



Deposited via The University of York.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/id/eprint/122427/>

Version: Published Version

Article:

Wells, Victoria, Gregory-Smith, Diana, Taheri, Babak et al. (2016) An exploration of CSR development in heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*. pp. 1-17. ISSN: 0160-7383

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2016.01.007>

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) licence. This licence allows you to distribute, remix, tweak, and build upon the work, even commercially, as long as you credit the authors for the original work. More information and the full terms of the licence here:

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

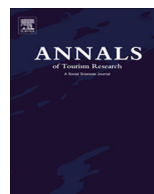


ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Annals of Tourism Research

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/atoures



An exploration of CSR development in heritage tourism



Victoria K. Wells^{a,*}, Diana Gregory Smith^{a,1}, Babak Taheri^{b,2},
Danae Manika^{c,3}, Clair McCowlen^{d,4}

^aUniversity of Sheffield, UK

^bHeriot-Watt University, UK

^cQueen Mