's Urban Design Center	3	Urban planning / design / management	Urban Planning
Yancy's	2	Restaurant	Tourism
Raleigh City Museum	1	Arts	Tourism

Of the 68 total interviews, 35 were conducted over the phone and 33 were conducted in person. Because of the difficulty in scheduling in-person interviews with members of advisory groups or boards of directors, telephone interviews were conducted with these respondents. Telephone interviews were also conducted with most of the respondents who were added to the sample as a result of snowball sampling efforts. Since a standardized interview script was followed for both in-person and telephone interviews, issues of reliability were regarded as minimal. Interviews were comparable in length for both types of interviews, and no differences were observed with respect to respondents' willingness to provide information based on the method of contact.

### Analysis

Analyses were conducted using the data collected during the 68 interviews. First, descriptive statistics were calculated to gain a better understanding of the data. These descriptive statistics included: a delineation of the most frequently mentioned attractions and places, accommodations, and restaurants for the entire sample as well as each subsample; calculations of subsample percentage differences for the mentioned sites; peripheral places most and least often considered to be part of downtown Raleigh; and calculations of subsample percentage differences for the peripheral places.

ArcView software was used to generate a number of geographic representations of the urban tourist bubble. Maps were produced to display the data from Section Two regarding the downtown attractions and places, accommodations, and restaurants most frequently mentioned by respondents (overall sample, tourism subsample, urban planning/ design subsample). These maps show the tourism “hot spots” in downtown Raleigh and provide spatial representations of downtown Raleigh’s tourist bubble for the overall sample as well as the two subsamples.

In addition, maps were produced to display the data from Section Three regarding the peripheral places used to identify respondents’ perceived boundaries around downtown Raleigh. These maps show the differences between the tourism industry and urban planning/ design subsamples’ perceptions of downtown Raleigh’s outer boundaries.

In the following chapter, analyses of these descriptive and spatial data will be provided.

## CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings from the interviews that were conducted with the sample ( $n = 68$ ) of tourism ( $n_1 = 45$ ) and urban planning ( $n_2 = 23$ ) professionals.

Results are presented in three sections, followed by a summary. The first section of this chapter describes general information obtained from Section One of the interview, including a description of the sample. The second section of this chapter describes responses from Section Two of the interview, including respondents' perceptions of the most-visited attractions and places, restaurants, and accommodations in downtown Raleigh. Results are displayed in tables as well as maps. Differences between the tourism and urban planning subsamples are also analyzed. The third section of this chapter describes responses from Section Three of the interview, based on respondents' perceptions of the boundaries of downtown Raleigh. Again, subsample differences are considered and results are displayed in tabular and geographic formats.

### Description of the Sample: Results from Section One

As described in the previous chapter, a total of 68 people were interviewed for this study. Of the 68 interviews, 35 interviews were conducted over the phone and 33 interviews were conducted in person. Within the total sample, 41 respondents were women and 27 respondents were men. See Table 4.1 for a crosstabulation of method of contact by gender for each subsample.

Table 4.1

*Cross-tabulation of Method of Contact by Gender for Tourism and Urban Planning Subsamples*

Method of Contact	Tourism Subsample		Urban Planning Subsample		Totals
	Men	Women	Men	Women	
In person	6	24	1	2	33
By telephone	5	10	15	5	35
Totals	11	34	16	7	68

Respondents were asked to report the total number of years of employment in their respective professions. Within the tourism subsample, 41 of the 45 respondents provided data regarding the total number of years of employment in the field.

Responses ranged from 2 to 39 years, with a mean of 14.53 years. Within the urban planning subsample, 18 of 23 respondents provided data regarding the total number of years of employment in the industry. Responses ranged from less than 1 to 26 years, with a mean of 7.33 years. Table 4.2 illustrates the distribution of respondents' total number of years in the field across four categories: 0 to 5 years, 6 to 10 years, 11 to 15 years, and over 15 years. Overall, the tourism subsample was largely comprised of "veterans in the field," while the urban planning subsample was less experienced.

Table 4.2

*Total Number of Years in Field for Tourism and Urban Planning Subsamples*

Subsample	Number of Years in Field				Total
	<1-5	6-10	11-15	>15	
Tourism	9	11	5	16	41
Urban Planning	12	1	1	4	18

Respondents were also asked to report the number of years spent working in the greater Raleigh, North Carolina area in their respective fields. Within the tourism subsample, 42 of the 45 respondents provided data regarding the total number of years of involvement in the field. Responses ranged from 1 to 39 years, with a mean of 10.89 years. Within the urban planning subsample, 22 of 23 respondents provided data regarding the total number of years of involvement in the field. Responses ranged from 0 to 20 years, with a mean of 5.09 years. Again, the tourism subsample was comprised of a number of Raleigh “veterans” (i.e., those with more than 15 years of experience) while the urban planning subsample was primarily comprised of newcomers to the field (i.e., those with 5 or fewer years of experience).

## Analysis of Results from Section Two

### *Overall Findings*

Section Two of the interview consisted of three questions:

- Question 2a: “Which attractions and places do visitors to downtown Raleigh visit? By attractions and places, I mean ‘things to see and do.’ Try to list the top 10, in terms of number of visitors, if you can.”
- Question 2b: “Where in Raleigh do people stay when they visit downtown? I’m not asking for your preference on where *you* would stay, but rather your perception of where most visitors stay. Try to list the top 5 properties.”
- Question 2c: “Where do visitors to downtown Raleigh go out to eat and to have drinks? Try to list the top 10 establishments in which you would expect to see visitors to downtown Raleigh eating and drinking.”

A total of 179 sites (attractions/places, lodging properties, restaurants) were mentioned by the 68 respondents in the three questions included in Section Two of the interview.

For each site, the percentage of the total sample and the percentage of each subsample that mentioned the place were calculated.

For Question 2a, the most commonly cited attractions and places were the North Carolina Museum of Natural Sciences (mentioned by 85.3% of the total sample) followed by the North Carolina Museum of History and the North Carolina State Capitol. Table 4.3 summarizes the 13 attractions that were mentioned by at least 15% of all respondents, as well as subsample percentages for each of those 13 attractions and places. In addition, the column labeled “Downtown District Name” indicates the location of the site

based on the Downtown Raleigh Alliance’s (DRA) five downtown districts. (See Appendix C for a table of all attractions mentioned and their respective response rates.) Figures 4.1 through 4.3 provide geographic representations of all attractions and places mentioned in response to Question 2a, for the total sample as well as for the tourism and urban planning subsamples.

Table 4.3

*Most Frequently Cited Attractions/Places in Downtown Raleigh, Overall and by Subsample*

<b>Attraction/Place Name</b>	<b>Downtown District Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
		<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
NC Museum of Natural Sciences	Capital	58	85.3%	38	84.4%	20	87.0%
NC Museum of History	Capital	56	82.4%	37	82.2%	19	82.6%
State Capitol	Capital	43	63.2%	29	64.4%	14	60.9%
Marbles Kids Museum	Moore Square	33	48.5%	17	37.8%	16	69.6%
Progress Energy Center for the Performing Arts	Fayetteville St.	32	47.1%	20	44.4%	12	52.2%
Moore Square	Moore Square	26	38.2%	19	42.2%	7	30.4%
City Market	Moore Square	20	29.4%	12	26.7%	8	34.8%
NC Executive Mansion	Capital	20	29.4%	14	31.1%	6	26.1%
Fayetteville Street	Fayetteville St.	18	26.5%	10	22.2%	8	34.8%
Glenwood South District	Glenwood South	15	22.1%	9	20.0%	6	26.1%
Artspace	Moore Square	11	16.2%	8	17.8%	3	13.0%
NC Legislative Building	Capital	11	16.2%	8	17.8%	3	13.0%
IMAX Theatre at Marbles Kids Museum	Moore Square	11	16.2%	9	20.0%	2	8.7%

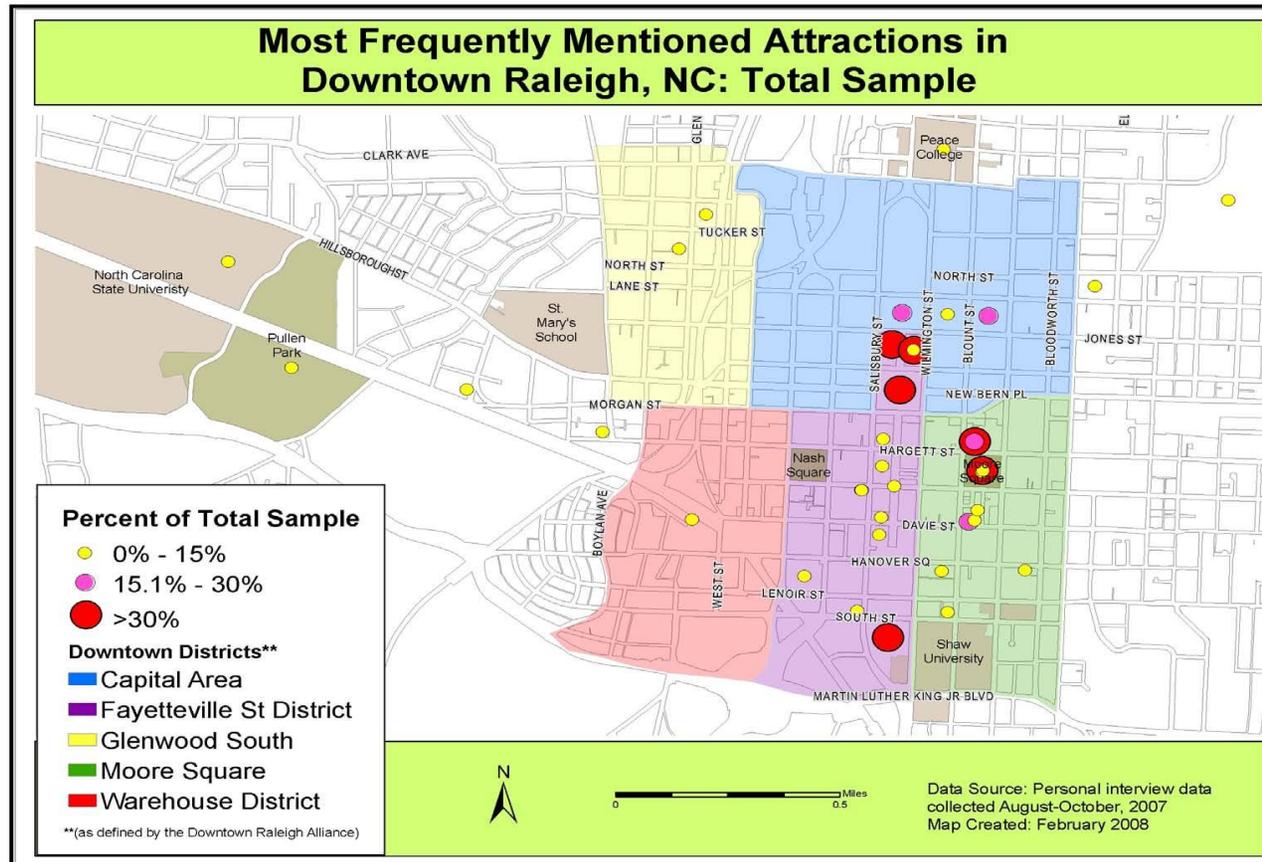


Figure 4.1. Map of the total sample's most frequently mentioned attractions and places in downtown Raleigh, NC

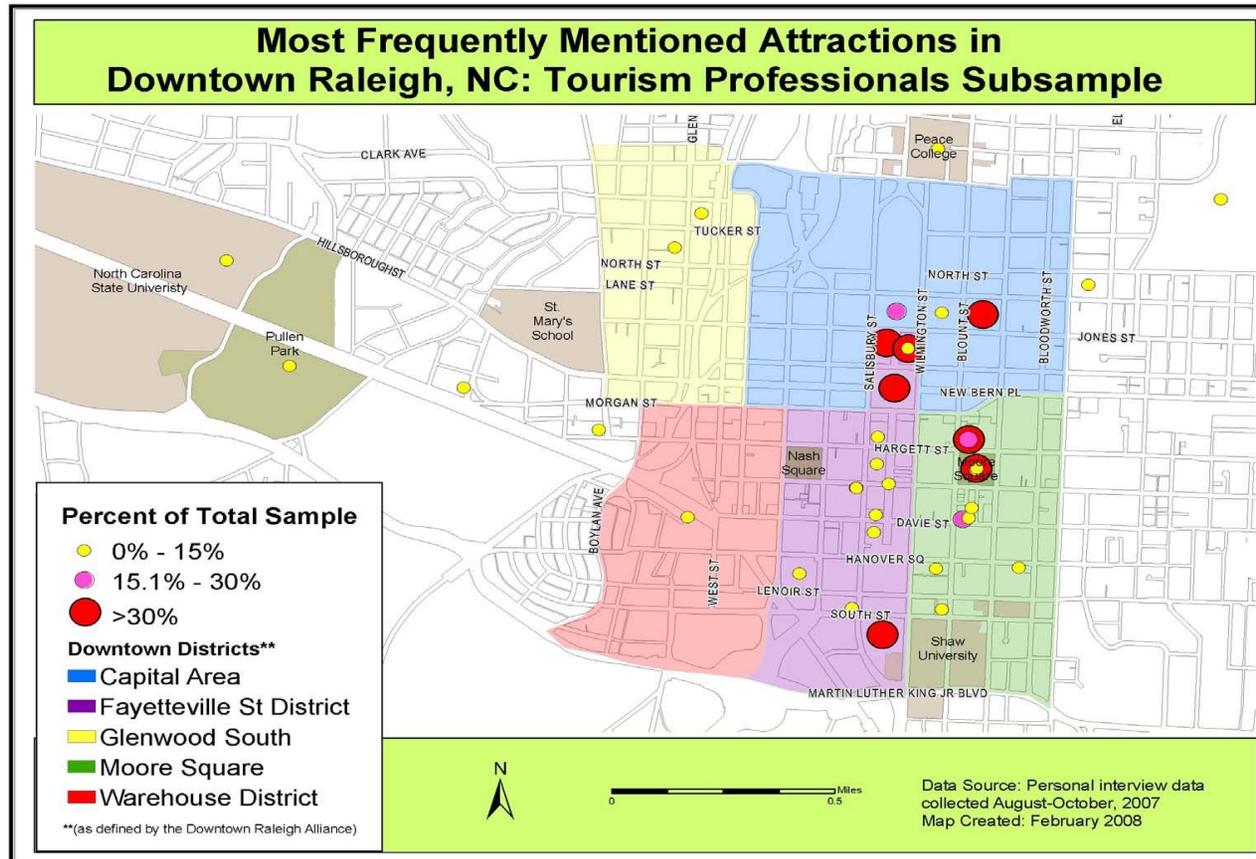


Figure 4.2. Map of the tourism subsample's most frequently mentioned attractions and places in downtown Raleigh, NC

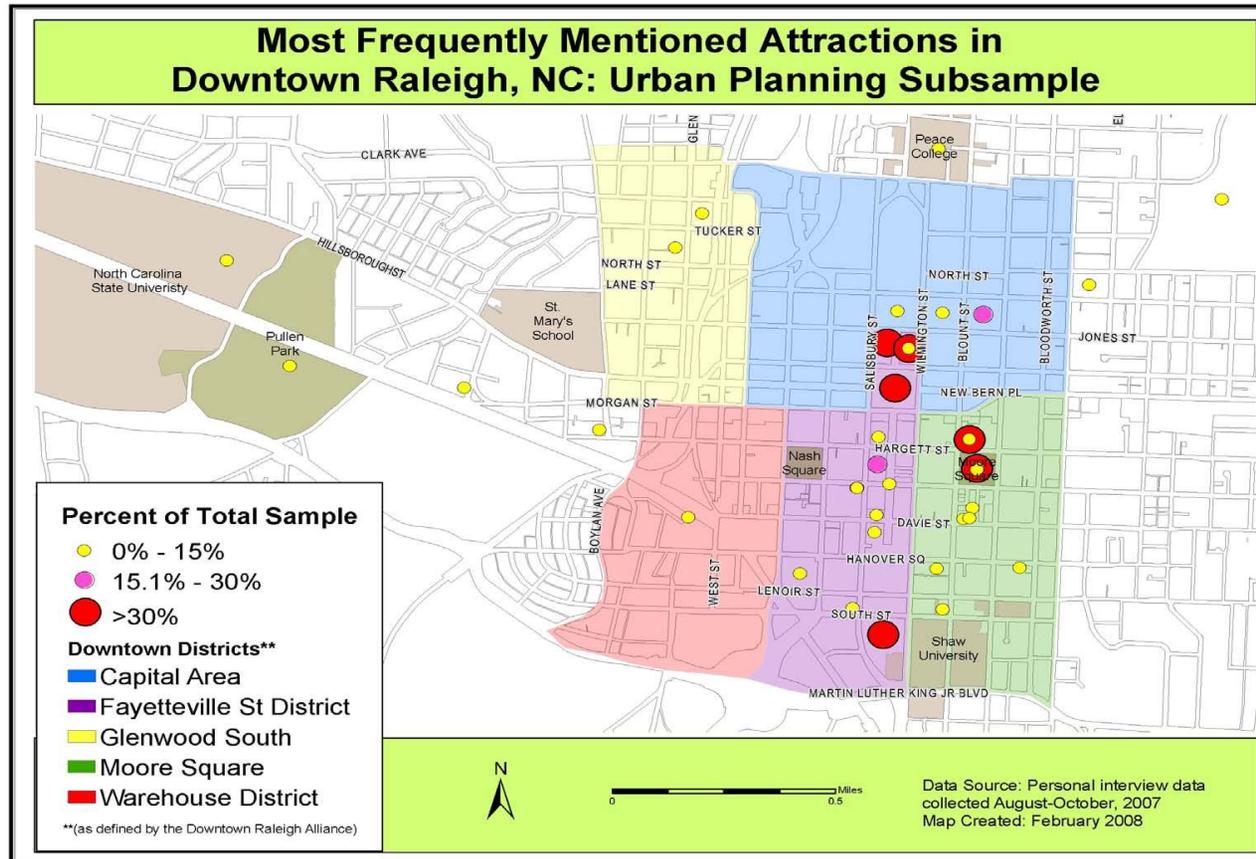


Figure 4.3. Map of the urban planning subsample's most frequently mentioned attractions and places in downtown Raleigh, NC

For Question 2b, the most commonly cited lodging property was the Sheraton Raleigh, mentioned by 89.7% of the total sample. Table 4.4 summarizes the six lodging properties that were mentioned by at least 15% of all respondents, as well as subsample percentages for those six lodging properties. (See Appendix D for a table of all accommodations mentioned and their respective response rates.) Figures 4.4 through 4.6 provide geographic representations of all lodging properties mentioned in response to Question 2b, for the total sample as well as for the tourism and urban planning subsamples.

Table 4.4

*Most Frequently Cited Lodging Properties for Visitors to Downtown Raleigh, Overall and by Subsample*

<b>Lodging Property Name</b>	<b>Downtown District Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (N = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
		<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
Sheraton Raleigh	Fayetteville St.	61	89.7%	40	88.9%	21	91.3%
Clarion Raleigh, State Capital	Capital	47	69.1%	31	68.9%	16	69.6%
Marriott Crabtree	n/a	27	39.7%	18	40.0%	9	39.1%
Hilton North Raleigh	n/a	19	27.9%	15	33.3%	4	17.4%
Holiday Inn Brownstone-Raleigh	n/a	16	23.5%	15	33.3%	1	4.3%
Days Inn Downtown	Capital	11	16.2%	5	11.1%	6	26.1%

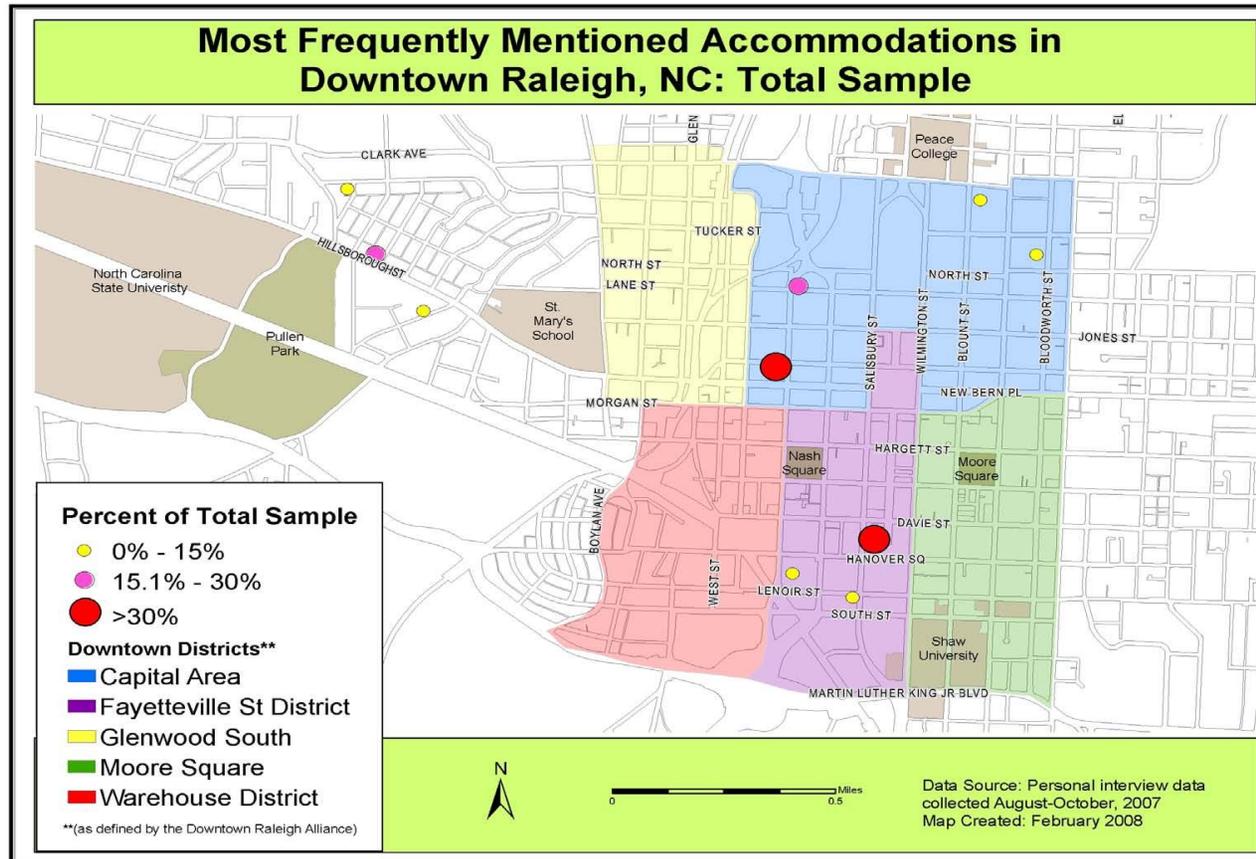


Figure 4.4. Map of the total sample's most frequently mentioned accommodations in downtown Raleigh, NC

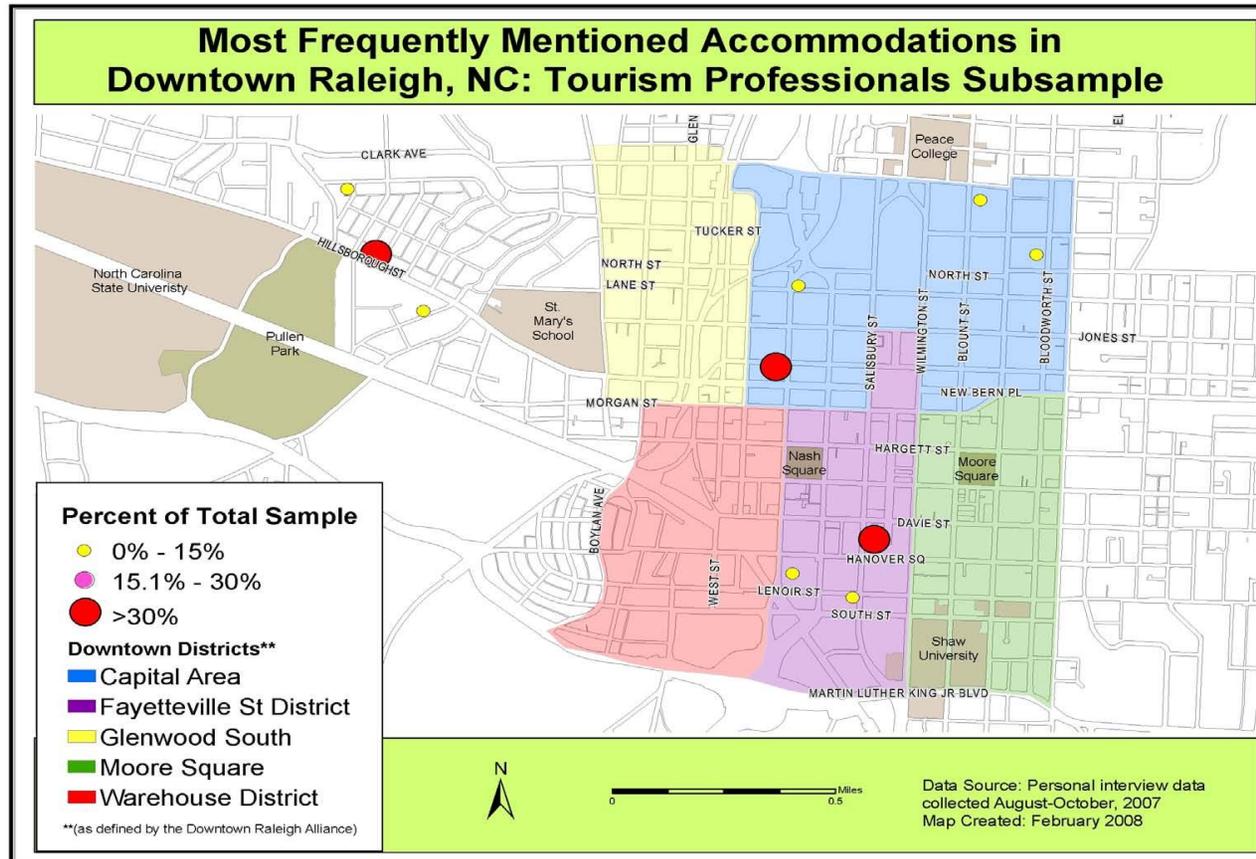


Figure 4.5. Map of the tourism subsample's most frequently mentioned accommodations in downtown Raleigh, NC

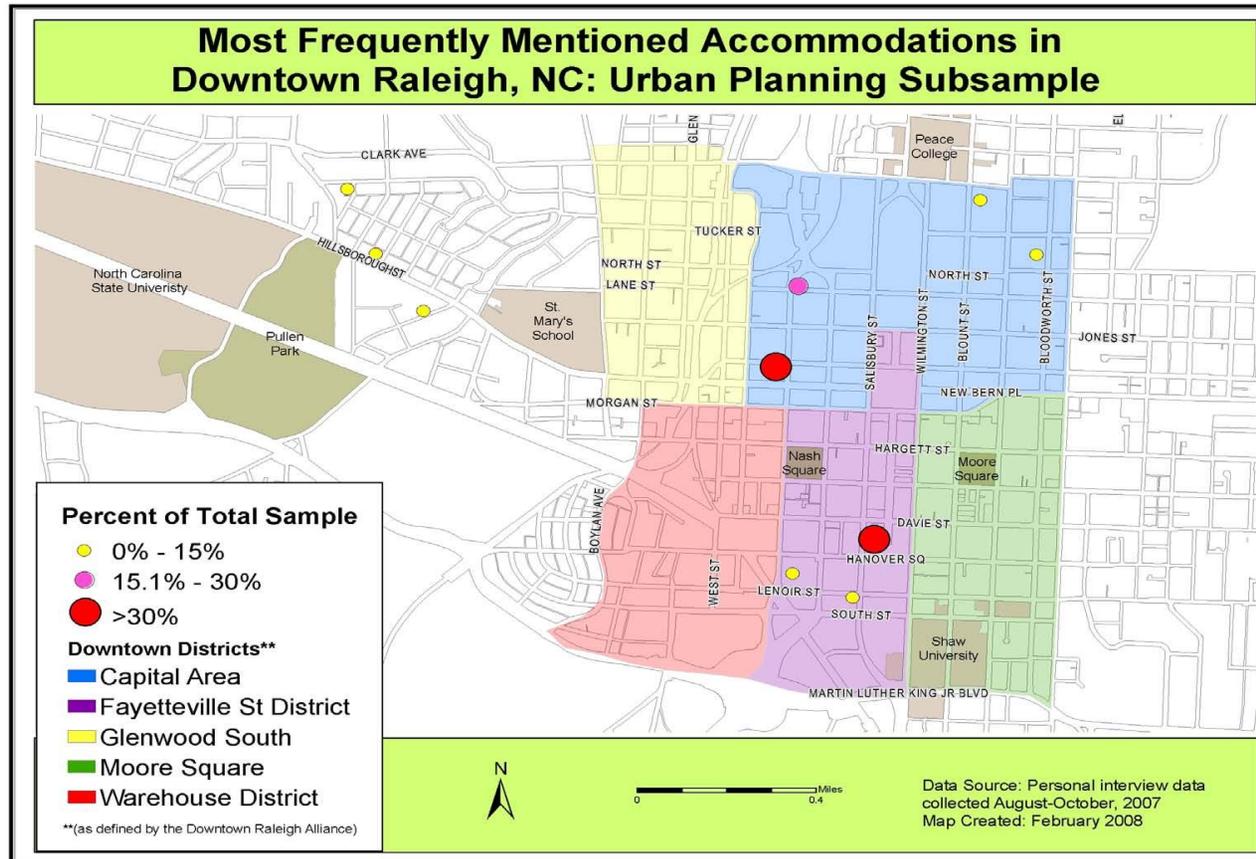


Figure 4.6. Map of the urban planning subsample's most frequently mentioned accommodations in downtown Raleigh, NC

For Question 2c, the two most commonly cited restaurants were Sullivan's Steakhouse and the 42<sup>nd</sup> Street Oyster Bar and Seafood Grill, each of which was mentioned by 48.5% of the total sample. Table 4.5 summarizes the 17 restaurants that were mentioned by at least 15% of all respondents, as well as subsample percentages for those 17 restaurants. (See Appendix E for a table of all restaurants mentioned and their respective response rates.) Figures 4.7 through 4.9 provide geographic representations of all restaurants mentioned in response to Question 2c, for the total sample as well as for the tourism and urban planning subsamples.

Table 4.5

*Most Frequently Cited Restaurants in Downtown Raleigh, Overall and by Subsample*

<b>Restaurant Name</b>	<b>Downtown District Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
		<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
42nd St. Oyster Bar & Seafood Grill	Glenwood South	33	48.5%	25	55.6%	8	34.8%
Sullivan's Steakhouse	Glenwood South	33	48.5%	22	48.9%	11	47.8%
Yancy's	Fayetteville St.	31	45.6%	16	35.6%	15	65.2%
518 West Italian Café	Glenwood South	29	42.6%	23	51.1%	6	26.1%
Caffé Luna	Moore Square	27	39.7%	19	42.2%	8	34.8%
Big Easy	Fayetteville St.	22	32.4%	12	26.7%	10	43.5%
Big Ed's City Market Restaurant	Moore Square	20	29.4%	12	26.7%	8	34.8%
Bogart's	Glenwood South	20	29.4%	14	31.1%	6	26.1%
The Duck & Dumpling	Moore Square	19	27.9%	14	31.1%	5	21.7%
Tir Na Nog Irish Pub & Restaurant	Moore Square	18	26.5%	14	31.1%	4	17.4%
Nana's Chophouse (closed Nov. 2007)	Warehouse	17	25.0%	9	20.0%	8	34.8%
Second Empire	Capital	17	25.0%	10	22.2%	7	30.4%
Raleigh Times Bar	Fayetteville St.	15	22.1%	9	20.0%	6	26.1%
Hibernian Pub	Glenwood South	14	20.6%	9	20.0%	5	21.7%
Glenwood South District	Glenwood South	11	16.2%	10	22.2%	1	4.3%
Hi5 Sports Restaurant and Bar	Glenwood South	11	16.2%	7	15.6%	4	17.4%
Red Room Tapas Lounge	Glenwood South	11	16.2%	7	15.6%	4	17.4%

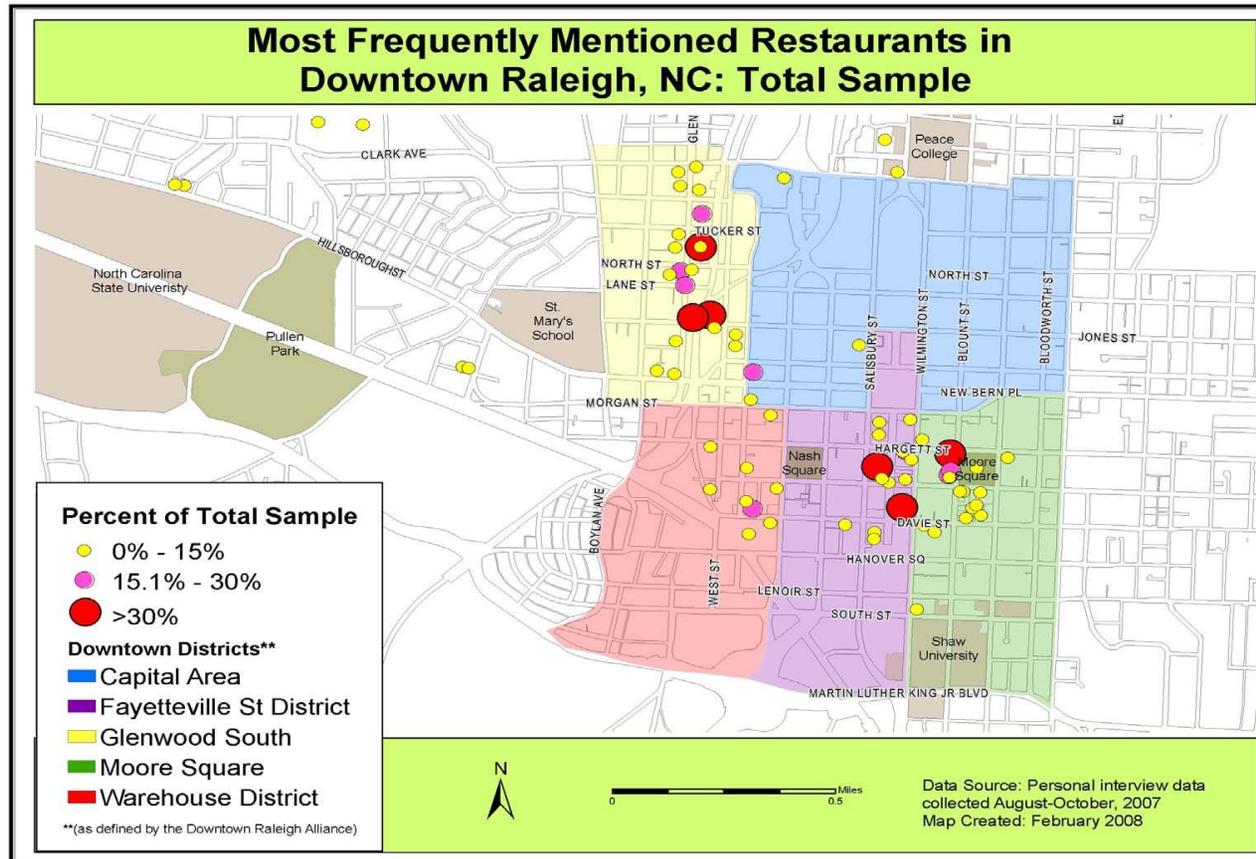


Figure 4.7. Map of the total sample's most frequently mentioned restaurants in downtown Raleigh, NC

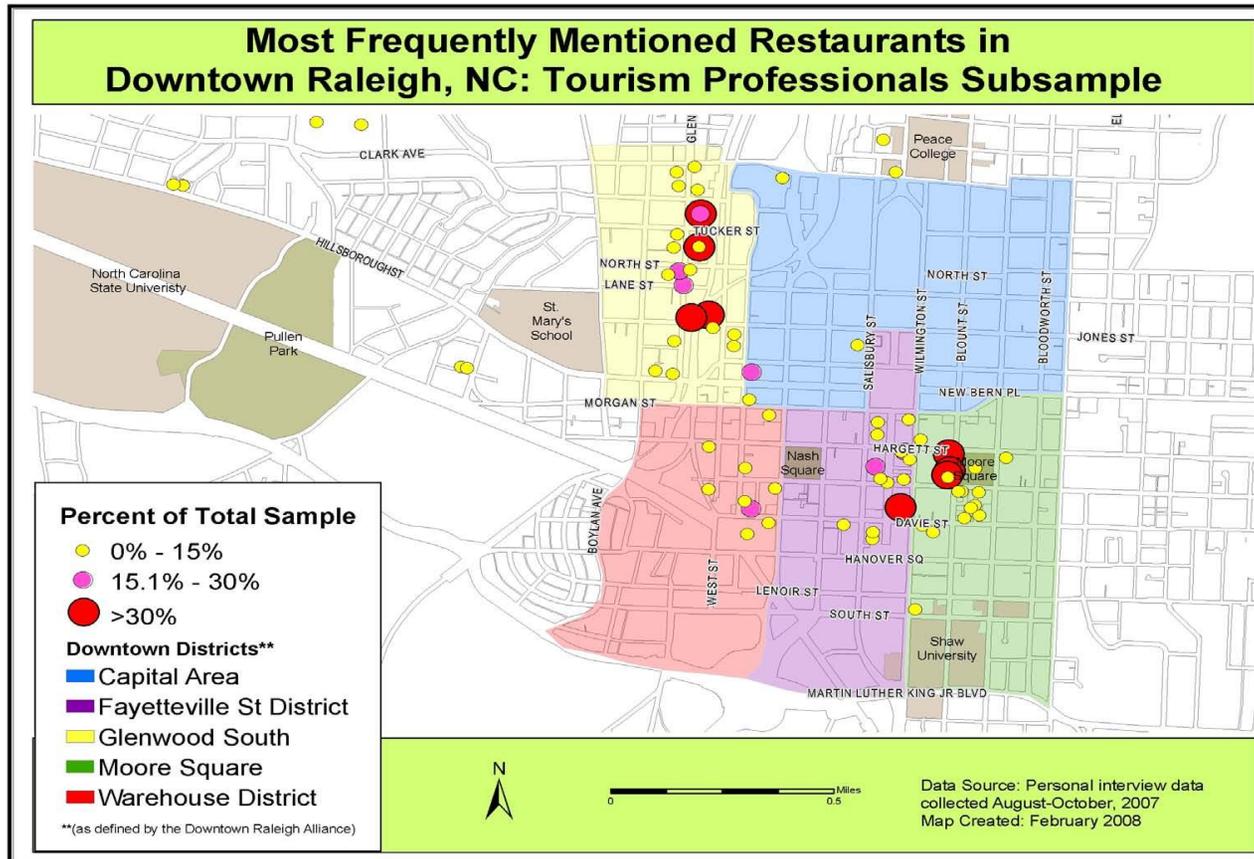


Figure 4.8. Map of the tourism subsample's most frequently mentioned restaurants in downtown Raleigh, NC

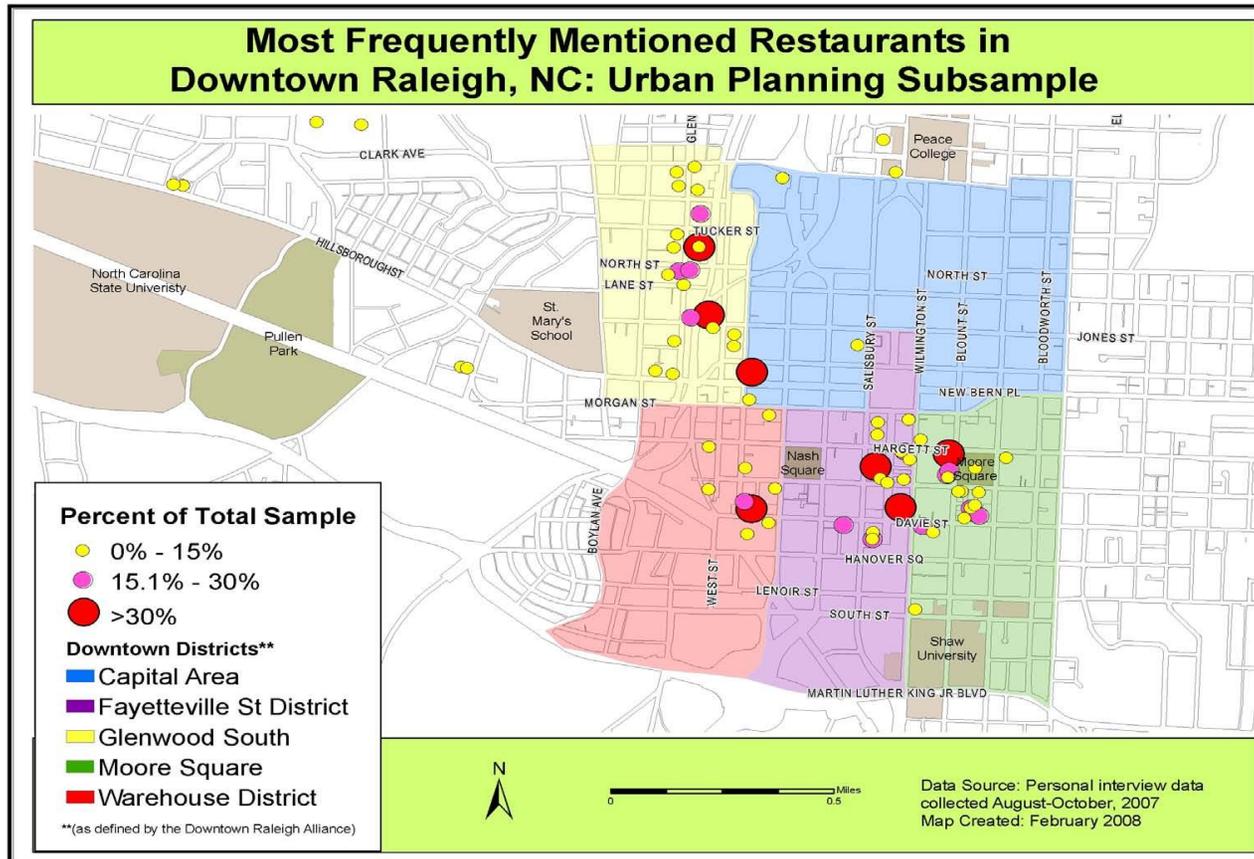


Figure 4.9. Map of the urban planning subsample's most frequently mentioned restaurants in downtown Raleigh, NC

### *Differences Between Subsamples on Perceptions of Most-Visited Sites*

One of the goals of this study was to detect whether differences existed between the tourism and urban planning subsamples in their perceptions of the spatial distribution of downtown Raleigh's tourism offerings. Overall, the two subsamples had similar response patterns. To illustrate, out of all 179 sites mentioned in Section Two of the interview, 149 had subsample response percentage differences within 10%. Of these 149 sites, 119 had response percentage differences within 5%.

However, there were 30 sites where there was at least a 10% difference in the response rate between the two subsamples, displayed in Tables 4.6 and 4.7. Table 4.6 includes the 19 sites that were mentioned 10% or more frequently by the urban planning subsample than the tourism subsample, while Table 4.7 includes the 11 sites that were mentioned 10% or more frequently by the tourism subsample than the urban planning subsample.

Of the 19 sites listed in Table 4.6, the majority (15 of 19, or 78.9%) are restaurants. All 19 sites fall within the boundaries of the downtown business improvement district (BID) as defined by the DRA. Only one site, Fayetteville Street, is a general area of the city as opposed to a fixed establishment.

Table 4.6

*Sites Mentioned 10% or More Frequently by Urban Planning Subsample than Tourism Subsample*

<i>Place Name</i>	<i>Downtown District</i>	<i>Type of Site</i>	<i>Total Sample (n = 68)</i>		<i>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</i>		<i>Urban Planning Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</i>		<i>Percentage Difference Between Subsamples (%n<sub>2</sub> - %n<sub>1</sub>)</i>
			<i>#</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>#</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>#</i>	<i>%</i>	
Marbles Kids Museum	Moore Square	Attraction	33	48.5%	17	37.8%	16	69.6%	<b>31.8%</b>
Yancy's	Fayetteville St.	Restaurant	31	45.6%	16	35.6%	15	65.2%	<b>29.6%</b>
Humble Pie	Warehouse	Restaurant	4	5.9%	0	0.0%	4	17.4%	<b>17.4%</b>
Rockford	Glenwood South	Restaurant	4	5.9%	0	0.0%	4	17.4%	<b>17.4%</b>
Woody's at City Market	Moore Square	Restaurant	7	10.3%	2	4.4%	5	21.7%	<b>17.3%</b>
Cooper's Barbeque & Catering	Moore Square	Restaurant	10	14.7%	4	8.9%	6	26.1%	<b>17.2%</b>
Big Easy	Fayetteville St.	Restaurant	22	32.4%	12	26.7%	10	43.5%	<b>16.8%</b>
Days Inn Downtown	Capital	Lodging Property	11	16.2%	5	11.1%	6	26.1%	<b>15.0%</b>
Nana's Chophouse (closed Nov. 2007)	Warehouse	Restaurant	17	25.0%	9	20.0%	8	34.8%	<b>14.8%</b>
Zydeco Downtown	Moore Square	Restaurant	3	4.4%	0	0.0%	3	13.0%	<b>13.0%</b>
Sheraton Bar and Restaurant	Fayetteville St.	Restaurant	6	8.8%	2	4.4%	4	17.4%	<b>13.0%</b>
Vic's Ristorante Italiano	Moore Square	Restaurant	6	8.8%	2	4.4%	4	17.4%	<b>13.0%</b>
Fayetteville Street	Fayetteville St.	Attraction	18	26.5%	10	22.2%	8	34.8%	<b>12.6%</b>
April and George	Glenwood South	Restaurant	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%	<b>10.8%</b>
Capital City Club	Fayetteville St.	Restaurant	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%	<b>10.8%</b>
Cardinal Club	Fayetteville St.	Restaurant	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%	<b>10.8%</b>
Riviera Resto and Lounge	Moore Square	Restaurant	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%	<b>10.8%</b>
Raleigh City Museum	Fayetteville St.	Attraction	7	10.3%	3	6.7%	4	17.4%	<b>10.7%</b>
Fins	Fayetteville St.	Restaurant	7	10.3%	3	6.7%	4	17.4%	<b>10.7%</b>

Of the sites listed in Table 4.7, over half (6 of 11, or 54.5%) are attractions. Different from Table 4.6, 4 of the 11 sites in Table 4.7 fall outside of the boundaries of the downtown BID. In addition, three of the six attractions listed more frequently by the tourism subsample – Moore Square, Oakwood Historic District, and Glenwood South – are general areas of downtown rather than specific sites.

Table 4.7

*Sites Mentioned 10% or More Frequently by Tourism Subsample than Urban Planning Subsample*

<b>Place Name</b>	<b>Downtown District Name</b>	<b>Type of Site</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>		<b>Percentage Difference Between Subsamples (%n<sub>1</sub> - % n<sub>2</sub>)</b>
			<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	
Holiday Inn Brownstone-Raleigh	n/a	Lodging Property	16	23.5%	15	33.3%	1	4.3%	<b>29.0%</b>
518 West Italian Café	Glenwood South	Restaurant	29	42.6%	23	51.1%	6	26.1%	<b>25.0%</b>
42nd St. Oyster Bar & Seafood Grill	Glenwood South	Restaurant	33	48.5%	25	55.6%	8	34.8%	<b>20.8%</b>
Glenwood South	Glenwood South	Attraction	11	16.2%	10	22.2%	1	4.3%	<b>17.9%</b>
Hilton North Raleigh	n/a	Lodging Property	19	27.9%	15	33.3%	4	17.4%	<b>15.9%</b>
Tir Na Nog Irish Pub & Restaurant	Moore Square	Restaurant	18	26.5%	14	31.1%	4	17.4%	<b>13.7%</b>
Oakwood Historic District	Capital	Attraction	6	8.8%	6	13.3%	0	0.0%	<b>13.3%</b>
Moore Square	Moore Square	Attraction	26	38.2%	19	42.2%	7	30.4%	<b>11.8%</b>
IMAX Theatre at Marbles Kids Museum	Moore Square	Attraction	11	16.2%	9	20.0%	2	8.7%	<b>11.3%</b>
NC State University Campus	n/a	Attraction	5	7.4%	5	11.1%	0	0.0%	<b>11.1%</b>
Pullen Park	n/a	Attraction	5	7.4%	5	11.1%	0	0.0%	<b>11.1%</b>

In terms of museums, the IMAX Theater at Marbles Kids Museum was mentioned more frequently by the tourism subsample ( $\Delta = 11.1\%$ ), while the adjacent Marbles Kids Museum was mentioned more frequently by the urban planning subsample ( $\Delta = 31.8\%$ ). The Raleigh City Museum was also mentioned more frequently by the urban planning subsample than the tourism subsample ( $\Delta = 10.7\%$ ). These differences will be addressed in Chapter 5.

### Analysis of Results from Section Three

#### *Overall Findings on Perceptions of Downtown Raleigh's Outer Boundaries*

In Section Three of the interview, respondents were asked to consider 21 well-known places, most of which are located on the periphery of the downtown BID, and indicate whether they considered each place to be in downtown Raleigh, responding with “yes,” “no,” “maybe,” or “I don’t know.” A summary of the responses for all 21 peripheral places is provided in Table 4.8. In addition, results for those places that were considered to be in downtown Raleigh (i.e., the “yes” responses) are displayed spatially in Figures 4.10 through 4.12.

Table 4.8

*Respondents' Perceptions of Peripheral Places: Responses from Each Subsample and Overall*

<i>Peripheral Place Name</i>	<i>Response Categories</i>							
	Downtown		Not Downtown		Maybe Downtown		I Don't Know	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
<b>Cameron Village</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	12	26.7%	29	64.4%	4	8.9%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	0	0.0%	23	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	12	17.6%	52	76.5%	4	5.9%	0	0.0%
<b>Rialto Theater at Five Points</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	10	22.2%	31	68.9%	3	6.7%	1	2.2%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	0	0.0%	20	87.0%	2	8.7%	1	4.3%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	10	14.7%	51	75.0%	5	7.4%	2	2.9%
<b>Central YMCA</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	21	46.7%	17	37.8%	4	8.9%	3	6.7%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	5	21.7%	16	69.6%	0	0.0%	2	8.7%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	26	38.2%	33	48.5%	4	5.9%	5	7.4%
<b>Peace College</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	38	84.4%	4	8.9%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	20	87.0%	2	8.7%	1	4.3%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	58	85.3%	6	8.8%	4	5.9%	0	0.0%
<b>WakeMed (Raleigh Campus)</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	1	2.2%	41	91.1%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	0	0.0%	23	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	1	1.5%	64	94.1%	3	4.4%	0	0.0%
<b>NC State University (main campus)</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	15	33.3%	28	62.2%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	3	13.0%	19	82.6%	1	4.3%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	18	26.5%	47	69.1%	3	4.4%	0	0.0%

Table 4.8 (continued)

<i>Peripheral Place Name</i>	<i>Response Categories</i>							
	Downtown		Not Downtown		Maybe Downtown		I Don't Know	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
<b>North Carolina State Farmer's Market</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	5	11.1%	36	80.0%	3	6.7%	1	2.2%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	2	8.7%	21	91.3%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	7	10.3%	57	83.8%	3	4.4%	1	1.5%
<b>Pullen Park</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	18	40.0%	24	53.3%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	2	8.7%	18	78.3%	3	13.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	20	29.4%	42	61.8%	6	8.8%	0	0.0%
<b>Dorothea Dix Hospital property</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	14	31.1%	27	60.0%	4	8.9%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	6	26.1%	13	56.5%	4	17.4%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	20	29.4%	40	58.8%	8	11.8%	0	0.0%
<b>North Hills Mall</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	1	2.2%	44	97.8%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	0	0.0%	23	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	1	1.5%	67	98.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
<b>Krispy Kreme Donuts</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	39	86.7%	4	8.9%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	22	95.7%	1	4.3%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	61	89.7%	5	7.4%	2	2.9%	0	0.0%
<b>Walnut Creek Amphitheatre</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	0	0.0%	43	95.6%	0	0.0%	2	4.4%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	1	4.3%	22	95.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	1	1.5%	65	95.6%	0	0.0%	2	2.9%

Table 4.8 (continued)

<i>Peripheral Place Name</i>	<i>Response Categories</i>							
	Downtown		Not Downtown		Maybe Downtown		I Don't Know	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
<b>RBC Center</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	0	0.0%	45	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	1	4.3%	22	95.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	1	1.5%	67	98.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
<b>North Carolina Museum of Art</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 44$ )	3	6.8%	41	93.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	4	17.4%	18	78.3%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Overall ( $n = 67$ )	7	10.4%	59	88.1%	0	0.0%	1	1.5%
<b>Glenwood South</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	41	91.1%	1	2.2%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	22	95.7%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	63	92.6%	1	1.5%	4	5.9%	0	0.0%
<b>Crabtree Valley Mall</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	0	0.0%	45	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	0	0.0%	23	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	0	0.0%	68	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
<b>Shaw University</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	41	91.1%	2	4.4%	1	2.2%	1	2.2%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	23	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	64	94.1%	2	2.9%	1	1.5%	1	1.5%
<b>Meredith College</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	6	13.3%	37	82.2%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	3	13.0%	19	82.6%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	9	13.2%	56	82.4%	2	2.9%	1	1.5%

Table 4.8 (continued)

<i>Peripheral Place Name</i>	<i>Response Categories</i>							
	Downtown		Not Downtown		Maybe Downtown		I Don't Know	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
<b>North Carolina State Fairgrounds</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	0	0.0%	43	95.6%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	0	0.0%	23	100.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	0	0.0%	66	97.1%	2	2.9%	0	0.0%
<b>Charlie Goodnight's / Irregardless</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	29	64.4%	10	22.2%	4	8.9%	2	4.4%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	11	47.8%	9	39.1%	2	8.7%	1	4.3%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	40	58.8%	19	27.9%	6	8.8%	3	4.4%
<b>St. Augustine's College</b>								
Tourism Subsample ( $n_1 = 45$ )	23	51.1%	13	28.9%	3	6.7%	6	13.3%
Urban Planning Subsample ( $n_2 = 23$ )	10	43.5%	10	43.5%	3	13.0%	0	0.0%
Overall ( $n = 68$ )	33	48.5%	23	33.8%	6	8.8%	6	8.8%

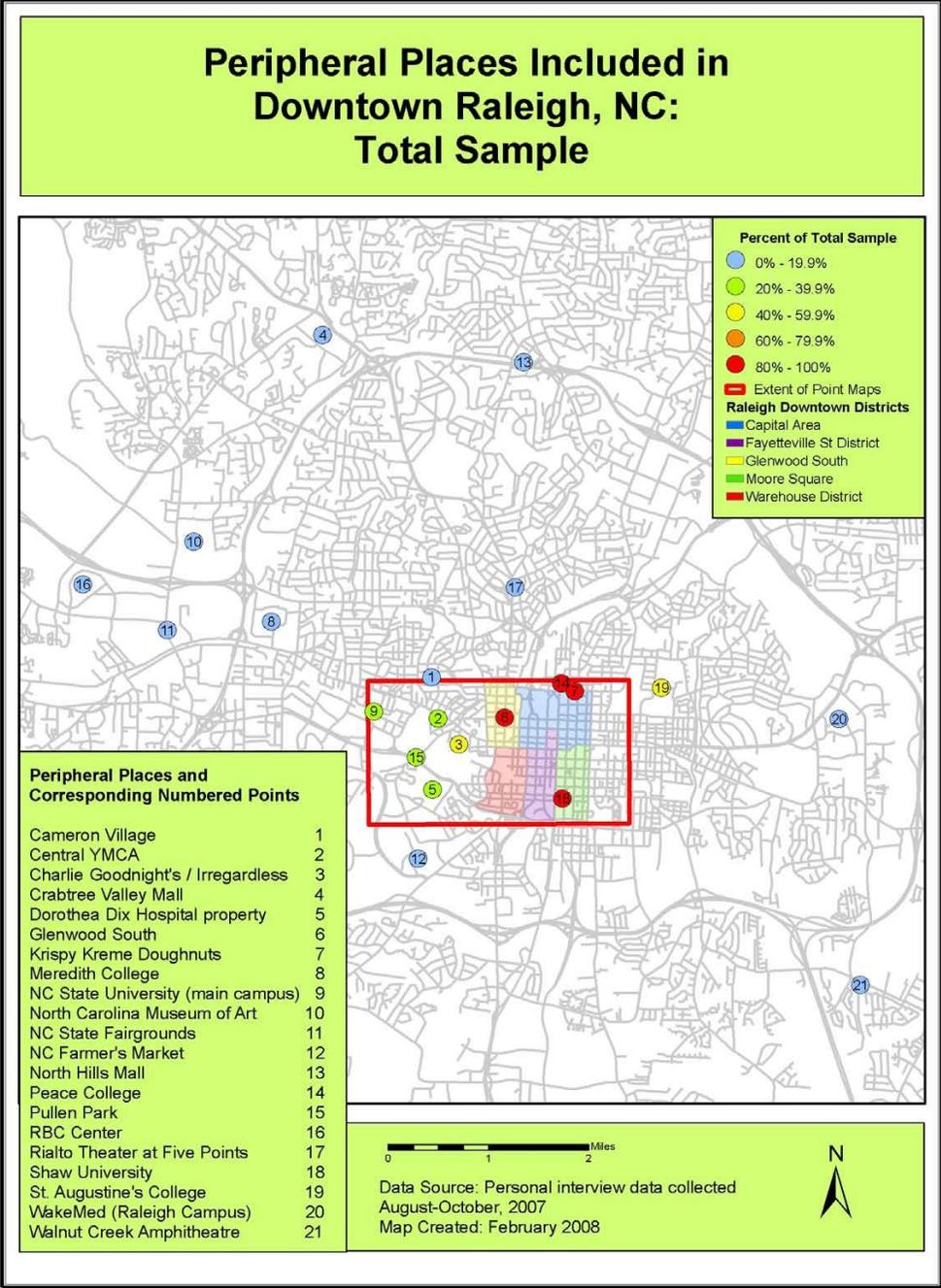


Figure 4.10. Map of peripheral places included in downtown Raleigh, NC: Total sample

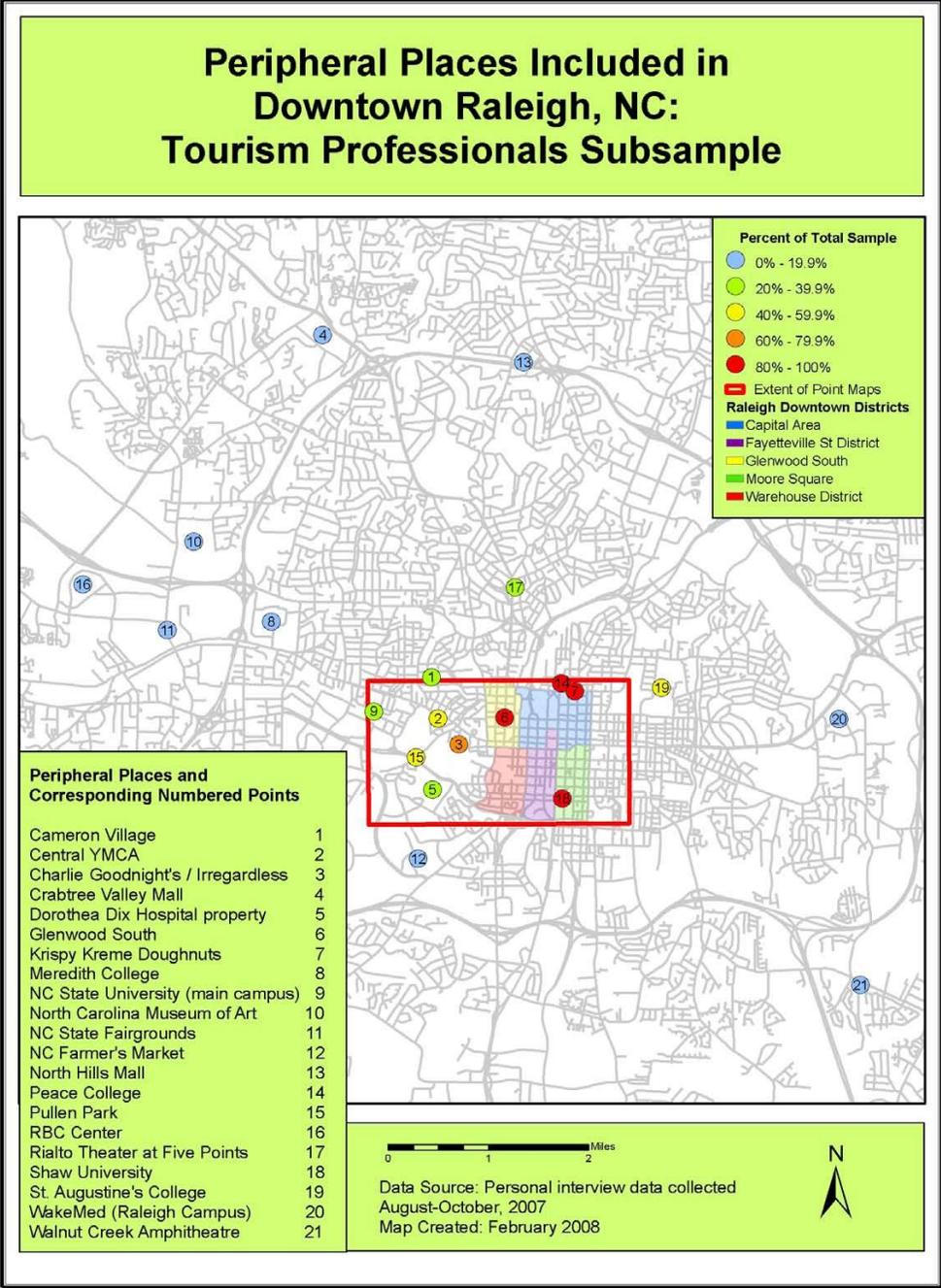


Figure 4.11. Map of peripheral places included in downtown Raleigh, NC: Tourism subsample

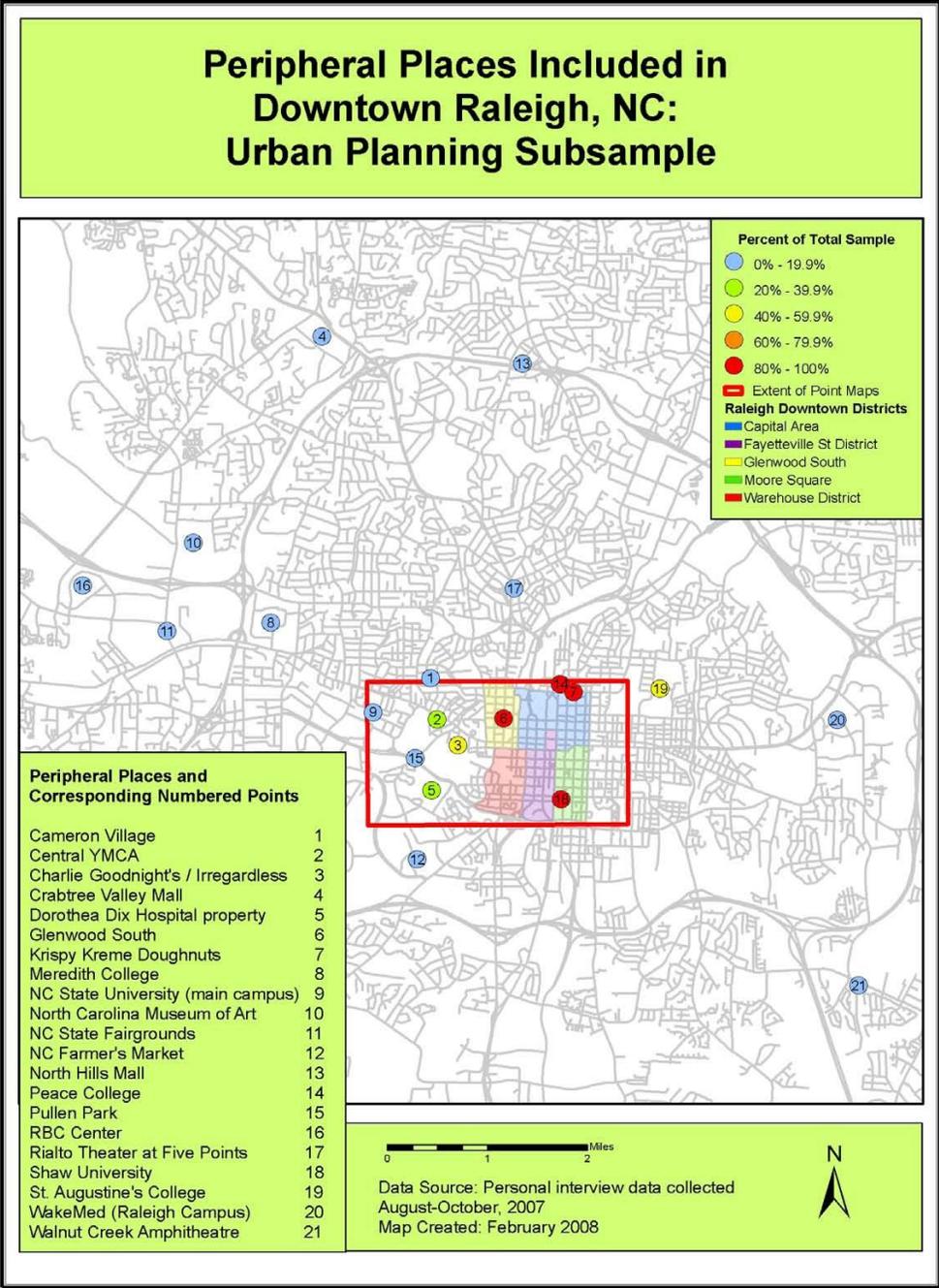


Figure 4.12. Map of peripheral places included in downtown Raleigh, NC: Urban planning subsample

Among all respondents, the four places that were most often considered downtown (i.e., the places that received the highest percentage of “yes” responses) were: Shaw University (94.1%), Glenwood South (92.6%), Krispy Kreme Doughnuts (89.7%), and Peace College (85.3%). These four places are represented as large red dots in Figures 4.10 through 4.12.

Within the tourism subsample, the same four places received the highest percentage of “yes” responses: Shaw University (91.1%), Glenwood South (91.1%), Krispy Kreme Doughnuts (86.7%), and Peace College (84.4%). The urban planning subsample also considered these four places to be downtown: Shaw University (100%), Glenwood South (95.7%), Krispy Kreme Doughnuts (95.7%), and Peace College (87.0%). Their percentages were slightly higher than the tourism subsample.

Among all respondents, the places that received the highest percentage of “no” responses were: Crabtree Valley Mall (100%), the RBC Center (98.5%), North Hills Mall (98.5%), the North Carolina State Fairgrounds (97.1%), and Walnut Creek Amphitheatre (95.6%). Within the urban planning subsample, there were five places that received a “no” response from 100% of the respondents: Cameron Village, WakeMed (Raleigh Campus), North Hills Mall, Crabtree Valley Mall, and the North Carolina State Fairgrounds. These results indicated a consensus among the urban planning subsample; all 23 respondents considered these five places to be outside of downtown Raleigh. Within the tourism subsample, only two places – the RBC Center and Crabtree Valley

Mall – received a “no” response from 100% of the respondents. Other peripheral places that were not considered to be downtown within the tourism subsample were: North Hills Mall (97.8%), the North Carolina State Fairgrounds (95.6%), and Walnut Creek Amphitheatre (95.6%).

Among all respondents, the places that received the highest percentage of “maybe” responses were Dorothea Dix Hospital property (11.8%), Pullen Park (8.8%), Charlie Goodnight’s / Irregardless (8.8%), and St. Augustine’s College (8.8%). There were four places for which 8.9% of the tourism subsample indicated a response of “maybe” downtown: Cameron Village, Central YMCA, Dorothea Dix Hospital property, and Charlie Goodnight’s / Irregardless. The urban planning subsample had higher response rates than the tourism subsample in the “maybe” category. The five places that received the highest percentage of “maybe” responses within the urban planning subsample were: Dorothea Dix Hospital property (17.4%), St. Augustine’s College (13.0%), Pullen Park (13.0%), Charlie Goodnight’s / Irregardless (8.7%), and the Rialto Theater at Five Points (8.7%).

Of the four response options, respondents were least likely to indicate “I don’t know” as a response for all of the peripheral places. Among the total sample, the places that received the highest percentage of “I don’t know” responses were St. Augustine’s College (8.8%) and the Central YMCA (7.4%). Within the tourism subsample, these same two places received the highest percentage of “I don’t know” responses, with 13.3% of

the subsample indicating “I don’t know” for St. Augustine’s College and 6.7% of the subsample indicating “I don’t know” for the Central YMCA. Within the urban planning subsample, only one peripheral place, the Central YMCA, received a response of “I don’t know” from more than one respondent (8.7%, or 2 of 23 respondents).

#### *Differences Between Subsamples on Perceptions of Downtown Raleigh’s Boundaries*

Differences in response rates were found between the two subsamples for each of the four response categories: yes, no, maybe, and I don’t know. The tourism subsample was more likely to consider a place to be downtown than the urban planning subsample. To illustrate, across all 21 places, the average percentage of “yes” responses for the tourism subsample was 33.5%, while the average percentage for the urban planning subsample was 27.9%, for a difference of 5.6%.

Another average percentage was calculated after removing the six places which were considered to be downtown by fewer than two respondents: WakeMed (Raleigh Campus), North Hills Mall, Walnut Creek Amphitheatre, RBC Center, Crabtree Valley Mall, and the North Carolina State Fairgrounds. For the total sample, the average percentage of “yes” responses across the remaining 15 places (all of which had a total percentage greater than 10%) was 43.0%. The average percentage for the tourism subsample was 46.7%, while the average percentage for the urban planning subsample was 38.6%, for a difference of 8.1%. Both of these average “yes” response percentage

calculations indicate that the tourism subsample was slightly more likely to consider a place to be downtown than the urban planning subsample.

Overall, 12 peripheral places had a higher percentage of “yes” respondents from the tourism subsample, and 7 peripheral places had a higher percentage of “yes” respondents from the urban planning subsample. As indicated earlier in the chapter, two peripheral places were considered downtown by none of the respondents. (See Table 4.9 for subsample differences for all 21 peripheral places.)

Looking more closely at these differences, six places were more often considered downtown by the tourism subsample than the urban planning subsample by a difference of at least 15%. These places were: Pullen Park, Cameron Village, Central YMCA, Rialto Theatre at Five Points, North Carolina State University’s main campus, and Charlie Goodnight’s / Irregardless. The average percentage difference for the 12 places more often considered downtown by the tourism subsample was 13.5%, and the maximum percentage difference was 31.3%. In contrast, the percentage differences were smaller for those places more often considered downtown by the urban planning subsample than the tourism subsample, with an average percentage difference of only 6.3% and a maximum percentage difference of 10.6%.

Table 4.9 Number and Percentage of Respondents from Each Subsample Who Considered Peripheral Places to be Downtown

<i>Peripheral Place Name</i>	<i>Total Sample (n = 68)</i>		<i>Tourism subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</i>		<i>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</i>		<i>Percentage Difference Between Subsamples (%n<sub>1</sub> - % n<sub>2</sub>)</i>
	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>%</i>	
Pullen Park	20	29.4%	18	40.0%	2	8.7%	31.3%
Cameron Village	12	17.6%	12	26.7%	0	0.0%	26.7%
Central YMCA	26	38.2%	21	46.7%	5	21.7%	25.0%
Rialto Theater at Five Points	10	14.7%	10	22.2%	0	0.0%	22.2%
NC State University (main campus)	18	26.5%	15	33.3%	3	13.0%	20.3%
Charlie Goodnight's / Irregardless	40	58.8%	29	64.4%	11	47.8%	16.6%
St. Augustine's College	33	48.5%	23	51.1%	10	43.5%	7.6%
Dorothea Dix Hospital property	20	29.4%	14	31.1%	6	26.1%	5.0%
North Carolina State Farmer's Market	7	10.3%	5	11.1%	2	8.7%	2.4%
WakeMed (Raleigh Campus)	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%	2.2%
North Hills Mall	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%	2.2%
Meredith College	9	13.2%	6	13.3%	3	13.0%	0.3%
Crabtree Valley Mall	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0.0%
North Carolina State Fairgrounds	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0.0%
Peace College	58	85.3%	38	84.4%	20	87.0%	-2.6%
Walnut Creek Amphitheatre	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%	-4.3%
RBC Center	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%	-4.3%
Glenwood South	63	92.6%	41	91.1%	22	95.7%	-4.6%
Shaw University	64	94.1%	41	91.1%	23	100.0%	-8.9%
Krispy Kreme Doughnuts	61	89.7%	39	86.7%	22	95.7%	-9.0%
North Carolina Museum of Art	7	10.4%	3	6.8%	4	17.4%	-10.6%

## Summary of Results

In sum, a number of descriptive analyses were conducted on the data.

Comparisons were made between the tourism industry and urban planning subsamples' response frequencies for the following questions: most frequently cited attractions and places, most frequently cited accommodations, most frequently cited restaurants, and perceptions of downtown Raleigh's outer boundaries using peripheral places as indicators. The chapter that follows contains a discussion of these results.

## CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

As addressed in previous chapters, the primary purpose of this study was to design a standardized method for mapping the urban tourist bubble, or a geographic area planned and managed for tourists, using data collected from a sample of tourism and urban planning professionals. These data served as indicators of respondents' perceptions of the urban tourist bubble in downtown Raleigh, North Carolina. Data were displayed geographically using GIS software to detect patterns in respondents' perceptions of the spatial distribution of the urban tourism supply (i.e., attractions & places, accommodations, restaurants) as well as the extent of the perceived boundary around downtown Raleigh. The technique developed in this study to map the urban tourist bubble can be applied to other destinations in future research to improve understanding of the spatial relationships among tourist attractions, restaurants, and lodging properties in cities.

Although some limitations to mapping a contiguous urban tourist bubble exist, the data collected from respondents exposed commonalities and disparities between tourism and urban planning professionals' perceptions of the geographic distribution of tourism activity in downtown Raleigh. In this chapter, these perceptions will be discussed, along with other noteworthy findings, applications and implications of the findings, study limitations, and opportunities for future research.

## Discussion of Results from Interview Section Two

In Section Two of the interview, respondents were asked to generate lists based on their perceptions of the most-visited attractions and places, restaurants, and lodging properties in downtown Raleigh. These data were described in detail in the previous chapter. Spatial representations of these data illustrated how the two subsamples perceived tourism activity in downtown Raleigh.

Among all the sites mentioned in Section Two of the interview, most (83.2%) had subsample response percentage differences within 10%. This finding suggests that the two subsamples had similar overall perceptions of tourism activity in downtown Raleigh, since they generated comparable lists of attractions and places, accommodations, and restaurants where visitors to downtown Raleigh frequent. This response overlap may be a product of the congruence between the vocations of urban planners and tourism professionals. Both urban planners and tourism professionals in Raleigh have a vested interest in the development of the city as an appealing place for people – both local residents and tourists – to spend time (and money). Urban planners aim to maximize the quality of life for local residents, while tourism professionals aim to maximize the experience for visitors to Raleigh. Both professions, however, are concerned with the built, natural, and cultural dimensions of the city which, in combination, give a city its unique sense of place (Hinch, 1996). In fact, Hinch argued that “without this unique character, the attractiveness of a place is reduced and the sustainability of the city and

its tourism function is diminished” (p. 100). The same unique character that attracts residents to a downtown area will also attract tourists. Therefore, protecting this uniqueness is in the best interest of urban planners as well as tourism professionals.

The following three subsections provide a more detailed discussion of the results relating to the sample’s perceptions of the most visited attractions and places, restaurants, and lodging properties in downtown Raleigh.

#### *Perceptions of the Most-Visited Attractions and Places and Implications for Management*

All 13 attractions and places mentioned by at least 15% of the total sample (see Table 4.1) were located within the downtown Raleigh business improvement district (BID). Although the city of Raleigh has many attractions that fall outside of the BID (e.g., North Carolina Museum of Art, North Carolina State Fairgrounds, RBC Center), the general consensus among the sample was that those other Raleigh attractions were not part of the downtown Raleigh set of attractions and places. Therefore, the perceptions of the sample were consistent with the geographic extent of the downtown Raleigh BID. At the end of this chapter, ideas will be presented for future research on the linkages between downtown Raleigh and other area attractions, along with practical recommendations for improving connectivity through transit and signage enhancements.

In the map of the total sample’s perceptions of the most-visited attractions and places (see Figure 4.1), high-frequency responses – represented as large red dots and medium-sized pink dots – were located in two main clusters. The first cluster, spanning

the Capital and Fayetteville Street Districts, consisted of the North Carolina Museum of Natural Sciences, the North Carolina Museum of History, the North Carolina State Capitol, the North Carolina Executive Mansion, and the North Carolina Legislative Building. A smaller cluster of attractions, located in the Moore Square District, consisted of Marbles Kids Museum, Moore Square, City Market, Artspace, and the IMAX Theatre at Marbles Kids Museum. These two clusters could also be interpreted as one larger collection spanning three downtown districts, representing a “family-friendly attraction zone” in downtown Raleigh (see Figure 5.1).

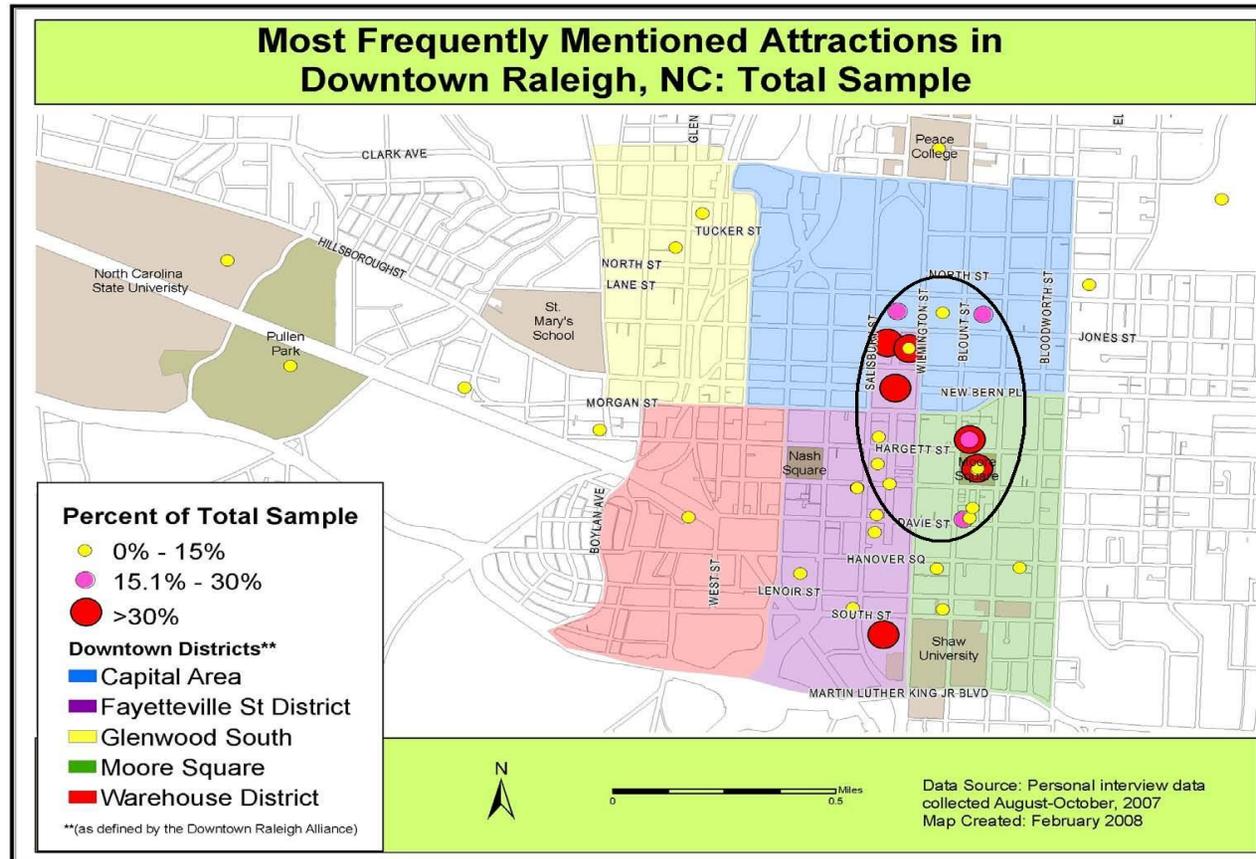


Figure 5.1. Representation of downtown Raleigh’s family-friendly attraction zone, derived from sample data

This collection of attractions, which already draws numerous school groups each year, could be promoted to families, a market segment which sometimes perceives a downtown area as lacking wholesome affordable tourist activities. Specific to Raleigh, one respondent noted: "When 5 o'clock comes and things have closed, there's not a whole lot left to do except restaurants, bars, and plays - nothing to do for kids or teens, such as a movie theater." Negative aspects of an urban tourist destination – such as traffic, inaccessibility, and perceptions of crime – often dissuade families from choosing a city for their vacation destination (Bramwell, 1998). To challenge this misconception, the city of Raleigh could actively promote the walkability and accessibility of the family-friendly attraction zone identified in this study.

Currently, the Downtown Raleigh Alliance (DRA) promotes five distinct downtown districts, whose descriptions lack any mention of families or family-friendly activities (DRA, n.d.). To illustrate, even when the downtown children's museum, Marbles Kids Museum (formerly called Exploris), is listed as a Moore Square District attraction, it is only described as "Exploris." This one-word descriptor does not inform visitors that it is a children's museum. The geographically contiguous collection of family-friendly tourist options identified in this study fills this void and, if properly marketed to families, could attract additional day and overnight visitors to downtown Raleigh. Marketing efforts could include: conducting market research to determine the types of families to include in the target market, developing a consistent marketing message to communicate to the

target market, and distributing promotional materials (e.g., direct mail, radio, print advertisements) to the target market highlighting downtown Raleigh's family-friendly attraction zone.

*Perceptions of the Most-Visited Lodging Properties and Implications for Management*

With respect to respondents' perceptions of the most frequently cited lodging properties for visitors to downtown Raleigh, only six properties were mentioned by at least 15% of the total sample (see Table 4.4 in the previous chapter). Different from the attractions and places discussed above, which were all located inside the downtown Raleigh BID, three of the six most frequently mentioned lodging properties were located *outside* the downtown Raleigh BID: Holiday Inn Brownstone-Raleigh, Hilton North Raleigh, and Marriott Crabtree. The Holiday Inn Brownstone-Raleigh is located five blocks from the BID perimeter, the Hilton North Raleigh is located approximately three miles from the BID perimeter, and the Marriott Crabtree is located approximately five miles from the BID perimeter.

Among these three properties, the tourism subsample was more likely than the urban planning subsample to name the Holiday Inn Brownstone-Raleigh and the Hilton North Raleigh in their list of the most-visited lodging properties. The Holiday Inn Brownstone-Raleigh, located just five blocks from the eastern perimeter of the BID, is also adjacent to the Central YMCA. As indicated in Table 4.9 in the previous chapter, almost half of the tourism subsample perceived the YMCA as being part of downtown

Raleigh, versus only one-fifth of the urban planning subsample, which could explain the tourism subsample's higher likelihood of including the Holiday Inn. The Hilton North Raleigh is a frequent host to professional meetings and conventions; hence, its reputation as a meeting site with convenient access to downtown Raleigh may have contributed to the tendency of tourism professionals to include that property.

Both subsamples, however, consistently mentioned the Marriott Crabtree in their list of most-visited lodging properties. Further from the downtown Raleigh BID than any of the other five properties, the Marriott Crabtree was mentioned more than both the Hilton North Raleigh and the Holiday Inn, suggesting that a lodging property's distance from the downtown Raleigh BID did not necessarily play a role in its selection for inclusion in respondents' lists of where people stay when visiting downtown.

Respondents' inclusion of properties outside of the downtown Raleigh BID may have been connected to phrasing of the interview question: "Where in Raleigh do people stay when they visit downtown?" In reality, not all visitors to downtown Raleigh desire to stay at a downtown property. For some visitors, downtown properties could be perceived as less desirable because of their limited and/or costly parking options. In fact, Robertson (1995) listed "problems in reaching downtown, which include...inconvenience...and parking" (Transportation Enhancement section, ¶ 1) as general reasons why Americans avoid downtowns.

For other visitors, downtown Raleigh may not possess their desired type of hotel. Frieden and Sagalyn (1989) described three types of downtown hotels: “the midsized commercial hotel for business travelers, the large hotel with special facilities for conventions, and the small luxury hotel for well-heeled tourists and top executives” (p. 267). Currently, downtown Raleigh lacks this third type of hotel. One respondent, a business executive selected for inclusion in this study because of his membership on the Downtown Raleigh Alliance Board of Directors, noted that “one of the biggest gaps [in the accommodations sector in downtown Raleigh] is lodging options for middle and upper level travelers.” The respondent then stated that “executives [traveling to Raleigh for business] are looking for more upscale options,” such as The Umstead Hotel and Spa in neighboring Cary, located over eight miles from the BID perimeter. The Umstead, a luxury hotel which opened in 2007, is one of only two properties in North Carolina to receive a Five Diamond rating from the American Automobile Association (AAA, 2008). However, a luxury boutique hotel – The Lafayette – is scheduled to open in downtown Raleigh in 2009 (Raleigh Convention Center, 2008). Filling this void in downtown Raleigh’s accommodation types could increase overnight stays by catering to a wider variety of market segments.

Different from the family-friendly attraction zone discussed in the previous section, respondents in this study did not identify a cluster of lodging properties to comprise a hotel zone. As compared with both attractions (discussed earlier in the

chapter) and restaurants (which will be discussed below), respondents were more likely to identify lodging properties *outside* of the downtown Raleigh BID. This finding could suggest that downtown Raleigh lacks sufficient lodging options. However, this conclusion carries the assumption that Raleigh-area visitors *prefer* to stay downtown, when in fact, several primary attractions in Raleigh are located outside of the downtown area. The North Carolina State Fairgrounds complex, for example, draws out-of-town visitors year-round. Perhaps visitors to the Fairgrounds are more likely to choose to stay at one of the nearby properties, rather than in downtown Raleigh. This idea of exploring the relationships between downtown Raleigh and other Raleigh attractions – as well as possibilities for improving connectivity – will be addressed in the section of this chapter on future research.

Another difference between subsamples with respect to the most frequently cited lodging properties was that the urban planning subsample included the Days Inn Downtown, located in the Capital District of the downtown Raleigh BID, with higher frequency than the tourism subsample (26.1% vs. 11.1%). Reasons for this discrepancy are unclear, since the property is located within walking distance of the state-run attractions (e.g., North Carolina Museum of Natural Sciences, State Capitol, Executive Mansion) that were so prominent among the responses of both the tourism and urban planning subsamples in Question 2a of the interview. One possible explanation is that perhaps tourism professionals considered the Clarion Raleigh, also located in the Capital

District, to be the primary lodging property for travelers visiting the state attractions in downtown Raleigh due to its substantially larger capacity (202 vs. 55 guest rooms).

An alternative explanation for the discrepancy between the response rates for these two lodging properties is that the Clarion Raleigh, with its unique circular shape, has become a downtown Raleigh landmark. (See photograph in Appendix F.) Perhaps a building with such a distinct architectural design as the Clarion Raleigh was easier for respondents to recall than a modest, two-story property like the Days Inn. The Clarion has been a local landmark for residents since its construction in 1969, and has historically been the hotel most closely associated with downtown Raleigh. Since the tourism subsample was largely comprised of “veterans in the field,” with more work experience in greater Raleigh than the urban planning subsample (an average of 10.89 vs. 5.09 years), perhaps respondents from the tourism subsample were more likely to recall the Clarion.

#### *Perceptions of the Most-Visited Restaurants and Implications for Management*

Seventeen restaurants were mentioned by at least 15% of the total sample (see Table 4.5) and were primarily clustered in three downtown districts: the Glenwood South District (8 restaurants), the Moore Square District (4 restaurants), and the Fayetteville Street District (3 restaurants). The location of the restaurants in the latter two districts created a restaurant zone that spanned the northeast portion of the Fayetteville Street District and the northwest portion of the Moore Square District (see Figure 4.7).

Like the family-friendly attraction zone discussed earlier in this chapter, this restaurant zone is neither acknowledged nor promoted by the Downtown Raleigh Alliance, since it straddles two downtown districts. While dining is mentioned in the descriptions of four of the five downtown districts (DRA, n.d.), the Glenwood South District, described as “a thriving restaurant and retail environment” (DRA) and “burgeoning with eclectic restaurants and spirited nightlife” (GRCVB, 2007b), is promoted as downtown Raleigh’s dining mecca. Respondents in this study, however, identified almost the same number of restaurants in this inter-district restaurant zone (7 restaurants) as the Glenwood South District (8 restaurants), suggesting a second geographic cluster of dining options in the Fayetteville Street-Moore Square area (see Figure 5.2).

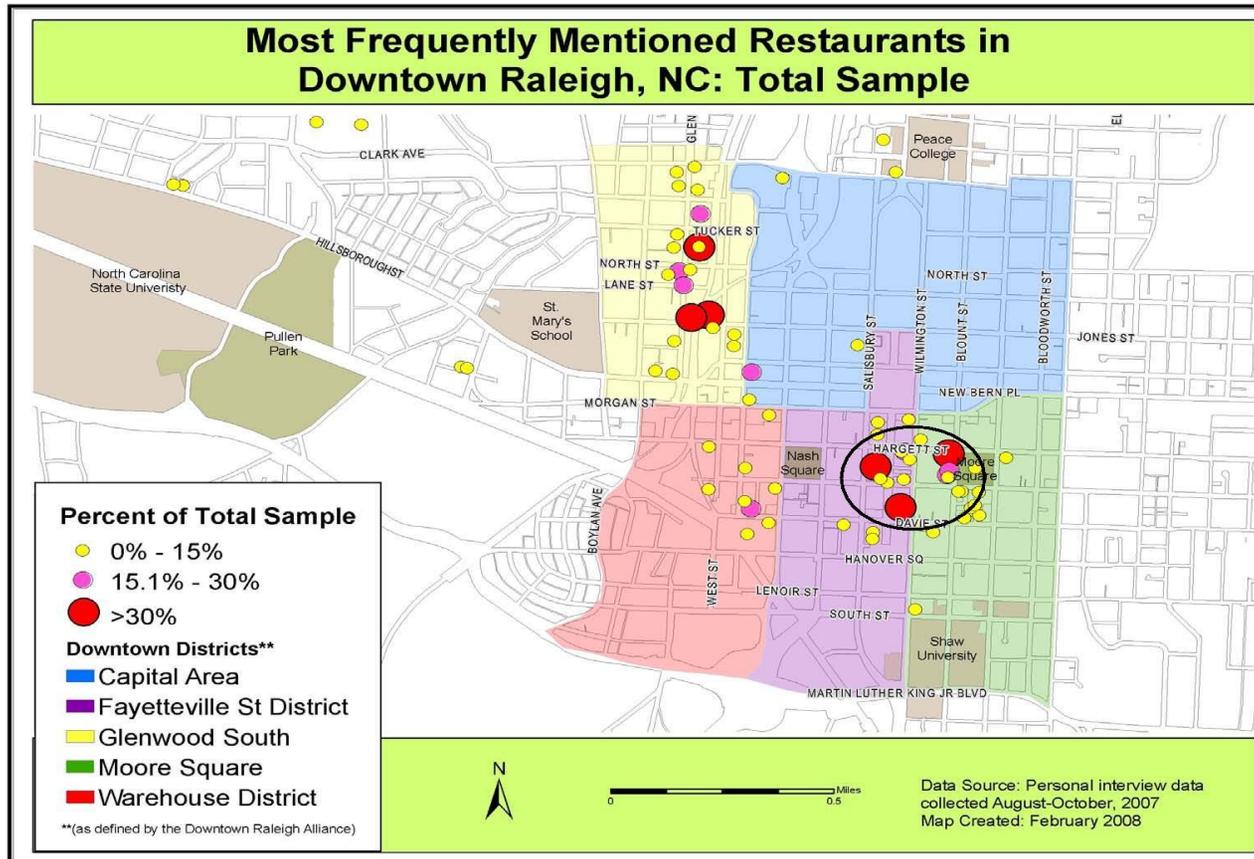


Figure 5.2. Representation of downtown Raleigh's second restaurant zone, derived from sample data

The sample perceived two restaurant zones in downtown Raleigh, which has implications for the promotion of downtown Raleigh's dining options. The "hip and trendy" (DRA, n.d.) Glenwood South District, with its mix of restaurants and nightclubs, is generally perceived to attract younger crowd. On the other hand, the second restaurant zone of the Fayetteville Street and Moore Square Districts, which intersects the family-friendly attraction zone discussed earlier in this chapter, has the potential to attract a wider variety of demographic target markets to downtown Raleigh: families and older adults in addition to the young professionals, college students, and downtown office workers who are already targeted.

Several respondents mentioned the importance of having restaurants accessible for pedestrians, specifically for visitors staying in downtown Raleigh hotels. Two respondents, a sales manager at the Sheraton Raleigh from the tourism subsample and an employee of the Downtown Raleigh Alliance from the urban planning subsample, stated that visitors tend to go out to eat at restaurants within walking distance of their hotel. The Glenwood South District, which has been touted as the cornerstone of downtown Raleigh's dining scene, is not within walking distance of the Sheraton Raleigh, and it is about a ½ mile walk from the Clarion Raleigh. According to urban planning literature, pedestrians would most likely regard ½ mile as too far to be considered "within walking distance" (Aurbach, 2008). Urban planners use the term pedestrian shed – also called a "ped shed" or walkable catchment – to describe the "the area

encompassed by the walking distance from a town or neighborhood center. Ped sheds are often defined as the area covered by a 5-minute walk (about 0.25 miles)” (Aurbach). Based on Aurbach’s definition, Glenwood South would not be considered to be within walking distance of the Clarion Raleigh or any other downtown lodging property.

Three urban planning respondents noted the lack of connectivity between the Glenwood South District and the rest of downtown Raleigh. One of these respondents specifically noted the absence of a transportation system to connect Fayetteville Street to the Glenwood South District. Another respondent, who commented on the distance between City Market (in the Moore Square District) and the Glenwood South District, also intimated that the DRA was thinking of starting a trolley service in downtown Raleigh.

Since the interviews were conducted in 2007, the City of Raleigh has, in fact, commenced a trolley service, called the Raleigh Showtime Trolley. This free trolley service runs from 5:30-11:30pm on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday nights and is sponsored by the Raleigh Transit Authority and the City of Raleigh Public Works Department. However, the trolley route does not include the Glenwood South District, but is instead limited to the Fayetteville Street and Moore Square Districts. Perhaps the trolley route would have been expanded to include the Glenwood South District if urban planning and/or tourism professionals had been consulted. At the end of this chapter, strategies will be presented for bringing urban planning and tourism professionals

together in order to create a synergy among the various “players” in the downtown Raleigh redevelopment arena.

Attracting more people to downtown Raleigh restaurants would benefit the city in three ways. First, increased pedestrian traffic in the evening would create the image of a vibrant downtown, as opposed to a city with a “central business district” that closes its doors each weeknight when the office workers go home (Robertson, 1995, The Uneven Effects of Downtown Development Strategies section, ¶ 1). Second, this increase in pedestrian traffic could result in improved perceptions of safety among visitors to downtown Raleigh. In their study on perceptions of safety at the America’s Cup in Auckland, New Zealand, Barker et al. (2003) found a positive correlation between tourists’ confidence and the ratio of other tourists in their proximity. In other words, tourists feel safer when they are among other tourists. Robertson listed safety anxieties as one reason why Americans avoid downtowns. Therefore, the work of both Robertson and Barker et al. supports the notion that increased evening activity could attract more people to downtown Raleigh because visitors’ perceptions of safety would improve. Finally, an increase in the number of diners in downtown Raleigh would result in an increase in sales tax revenue for the city of Raleigh. In summary, three potential positive outcomes of promoting downtown Raleigh options to a wider variety of target markets are increases in the city’s vibrancy, perceptions of safety, and tax revenue.

### *Analysis of Subsample Differences in Perceptions of Most-Visited Sites*

This subsection will discuss the response differences between the tourism and urban planning subsamples in their perceptions of the most-visited sites in downtown Raleigh. These differences could be attributed to their differing professional roles and responsibilities.

Of all the sites mentioned more frequently by the urban planning subsample than the tourism subsample, almost 80% were restaurants (see Table 4.6). This finding may relate to the idea that the guiding mission of the urban planning profession is to improve the quality of life for downtown *residents*, as opposed to visitors. To illustrate, the emphasis of Raleigh's Urban Design Center "is on updating the downtown plan, focusing on design opportunities to enhance the livability and walkability of downtown" (City of Raleigh, n.d. b). Diverse restaurant options for downtown residents contribute to the livability of downtown Raleigh for urban residents. Of the three site categories employed in this study – attractions and places, accommodations, and restaurants – the restaurant category is most closely associated with the lived experience of downtown residents.

In particular, the urban planning subsample mentioned the three restaurants in the Fayetteville Street District with higher frequency than the tourism subsample. These three restaurants – Yancy's, Big Easy, and Raleigh Times Bar – are located on Fayetteville Street itself, and their openings accompanied the grand re-opening of the 700 block of

Fayetteville Street in 2006. The city's Urban Design Center spearheaded the Fayetteville Street Renaissance project, which was one of the five objectives of downtown Raleigh's Livable Streets plan (City of Raleigh, n.d. a). Logically, urban planning professionals were more apt to mention restaurants located on Fayetteville Street.

While restaurants dominated the list of sites mentioned more frequently by the urban planning subsample, attractions comprised more than half of the sites mentioned more frequently by the tourism subsample (see Table 4.7). Three of these attractions – Moore Square, Oakwood Historic District, and Glenwood South – are general areas of downtown rather than specific sites, suggesting that the tourism subsample was more likely than the urban planning subsample to consider general areas of the city to be attractions.

From a tourism perspective, cities can be viewed as a collection of geographic tourist “zones” or “districts” (Pearce, 1998). From Covent Garden in London to Fisherman's Wharf in San Francisco, tourists may perceive these types of districts as attractions in their own right. On a smaller scale, Raleigh's tourist districts, including (but not limited to) the five districts that comprise the downtown Raleigh BID, could also be regarded as tourist attractions.

However, the data collected in this study revealed a conflicting set of boundaries. The sample of tourism and urban planning professionals perceived a family-friendly attraction zone and an overlapping restaurant zone, neither of which conformed to the

predetermined boundaries of the five downtown districts. However, tourists themselves will likely be unaware of these predetermined boundaries. Kline (2007) explained this lack of awareness in the context of a state's county lines, when she wrote that "counties are an artificial parameter when it comes to tourism, because visitors make decisions based on attractions rather than county lines" (p. 59). Similarly, the artificial parameters of the five downtown districts may be of little consequence to visitors to downtown Raleigh. The two zones revealed in this study, the family-friendly attraction zone and the overlapping restaurant zone, may be more relevant to tourists navigating downtown Raleigh, since they more clearly indicate the opportunities for tourists in the city center. In the remainder of this chapter, these zones will be referred to as tourist experience zones, since they encapsulate more than just geographic areas of the city.

It would be advantageous to use these two tourist experience zones in promotional materials geared toward tourists, in lieu of the five district boundaries which are currently used by the Downtown Raleigh Alliance in their print and Internet resources. For example, promoting the family-friendly attraction zone in downtown Raleigh could counter the perception some visitors may have of downtowns as inconvenient. Highlighting the inter-district restaurant zone straddling the Fayetteville Street and Moore Square Districts would be useful for overnight guests staying in the Sheraton Raleigh and the new Raleigh Marriott City Center, since these restaurants are within walking distance of both hotels. The new Marriott, which is located on

Fayetteville Street adjacent to the Sheraton, opened in downtown Raleigh following the conclusion of data collection for the present study.

### Discussion of Results from Interview Section Three

In Section Three of the interview, respondents answered questions that gave an indication of their perceptions of the periphery of downtown Raleigh. A discussion of the results of this section follows.

#### *Discussion of Perceptions of Downtown Raleigh's Outer Boundaries*

From the list of 21 peripheral places, the four places most often considered downtown were: Shaw University, Glenwood South, Krispy Kreme Doughnuts, and Peace College. All four of these places are located within the boundaries of the Downtown Raleigh Alliance's map of the downtown BID. The remaining 17 peripheral places in Section Three were located outside the downtown Raleigh BID. However, only the southern-most portion of Peace College's campus falls within the Capital District boundary, which may explain why its percentage of affirmative responses (i.e., "Yes, I consider this place to be in downtown Raleigh") was slightly lower than those of the top three peripheral places.

For the four places that were most often considered downtown, the urban planning subsample had a slightly higher percentage of "yes" responses than the tourism subsample. Again, these differences could be attributed to the location of these four

places inside the BID boundary. More specifically, it is likely that the urban planning subsample was more familiar with the limits of the downtown Raleigh BID, since 10 respondents in the urban planning subsample worked for the Downtown Raleigh Alliance (DRA) – the agency that manages the BID – and 6 respondents were on the DRA’s Board of Directors. In fact, during this section of the interview, four urban planning subsample respondents specifically mentioned – without prompting from the interviewer – the DRA’s map of the downtown Raleigh BID.

With respect to the peripheral places that were least often considered to be in downtown Raleigh, the urban planning subsample was more definitive than the tourism subsample. To illustrate, the entire urban planning subsample responded “no” to five peripheral places, while the entire tourism subsample responded “no” to just two places. Again, the urban planning subsample’s greater familiarity with the boundaries of the downtown BID may have guided their more definitive negative responses.

While respondents answered “yes” or “no” to most of the peripheral places in Section Three of the interview, some interesting results were also found in terms of the “maybe” responses. The Dorothea Dix Hospital property, which is located outside the downtown Raleigh BID, to the west of the Warehouse District, received the highest percentage of “maybe” responses, with 8.9% of the tourism subsample and 17.4% of the urban planning subsample responding “maybe.” One tourism subsample respondent noted that the property was “right on the edge” of what he considered to be downtown,

and another described it as being on the “outskirts” of downtown. Although it is adjacent to the downtown Raleigh BID, the Dorothea Dix Hospital property is rather inaccessible because one must cross a major thoroughfare to reach the closest entrance to the property. In fact, one urban planning subsample respondent commented that the Dorothea Dix Hospital property, which some people use as a park, is “a hassle to get to.” Interestingly, a tourism subsample respondent said that she did not consider the Dorothea Dix hospital property to be downtown, but that she might “if there were more things” to do there.

Members of the Friends of Dorothea Dix Park organization have claimed that the conversion of Dorothea Dix Hospital property – a state-funded mental hospital which has been slated to close in 2009 – to a “destination park” is essential if Raleigh is to become one of America’s “great cities” (Friends of Dorothea Dix Park, n.d.). Projected impacts of this type of destination park include resultant increases in tourism, real estate values, and private development. Moreover, proponents of the preservation of the property as a park – as opposed to mixed-use development – have emphasized the indirect benefits of open space (e.g., opportunities for historic preservation & community events), comparing the proposed 306-acre park to New York City’s Central Park (Friends of Dorothea Dix Park).

Therefore, the 17% of the urban planning subsample who responded “maybe” when asked whether they considered the Dorothea Dix Hospital property to be in

downtown Raleigh may have been influenced by their desire for downtown Raleigh to transform itself into a “great city” through the creation of a destination park. Despite its location outside of the current downtown BID, the park plays a prominent role in the future vision of downtown Raleigh.

#### *Respondents’ Four Strategies for Defining Downtown*

During Section Three of the interview, some respondents volunteered (without any sort of prompting) information about their personal strategies for defining, explaining, and mapping downtown Raleigh. The four strategies which emerged from the data were: proximity to the buildings that comprise Raleigh’s skyline (i.e., “the big buildings”); using streets as linear boundaries to the north, south, east, and west of downtown Raleigh; egocentric paradigms; and recognition of a spectrum of perceptions which depend on the individual’s frame of reference. These four strategies are explained below.

Three tourism subsample respondents defined downtown Raleigh as, “where the big buildings are.” In a related statement, one of these three respondents noted that he did not consider the single-family dwellings in downtown neighborhoods to be part of his definition of downtown.

Ten respondents – seven from the tourism subsample and three from the urban planning subsample – explained their perceptions of downtown Raleigh by providing linear boundaries to the north, south, east, and west (usually streets). Some

respondents provided boundaries which corresponded with the boundaries of the BID. Others, however, had a broader view of downtown Raleigh.

Two tourism subsample respondents had “egocentric” definitions of downtown. To illustrate, one respondent explained that she considered the Rialto Theater at Five Points to be included in her definition of downtown, “because I live in Five Points.” (Note: The Rialto Theater, in the Raleigh neighborhood of Five Points, is located one mile north of the northern border of the BID.) Another tourism subsample respondent, who worked at the Sheraton Raleigh, considered downtown to comprise those places within walking distance of the Sheraton, including the State Capitol, Moore Square, and the Progress Energy Center for the Performing Arts. The respondent defined “walking distance” as places within a five-block radius.

Finally, three respondents explained that each person’s perception of downtown Raleigh depended upon his/her own perspective. For example, one urban planning subsample respondent noted that friends of hers who live outside the beltline (a highway that encircles central Raleigh) would consider anything inside the beltline to be “downtown.” A tourism subsample respondent explained that, for visitors, “the further you travel, the broader your definition of downtown.” He illustrated his point by explaining that someone from Greenville, North Carolina (about 85 miles east of Raleigh) may consider the North Carolina Museum of Art to be downtown, while someone who lives and works within the BID would not consider the Museum of Art to be downtown.

Finally, an urban planning subsample respondent who worked in the Fayetteville Street District noted that, “Some people who aren't here [downtown] everyday consider Pullen Park, North Carolina State University, Hillsborough Street, and other locations inside the beltline to be downtown.”

These four strategies for defining downtown Raleigh were interesting because respondents offered them during the interview without prompting. A number of respondents had strong opinions about how downtown Raleigh should be defined. Their explanations provided inspiration for follow-up research possibilities, which will be outlined in the next section. Future researchers may wish to ask all respondents about their strategies for defining downtown, as this study found that people were willing and able to share their personal definitions. Other suggestions for future research will be addressed in the following section.

#### Study Limitations and Ways to Address Them in Future Research

In this study, data were collected from a non-random sample of respondents. A predetermined sampling frame of tourism and urban planning professionals could not be obtained, since neither profession has a standard definition. The tourism system, for example, is often considered to be comprised of transport, accommodation, entertainment, and food services (Leiper, 2008). However, other sectors – such as travel agency services – also contribute to the tourism system. Although many refer to the

singular “tourism industry,” Leiper posited that this expression is misleading and that there are, in reality, multiple tourism industries. For this reason, the phrase “tourism industry” was deliberately omitted when describing the tourism subsample in this study.

For the purposes of this study, the urban planning profession was defined as all individuals with professional responsibilities associated with the revitalization of downtown Raleigh. This broad definition did not permit the enumeration of a sampling frame, but instead depended upon snowball sampling (discussed below) to fill out the sample with a diverse range of respondents. Despite efforts to obtain a well-rounded urban planning subsample, the staff and board members of the Downtown Raleigh Alliance comprised the majority of the urban planning subsample.

Two nonprobability sampling techniques – purposive and snowball sampling strategies – were employed in this study. As explained in Chapter Three, purposive sampling is used to seek out predefined groups and is often used in exploratory studies (Trochim, 2006). The majority of the present study’s respondents were identified through purposive sampling, whereby individuals from tourism and urban planning organizations (e.g., Greater Raleigh Convention & Visitors Bureau; Downtown Raleigh Alliance) were interviewed. The remaining respondents were identified using a snowball sampling technique, whereby initial respondents recommended that others be included in the sample, based on their affiliation with the tourism or urban planning profession. This process of snowball sampling resulted in a statistical dependence between initial

respondents and the individuals they recommended. To illustrate, when a respondent from the tourism subsample recommended that an urban planning professional be contacted for inclusion in the sample, the resultant data collected from these two respondents were linked, or dependent. Consequently, the statistical assumption that observations in a sample be independent and identically-distributed (*i.i.d.*) was violated, and tests of statistical inference could not be conducted to compare the tourism and urban planning subsamples. However, other quantitative and spatial comparisons were made between the two subsamples' response patterns, as described in the previous chapter.

Future research could address this limitation of dependent data in several ways. To eliminate the need for snowball sampling, subsamples could be explicitly defined at the outset. For example, the sampling frame for the tourism subsample could be defined to include all individuals employed by the city's convention and visitors' bureau as well as those employed by the state tourism office. The sampling frame for the urban planning subsample could be defined as all individuals working in the city's urban design office as well as those employed by the agency that manages the business improvement district. Then, a random sample could be drawn from each of these sampling frames. This sampling strategy would preclude the need for snowball sampling and, consequently, would result in a sample that is *i.i.d.*

Meeting the statistical assumption that observations in a sample be *i.i.d.* is one requirement for conducting parametric statistical tests, such as *t*-tests, to locate statistically significant differences between the two subsamples' perceptions of urban tourist space. Knowing the location of these differences is an important step in bridging the gap between tourism and urban planning professionals' perceptions of downtown. This gap was highlighted by one urban planning subsample respondent who, when asked to name the most-visited attractions for visitors to downtown Raleigh, stated: "I don't really pay attention to what people coming in [to downtown Raleigh] do."

Another limitation of this study was the inability to delineate a contiguous boundary around the urban tourist bubble in Raleigh. In Section Three of the interview, a set of 21 peripheral places served as indicators of respondents' perceptions of the perimeter of downtown Raleigh. These places were chosen by the researcher in advance to represent areas to the north, south, east, and west of the downtown Raleigh BID. Selection of these places was limited to "local landmarks," or places that would be familiar to respondents (e.g., popular restaurants, local parks, sporting arenas). Consequently, these points had an irregular spatial distribution around the city of Raleigh. Figures 4.10 through 4.12 illustrated that the distribution of these peripheral places was unbalanced: there were more peripheral places to the north and west of the downtown Raleigh BID than to the south and east.

Because of the irregularity in the geographic distribution of peripheral places, it was not possible to use the data to draw a contiguous perimeter around downtown Raleigh. Creating a boundary using a "connect-the-dots" technique would have assumed that respondents perceived the space between two peripheral places as also being part of the boundary. Making this assumption would have been a misuse of the data, and the internal validity of the study would have been threatened.

An alternative data collection option (which was, in fact, considered for this study) would be to give each respondent a street map of Raleigh and ask him/her to draw a contiguous boundary around the area that s/he considered to be downtown Raleigh. Then, the areas drawn by all respondents could be overlaid and an overall "average" downtown area could be mapped. In my study, it was speculated that respondents' unfamiliarity with street names would make this mapping task difficult. However, future researchers may wish to reexamine this method for collecting spatial data, since 10 respondents did indeed use street names to delineate their perceptions of downtown Raleigh.

Another suggestion for incorporating maps into the data collection process in future research would be to devise a two-stage strategy using an interactive computer program. First, respondents could be asked to list those places (i.e., attractions, accommodations, & restaurants) that they consider to be part of downtown. Alternatively, this first step could be presented as a checklist, with the researcher

supplying a comprehensive list of places – both within and outside of the BID – and asking respondents to indicate which of the places on the list they consider to be downtown. Then, using geospatial technology such as a computer mapping program, all those places identified in the first stage would be displayed on a map. Respondents could compare this spatial representation of their responses with their own mental maps of downtown, and then have the opportunity to revise their responses.

Addressing the limitations of the present study using the suggestions delineated above would result in an improved understanding of urban tourism geography and perceptions of urban tourist space. The following section considers the question of whether an urban tourist bubble is truly an accurate descriptor of downtown spaces.

#### Does the Urban Tourist Bubble Accurately Describe Downtown Spaces?

Findings from this study underscored the notion that perhaps a downtown should not be defined by a contiguous area. Therefore, another question that begs answering is whether a contiguous tourist bubble is even appropriate for describing urban tourist spaces. Any contiguous spatial representation of downtown, such as the urban tourist bubble, carries inherent assumptions about what is and is not considered to be “downtown.” As a researcher, I rejected the use of a “connect-the-dots” strategy for defining the downtown space. Likewise, the notion of the urban tourist bubble might carry too many assumptions about the contiguity of urban tourist space. Perhaps people

perceive downtown as a collection of places, activities, and landmarks, rather than a contiguous space.

In fact, the monolithic urban tourist bubble as conceptualized in the urban planning literature – a formulaic “trophy collection” of features (e.g., convention center, atrium hotel, restored historic neighborhood) – could even preclude the development of a feeling of “sense of place” among visitors. Hinch (1996) maintained that cities should resist this pressure to create a homogenized or formulaic urban tourist bubble. Cities should instead capitalize on their unique features in order to foster a meaningful “bond between people (visitors or residents) and a place” (p. 100).

Therefore, based on the findings of this study, I would recommend that the construct of the urban tourist bubble should not be used as a blueprint for cities developing their urban tourism products. Although bubbles exist in some cities, the urban tourist bubble is not an ideal development strategy because it prevents visitors from experiencing all that a city has to offer. Many times, visitors are interested in experiencing those parts of a city that appeal to local residents, and a bounded tourist bubble would preclude such an experience. In addition, as cited in the literature review, Page and Hall (2002) explained that, “the attraction of the city for tourists is the possibility for enhanced interaction [with other people] for a given period of time” (p. 342). Urban residents who see their city as an attractive place for others to visit will cultivate a sense of community pride. This sense of community pride may translate to an

improved “host” mentality, leading to more positive interactions with tourists, which enhances the tourist experience.

### Improving Connectivity in Downtown Raleigh

If a downtown is considered to be a collection of places rather than a contiguous space, then the next logical question is: How do we connect these places? Connectivity was a recurring theme in respondents’ unprompted comments during the interview, both in terms of connecting places of interest within the current BID as well as connecting the downtown area to other Raleigh attractions.

With respect to connecting places within the BID, several respondents commented on the relative inaccessibility of the Glenwood South District. In the words of one tourism subsample respondent: "I see Glenwood [South] as the periphery - it's not included in my mind as part of downtown." Another respondent noted that the distance between City Market (in the Fayetteville Street District) and Glenwood South is too far to walk. A third noted the lack of connectivity between Fayetteville Street and Glenwood South.

One company has addressed this issue of connecting places of interest within the downtown BID. The Raleigh Rickshaw Company offers bicycle carriage rides “for trips that are too far to walk but too near to drive” (Raleigh Rickshaw Co., 2008). The

rickshaw drivers serve as ambassadors and tour guides, and offer their services for tips only.

Downtown Raleigh also has two trolley services. The Raleigh Showtime Trolley, described earlier in this chapter, does not travel to the Glenwood South District and, as such, does not contribute to improving connectivity between the Fayetteville Street and Glenwood South Districts. A second trolley service, the First Friday Trolley Route, does connect the Fayetteville Street and Glenwood South Districts; however, it only runs one day per month, during the First Friday art gallery walk. A regular trolley service with a route connecting the two districts would better integrate downtown Raleigh's attractions and amenities.

Upon the conclusion of this study, a new bus service was launched in downtown Raleigh that remedies the issue of connecting key areas of activity in downtown Raleigh. The R-LINE is a free circulator bus that runs on a regular daily schedule and has stops in all five downtown districts, from Glenwood South to Moore Square (Downtown Raleigh Alliance, 2009). This service benefits visitors as well as local residents by facilitating mobility within the city center.

In addition to their observations on a lack of connectivity *within* downtown Raleigh, respondents in my study also addressed the lack of connectivity *between* downtown Raleigh and other Raleigh area attractions. For example, one tourism subsample respondent employed at the North Carolina Museum of Art (NCMoA), located

approximately four miles from the northwest edge of the BID, noted that “the limited accessibility [of downtown Raleigh from the NCMoA] is inexcusable.” This respondent recalled that a bus service used to connect downtown Raleigh to the NCMoA, but that today, without the bus service, “it is not obvious how to get downtown” from the NCMoA.

This lack of connectivity between the NCMoA and downtown Raleigh is significant because of the prominence of the museum as a major attraction in Raleigh. The museum is a primary destination for some visitors to Raleigh, and downtown Raleigh businesses would benefit from improved connectivity between the NCMoA and downtown restaurants, attractions, and lodging properties.

Improved signage could ameliorate the perception of downtown Raleigh as inaccessible. To that end, the City of Raleigh has recently hired a consulting firm to develop a wayfinding system in downtown Raleigh (City of Raleigh, 2008). The City described the project as follows:

Wayfinding is defined as “signs, maps, and other graphic or audible methods used to convey location and directions to travelers”. [*sic*] As our downtown changes and expands, it is important that we keep in mind how our visitors are directed to their destinations, whether they arrive on foot or by car, and how to make sure that their experience in our downtown is a positive one. (City of Raleigh)

A wayfinding system could also lead to improved perceptions of accessibility within downtown Raleigh. In this study, one respondent – a 23-year resident of Raleigh – stated that "parking is such a pain" in parts of downtown that it keeps her away. Another respondent, an Ambassador with the DRA, commented that, "visitors' first impression of downtown is that there is no parking, [despite the fact that] there are six parking decks downtown." Improved signage as part of the downtown wayfinding project would more effectively direct visitors to convenient parking options and could lead to improvements in the perceived accessibility of downtown Raleigh.

On the topic of connecting downtown Raleigh with other Raleigh attractions, one tourism subsample respondent suggested the establishment of a trolley or shuttle between downtown Raleigh and the Crabtree Valley area hotels. The Crabtree Valley area is located approximately five miles from the BID perimeter, and includes a large shopping mall as well as a number of lodging options. (A December, 2008, search on tripadvisor.com, using the key words "Raleigh NC Crabtree hotel," resulted in 15 properties.) A connector service like a trolley or bus would facilitate visitation to Raleigh's urban center by alleviating visitors' anxieties regarding navigating and parking. Reciprocally, a connector service would benefit visitors staying in downtown Raleigh properties – especially those without vehicles – by providing transportation to retail options at Crabtree Valley Mall. Therefore, improving the accessibility of downtown

Raleigh by enhancing its connectivity with other areas of interest would have a mutually beneficial outcome for visitors staying both downtown and in other areas of Raleigh.

#### General Recommendations for Improving Connectivity in the Urban Destination

Some of the recommendations discussed in the previous section, which were specific to improving connectivity in downtown Raleigh, could also be extended to other urban tourism destinations. Mapping tourism and urban planning professionals' perceptions of a downtown area is a tool that would assist in seeing beyond predetermined geographic boundaries or zones. For example, two tourist experience zones were identified in this study, which can be promoted to a broader variety of target markets to increase visitation to downtown Raleigh. The benefits of attracting more people to a downtown area, which were discussed earlier in this chapter and include improved perceptions of safety and an increase in sales tax revenue, are relevant to any city, not just Raleigh.

Improved communication between tourism professionals and urban planners could lead to a more thorough understanding of where visitors go when traveling to a city. For example, urban planners in any city should take note that some conventions and meetings take place at hotels outside of downtown. When large conventions are hosted at these hotels, effort should be made to educate the visitors about accessibility to downtown dining and nightlife options, including driving directions and alternative

modes of transportation. Similar effort should be made with respect to other large-scale events happening near a downtown area (e.g., college graduations, major sporting event or tournament). Effectively connecting the downtown area to other highly visited parts of a city would enhance the visitor experience.

#### Additional Future Research Possibilities

In an article published after the completion of this study, Edwards, Griffin, and Hallyar (2008) described a Delphi study they conducted with urban tourism experts. As a result of this study, Edwards et al. identified the top ten issues in urban tourism research, which were categorized under four major themes. The two highest-priority issues both fell under the theme of *experience and behavior*: examining how tourists use cities, and identifying patterns of tourist behavior in cities. The three other themes were: *impacts* (e.g., environmental impacts, carrying capacity, & positive/negative impacts of tourists on the local community); *spatial relationship issues* (e.g., the influence of transport on tourist access and numbers; linkages between attractions); and *destination development and management issues* (e.g, criteria for successful urban tourism destination development; identification of national and international best practices for urban tourism). The theme of my study does not fall neatly under any one of these four categories; however, the concept of the urban tourist bubble does cut across all four categories. This section will address future research building on the findings of the present study.

While this study focused on perceptions of the spatial composition of urban tourism products as a representation of the tourist bubble, a follow-up study could address urban tourism issues from both supply (e.g., the tourism product) and demand (e.g., the tourist experience) perspectives. This approach would incorporate two of the four urban tourism research themes identified by Edwards et al. (2008): experience and behavior, and spatial relationship issues. Several authors, including Selby (2004) and Hayllar, Griffin, and Edwards (2008), have noted the importance of research from the perspective of the urban visitor. Selby defined this type of research as *experiential research*, which is “concerned with the knowledge, meanings, emotions and memories of urban tourists or residents” (p. 125). In their recently published book, *City spaces – tourist places: Urban tourism precincts*, Hayllar et al. (2008) recognized the functional and embedded psycho-social dimensions of the urban tourist precinct, as well as the ways that “space, people, activity and architecture dialectically interact and shape the experience of the precinct visitor – an experience that may be qualitatively different for each of them” (Edwards, personal communication, March 2, 2008).

Experiential urban tourism research “implies an understanding of tourist behaviour from the tourist’s own frame of reference, rather than one imposed by the researcher” (Selby, 2004, p. 127). One example of experiential urban tourism research is Hayllar and Griffin’s (2005) phenomenological study of the lived experience of first-time, non-local visitors to The Rocks, an urban tourism precinct in Sydney, Australia. The

authors identified three themes – atmosphere, physical place, and history – that emerged from the data, and concluded that “intimacy, authenticity and the general notion of place are the essential characteristics (or essences) of the experience” (p. 526).

This conclusion has implications for the planning and management of The Rocks as well as other urban tourist destinations. If cities follow the formulaic urban development strategies proposed by some urban planners (cf. Frieden & Sagalyn, 1989; Robertson, 1995), then these “essences” of the place, to which Hayllar and Griffin referred, are obscured or disappear entirely. The following question, then, should be posed: Can the urban tourist bubble provide an authentic experience to visitors?

As described at the beginning of this chapter, the combination of built, natural, and cultural dimensions of the city gives a city its unique sense of place (Hinch, 1996). If the built dimension (i.e., standardized components of the urban tourist bubble) overshadows or eliminates the unique natural and cultural features of an urban destination, then visitors and residents alike will find it difficult to foster a meaningful bond with the place. Relph’s (1976) notion of placelessness, or a lost sense of place, discussed in Chapter One, bears repeating here. Authenticity and sense of place contribute to the success of urban tourist destinations. As Walsh, Jamrozy, and Burr (2001) described, “unauthentic images often lead to unfulfilled expectations for tourists, leading to dissatisfying travel experiences” (p. 198). Walsh et al. proposed that local residents be invited to contribute to place marketing efforts. Incorporation of residents’

“local sense of place” would result in “a more realistic or authentic image of the destination and, in turn, limit the incongruity between the image tourists have prior to arriving at a travel destination and their sense of place once they have experienced it” (Walsh et al., p. 212).

Hayllar and Griffin (2005) proposed the idea of developing an “experience opportunity spectrum” (p. 526) for urban tourism precincts, similar to Clarke and Stankey’s (1979) recreation opportunity spectrum, so that a range of experiences can be provided to a diverse group of visitors to a tourism precinct. The tourist experience zones that were identified in this study support this research suggestion. Many people think of downtown areas as places for nightlife, dining, and the arts. However, promotion of the family-friendly experience zone identified in this study would send the message that attractive recreation opportunities also are available in downtown Raleigh for families with children.

To better understand the types of experiences tourists seek, researchers can collect information from tourists themselves. McKercher and Lau (2007) used the data collection methods of visitor-generated maps and trip diaries as well as mobile telephone tracking technology to examine the direct experiences of tourists in Hong Kong. Visitors were offered SIM (Subscriber Identity Module) cards, which were to be inserted into visitors’ personal mobile telephones to track their movements around the city. The data collected from this mobile telephone tracking would have allowed for the

examination of temporal/spatial interactions of tourist behavior in Hong Kong; however, McKercher and Lau discovered that a vast majority of participants refused to use the mobile phone method. Even though it required less work on their part than other data collection options, “the telephone tracking system was seen by many people as being too invasive” (McKercher & Lau, p. 391).

Therefore, McKercher and Lau (2007) analyzed only trip diary data: places visited, duration of visit, and routes taken. They examined the fundamental issue of “the movement of people through time and space” (McKercher & Lau, p. 386), an area of research which has been overlooked in the tourism literature. Future investigation into these three types of data would answer the questions of, “Where are visitors going?”, “How long are visitors staying?”, and “How are visitors getting from place to place?” In particular, the routes that tourists take to get from one attraction to another would be informative, as these corridors could further support the idea of an urban destination as an interconnected set of tourist experience zones rather than a monolithic tourist district.

Oztaysi, Baysan, and Akpınar (2007) considered the application of another technological advance, Radio Frequency Identification (RFID), to improving the tourism experience through customization and convenience. RFID is “an Auto-ID system consisting of a microchip with a coiled antenna and a reader” (Oztaysi et al., p. 263). Electromagnetic waves are issued from the reader, which the microchip’s antenna

receives and sends back to the reader, thus establishing the location of the microchip. RFID tags have been used by airlines for luggage tracking, by transportation departments for toll collection (e.g., E-ZPass), by libraries for auto-sorting returned items, and by museums to communicate information about nearby objects (using a PDA or mobile phone). Although they did not actually test the use of RFID, Oztaysi et al. presented a “hypothetical case study” describing some potential applications of RFID in a resort setting. In the example, kiosks were used to display the location of party members (e.g., lost children). Other benefits included: keyless entry into hotel room, payment for goods and services not included in package, and customization for future visits (e.g., room temperature, lighting, food & beverage preferences). This technology could also be applied to the task of collecting data from urban tourists, perhaps enhancing tourism researchers’ knowledge of tourist routes and corridors (i.e., where tourists go & how they get there).

Although new technologies, such as mobile telephones and RFID, present opportunities for more sophisticated data collection, McKercher and Lau (2007) revealed a major hurdle to these types of research: visitors may be wary to accept anything perceived as a “tracking device.” More research is needed to determine the best practices for encouraging visitors to participate in studies that use high-tech devices for data collection purposes. However, these new technologies also serve as reminders of the importance of the study of tourism from the visitor’s perspective. If and when the

hurdle of visitor apprehension is cleared, the understanding of tourist behavior will increase in breadth and depth.

These new technologies have implications for the study of urban tourism. Additional research on the ways that tourists interact with cities will strengthen our understanding of the role of urban spaces in shaping the tourist experience. Future research will not only answer the question, “Where do visitors go?”, but will also explain the reasons behind tourists’ movement within a city and the ways that a city – including its spatial form, local resident population, available activities, and architecture – can shape the visitor experience.

This study illuminated that the fixed boundaries of Raleigh’s five downtown districts, defined by the Downtown Raleigh Alliance and contained within the business improvement district (BID), do not accurately represent the set of tourism products in downtown Raleigh, North Carolina. Future research on urban tourist space in Raleigh could be conducted by collecting data from tourists themselves. Heeding the warning of McKercher and Lau (2007), “high-tech” data collection strategies, such as mobile telephone tracking, would not be used, due to the reluctance of participants to accept such devices. Instead, a systematic visitor intercept method could be developed to collect information from visitors to downtown Raleigh. To obtain a representative sample, a stratified sampling strategy should be employed. In addition, specific attention

should be paid to sample size. Specifically, the sample should be large enough so that statistical tests can be conducted.

As described earlier in this chapter, several respondents explained that people's perceptions of downtown Raleigh may depend upon their own perspectives, including place of residence. A future research question to explore would be whether there is a positive correlation between the scope (i.e., geographic area) of a visitor's perception of downtown Raleigh and the distance to downtown from a visitor's place of residence. For example, would a person living in Raleigh perceive the downtown area as being smaller (in area) than a person visiting from Chicago? To fully explore this relationship, the sample must include respondents from a variety of locations, not just the greater Raleigh area. A multi-stage random sampling method could be employed, combining systematic and stratified random sampling. Every  $n^{\text{th}}$  passerby could be intercepted at predetermined intercept locations, and only those individuals from the targeted geographic area (e.g., within a 50-mile radius) would be interviewed.

Other future research opportunities have also been identified. First, the technique could be replicated in other destinations, including "town squares" and downtowns of small cities. Comparing the perceptions of two urban development stakeholder groups would have implications for local government policy and future development plans. In addition, the technique could be validated by comparing results to actual visitor traffic patterns in Raleigh, using data collected from visitor intercept

surveys or observational research. Finally, it would be valuable to both the tourism and urban planning professions to understand visitors' perceptions of a destination's urban tourist bubble, perhaps through more detailed interviews targeting urban tourists themselves.

The city of Raleigh (and the downtown area in particular) is at a crossroads where proper tourism development has the potential to improve the quality of life for urban residents and enhance the experiences of visitors. The findings from this study – specifically the notion that the five downtown districts comprising the BID did not accurately reflect respondents' perceptions of tourism activity in downtown Raleigh – can be used as a platform for future research.

The fields of tourism and urban planning are inextricably linked, and there are several benefits to an improved mutual understanding between professionals of the two groups. A shared vocabulary could be the first step to heightened understanding of the roles of these professions in the development of downtown Raleigh as a premiere space for urban living alongside a well-developed tourism infrastructure. This study revealed that both tourism and urban planning scholars have applied the term “tourist bubble” to urban spaces. Although the data did not support a well-defined urban tourist bubble in downtown Raleigh, this shared terminology could be a starting point for interdisciplinary dialogue and would address Ashworth's (2003) criticism of the “double neglect” (p. 143)

in urban tourism research, whereby those studying tourism have overlooked cities while those studying cities have ignored tourism.

In the context of this study, one suggestion for bringing the tourism and urban planning professionals together would be to schedule a community stakeholder meeting, inviting all individuals and organizations who have an interest in the outcome of development efforts in downtown Raleigh. Invitees could include: urban planners, tourism professionals, government officials, Downtown Raleigh Alliance staff, downtown residents, researchers and university professors, meeting planners, local business owners and property managers, travel agents, hotel managers, museum directors, attraction operators, transportation officials, and any other interested parties. At this meeting, the findings of this study, especially the maps that were generated, could be shared. This display would highlight the overwhelming commonalities between the perceptions of the tourism and urban planning professionals. Additionally, sharing the findings would draw attention to the discrepancies between the BID boundaries (in particular the five downtown districts) and the tourist experience zones described in the present study.

If the initial meeting is successful, then the next step could be to organize a downtown coalition. Ideally, this group would consist of representatives from all stakeholder groups. The city of Phoenix, Arizona, has a Downtown Voices Coalition, which is defined as:

a coalition of stakeholder organizations that embrace growth in downtown Phoenix, but is mindful that healthy growth should be based upon existing downtown resources — the vibrancy of neighborhoods, the strength of the arts community, the uniqueness of historic properties, and the wonderful small businesses that dot downtown. All of these assets should be stepping stones to be built upon, rather than shattered in the wake of rampant downtown development. (Downtown Voices Coalition, n.d.)

Just as the Downtown Voices Coalition recognizes Phoenix's built resources, so also should downtown Raleigh recognize its existing human resources. A coalition of stakeholders would be able to guide the development of downtown Raleigh so that it meets the existing and future needs of residents and visitors.

#### Final Remarks

In this study, the transdisciplinary tool of geographic information systems was used to map the urban tourist bubble to display the commonalities and disparities between the two subsamples. Maps have the capability of serving as a *lingua franca* to effectively communicate research findings across professions and disciplines, thus avoiding one of the pitfalls of interdisciplinary research. This research was a first step in bridging the gap between the tourism and urban planning professions to come to a more comprehensive understanding of downtown Raleigh's urban tourism space.

Maps are also an effective way to display research findings to stakeholders. Each map created for this study condensed a large amount of data into a single figure. In addition to sharing these maps with tourism and urban planning professionals, maps can also be circulated to restaurateurs, hotel developers, and transportation officials in charge of signage and wayfinding. These stakeholders would benefit from knowing the locations of the pockets of activity in downtown Raleigh, including the family-friendly attraction zone and the inter-district restaurant zone that were revealed in this study.

Tourism and urban planning professionals must understand that cooperation is essential if Raleigh is to compete with other American cities for downtown residents, pleasure tourists, and business travelers (including conventioners). When urban planners make improvements to the city for downtown Raleigh residents, such as by increasing the number of dining options in the downtown area, tourism to downtown Raleigh also benefits. Likewise, when tourism professionals improve downtown Raleigh's image as a tourist destination (through advertisements & promotional materials), the image of downtown Raleigh as a desirable place to live is also improved. There is a synergy between tourism and urban planning efforts. However, this synergy needs to be recognized and addressed to maximize both sectors' efforts toward improving downtown Raleigh.

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## APPENDICES

# Appendix A. Map of Raleigh's Five Downtown Districts



## Appendix B. Interview Protocol

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_

### Interview Script and Notes Form

#### Introduction

Thank you, \_\_\_\_\_, for taking the time to meet with me today! I am doing research for my doctoral dissertation on urban tourism activity in downtown Raleigh, and the information you provide during this interview will be an important contribution to my study. I will be interviewing a number of tourism industry employees, like you, to collect data on perceptions of the attractions, accommodations, and restaurants people visit when they come to downtown Raleigh.

***First I am going to ask you a few background questions about your employment experience.***

1. Overall, how many years have you worked in the tourism industry?
2. How many years have you worked in the tourism industry in Raleigh? What is your job title? Have you held any other positions?
3. How many years have you lived in the greater Raleigh area?
4. In which municipality do you currently live?

Date: \_\_\_\_\_  
Time: \_\_\_\_\_

***The next series of questions relates to your perceptions of the most-visited attractions and places, accommodations, and restaurants in downtown Raleigh.***

5. Which attractions and places do visitors to downtown Raleigh visit? By attractions and places, I mean “things to see and do.” Try to list the top 10, in terms of number of visitors, if you can. [This is not an economic impact study. What I would like to know is where you think visitors go – which attractions are most popular by the numbers.]
- a. If fewer than 5 attractions are listed, probe for more.
  - b. If initial probe is unsuccessful, show prompt card of those downtown attractions listed by the Greater Raleigh CVB.
  - c. “Great, you’ve listed \_\_\_\_\_. Could you now select the top 5 from your list and put them in rank order, based on your perception of the number of visitors that go to these places each year?”

Attraction/Place Name (unprompted)	Attraction/Place Name (prompted)	Rank

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_

6. Where in Raleigh do people stay when they visit downtown? Remember, I'm not asking for your preference on where *you* would stay, but rather your perception of where most visitors stay. Try to list the top 5 properties.
- a. If fewer than 3 lodging properties are listed, probe for more. "Are there other places people who would be visiting downtown Raleigh attractions would stay?"
  - b. "Great, you've listed \_\_\_\_\_. Could you now put these in rank order, based on your perception of the total number of visitors to downtown Raleigh staying at these properties each year?"

Name of Lodging Property	Rank

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_

7. Where do visitors to downtown Raleigh go out to eat and to have drinks? Try to list the top 10 establishments in which you would expect to see visitors to downtown Raleigh eating and drinking.
- a. If fewer than 5 restaurants are listed, probe for more.
  - b. If initial probe is unsuccessful, show prompt card of those downtown restaurants listed by the Greater Raleigh CVB.
  - c. "Great, you've listed \_\_\_\_\_. Could you now select the top 5 from your list and put them in rank order, based on your perception of the number of visitors to downtown Raleigh that go to these places each year?"

Establishment Name (unprompted)	Establishment Name (prompted)	Rank

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_

**The final task of this interview is a simple “yes or no” checklist.**

8. I am going to read you a list of places. Please indicate whether you consider each place to be in downtown Raleigh responding with “yes,” “no,” “maybe,” or “I don’t know”:

Place	Yes	No	Maybe	Don't Know	Comments
Cameron Village	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Rialto Theater at Five Points	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Central YMCA	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Peace College	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Wake Med	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
NC State University (main campus)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
North Carolina Farmer's Market	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Pullen Park	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Dorothea Dix Hospital property	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
North Hills Mall	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Krispy Kreme Donuts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Walnut Creek Amphitheatre	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
RBC Center	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
North Carolina Museum of Art	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Glenwood South	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Crabtree Valley Mall	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Shaw University	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Meredith College	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
North Carolina State Fairgrounds	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Charlie Goodnight's/Irregardless	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
St. Augustine's College	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

9. Can you think of anyone else associated with the tourism industry who could complete the same interview tasks you just completed? If so, who?

**Thank you for your time today. I appreciate your input.**

Appendix C. All Attractions and Places Mentioned by Sample Respondents

<b>Attraction/Place Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
NC Museum of Natural Sciences	58	85.3%	38	84.4%	20	87.0%
NC Museum of History	56	82.4%	37	82.2%	19	82.6%
State Capitol	43	63.2%	29	64.4%	14	60.9%
Exploris	33	48.5%	17	37.8%	16	69.6%
Progress Energy Center	32	47.1%	20	44.4%	12	52.2%
Moore Square	26	38.2%	19	42.2%	7	30.4%
City Market	20	29.4%	12	26.7%	8	34.8%
NC Executive Mansion	20	29.4%	14	31.1%	6	26.1%
Fayetteville Street	18	26.5%	10	22.2%	8	34.8%
Glenwood South District	15	22.1%	9	20.0%	6	26.1%
IMAX Theatre at Marbles Kids Museum	11	16.2%	9	20.0%	2	8.7%
NC Legislative Building	11	16.2%	8	17.8%	3	13.0%
Artspace	11	16.2%	8	17.8%	3	13.0%
Raleigh City Museum	7	10.3%	3	6.7%	4	17.4%
Convention Center	6	8.8%	3	6.7%	3	13.0%
Oakwood Historic District	6	8.8%	6	13.3%	0	0.0%
NC State University Campus	5	7.4%	5	11.1%	0	0.0%
Pullen Park	5	7.4%	5	11.1%	0	0.0%
Joel Lane Museum House	4	5.9%	3	6.7%	1	4.3%
Mordecai Historic Park	4	5.9%	3	6.7%	1	4.3%
First Friday	3	4.4%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
First Night Raleigh	3	4.4%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Oakwood Cemetary	3	4.4%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Playspace	3	4.4%	2	4.4%	1	4.3%
Raleigh Wide Open	3	4.4%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Warehouse District	3	4.4%	1	2.2%	2	8.7%
Cameron Village	3	4.4%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
Alive After Five	2	2.9%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Restaurants	2	2.9%	0	0.0%	2	8.7%
Shaw University	2	2.9%	0	0.0%	2	8.7%

<b>Attraction/Place Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
Artsposure	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Capital Area Visitor Services	2	2.9%	0	0.0%	2	8.7%
Charlie Goodnight's	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Wake County Courthouse	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
NC Office of Archives and History	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Dorothea Dix	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
NC State Farmer's Market	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Fayetteville St. Post Office	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Amtrak Station	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Garland H. Jones Building	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Lincoln Theatre	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Andrew Johnson House	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
NC Museum of Art	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Parks and greenway networks	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Peace College	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Progress Energy Building	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Sir Walter statue	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
State Library	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Walnut Creek Amphitheatre	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Big Ed's	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Capital City Club / Cardinal Club	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%

Appendix D. All Lodging Properties Mentioned by Sample Respondents

<b>Lodging Property Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
Sheraton Raleigh	61	89.7%	40	88.9%	21	91.3%
Clarion - Raleigh, State Capital	47	69.1%	31	68.9%	16	69.6%
Marriott Crabtree	27	39.7%	18	40.0%	9	39.1%
Hilton North Raleigh	19	27.9%	15	33.3%	4	17.4%
Holiday Inn Brownstone Hotel	16	23.5%	15	33.3%	1	4.3%
Days Inn Downtown	11	16.2%	5	11.1%	6	26.1%
Embassy Suites Crabtree	10	14.7%	7	15.6%	3	13.0%
Embassy Suites Cary	8	11.8%	6	13.3%	2	8.7%
Oakwood Inn B&B	7	10.3%	4	8.9%	3	13.0%
Umstead Hotel & Spa	7	10.3%	4	8.9%	3	13.0%
Crabtree area properties	6	8.8%	5	11.1%	1	4.3%
Airport area properties	5	7.4%	3	6.7%	2	8.7%
Velvet Cloak Inn	5	7.4%	4	8.9%	1	4.3%
Downtown B&Bs (in general)	4	5.9%	4	8.9%	0	0.0%
Red Roof Inn Raleigh	4	5.9%	2	4.4%	2	8.7%
William Thomas House	4	5.9%	2	4.4%	2	8.7%
Research Triangle Park Properties	3	4.4%	2	4.4%	1	4.3%
Holiday Inn Crabtree	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Marriott Convention Hotel	2	2.9%	0	0.0%	2	8.7%
Residence Inn - Crabtree Valley	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Crabtree limited service properties	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Homewood Suites Crabtree	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Hyatt Place Raleigh	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
The Lafayette	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Red Roof Inn Crossroads	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Super 8 Capital Blvd.	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Best Western Crossroads	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Cameron Village B&B	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Candlewood Suites - Crabtree	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Courtyard by Marriott	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Courtyard by Marriott - Wake Forest Rd.	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%

Appendix E. All Restaurants Mentioned by Sample Respondents

<b>Restaurant Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
42nd St. Oyster Bar	33	48.5%	25	55.6%	8	34.8%
Sullivan's Steakhouse	33	48.5%	22	48.9%	11	47.8%
Yancy's	31	45.6%	16	35.6%	15	65.2%
518 West	29	42.6%	23	51.1%	6	26.1%
Caffé Luna	27	39.7%	19	42.2%	8	34.8%
Big Easy	22	32.4%	12	26.7%	10	43.5%
Big Ed's	20	29.4%	12	26.7%	8	34.8%
Bogart's	20	29.4%	14	31.1%	6	26.1%
Duck and Dumpling	19	27.9%	14	31.1%	5	21.7%
Tir Na Nog Irish Pub & Restaurant	18	26.5%	14	31.1%	4	17.4%
Nana's Chophouse (closed Nov.	17	25.0%	9	20.0%	8	34.8%
Second Empire	17	25.0%	10	22.2%	7	30.4%
Raleigh Times Bar	15	22.1%	9	20.0%	6	26.1%
Hibernian Pub	14	20.6%	9	20.0%	5	21.7%
Glenwood South	11	16.2%	10	22.2%	1	4.3%
Hi-5	11	16.2%	7	15.6%	4	17.4%
Red Room	11	16.2%	7	15.6%	4	17.4%
Cooper's	10	14.7%	4	8.9%	6	26.1%
Fins	7	10.3%	3	6.7%	4	17.4%
Mo's Diner	7	10.3%	5	11.1%	2	8.7%
Woody's @ City Market	7	10.3%	2	4.4%	5	21.7%
Rum Runners	6	8.8%	3	6.7%	3	13.0%
Sheraton Bar and Restaurant	6	8.8%	2	4.4%	4	17.4%
Vic's Ristorante Italiano	6	8.8%	2	4.4%	4	17.4%
18 Seaboard	5	7.4%	2	4.4%	3	13.0%
Mellow Mushroom	5	7.4%	3	6.7%	2	8.7%
Capital City Club	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%
Cardinal Club	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%
Enoteca Vin	4	5.9%	2	4.4%	2	8.7%

<i>Restaurant Name</i>	<i>Total Sample (n = 68)</i>		<i>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</i>		<i>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</i>	
	<i>#</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>#</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>#</i>	<i>%</i>
Humble Pie	4	5.9%	0	0.0%	4	17.4%
Riviera	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%
Rockford	4	5.9%	0	0.0%	4	17.4%
April and George	4	5.9%	1	2.2%	3	13.0%
Blue Martini	3	4.4%	1	2.2%	2	8.7%
El Rodeo City Market	3	4.4%	2	4.4%	1	4.3%
Flying Saucer	3	4.4%	1	2.2%	2	8.7%
Moore Square restaurants	3	4.4%	3	6.7%	0	0.0%
The Pour House	3	4.4%	1	2.2%	2	8.7%
Angus Barn	3	4.4%	2	4.4%	1	4.3%
Stool Pigeon's	3	4.4%	2	4.4%	1	4.3%
Zydeco Downtown	3	4.4%	0	0.0%	3	13.0%
Char Grill	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
City Market	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Ess Lounge	2	2.9%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Fayetteville Street	2	2.9%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Five Star Restaurant	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Angelo's	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Napper Tandy's Irish Pub	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Prime Only Steak & Seafood	2	2.9%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Roly Poly	2	2.9%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
Subway at Moore Square	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
The Borough	2	2.9%	2	4.4%	0	0.0%
The Office Nightclub	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Warehouse District	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Zely and Ritz	2	2.9%	1	2.2%	1	4.3%
Bistro 607	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Brass Grill	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Café Carolina	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Cameron Village	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Cheesecake Factory	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Chick Fil A	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%

<b>Restaurant Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
City Limits Saloon	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Dos Taquitos Centro	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
East Village Grill & Bar	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Fayetteville St. Tavern	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Finch's Restaurant	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Five Points	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
American Grill	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Glenwood Grill	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
The Grove Café	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Hard Times Café	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Havana Deluxe	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Haven	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Irregardless Café	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Amra's	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Joe's Place	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Lighthouse Restaurant	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
McDonald's	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Mecca	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Mitch's Tavern	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Mo Joe's Burger Joint	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Morning Times	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Mosquito Bar	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Nelson's	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Mamma Lia's	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Port City Java	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Porter's Tavern	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Ruth's Chris	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Snoopy's	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Sunflowers Sandwich Shop	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
Sushi Blues Café	1	1.5%	0	0.0%	1	4.3%
The Men's Club	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Vivace	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%

<b>Restaurant Name</b>	<b>Total Sample (n = 68)</b>		<b>Tourism Subsample (n<sub>1</sub> = 45)</b>		<b>Urban Planning/ Design Subsample (n<sub>2</sub> = 23)</b>	
	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>%</b>
Armadillo Grill	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
White Collar Crime	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Wild Ginger	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%
Winston's Grille	1	1.5%	1	2.2%	0	0.0%

Appendix F. Photograph of Clarion Hotel, Downtown Raleigh, North Carolina



Source: <http://www.raleighclarion.com/>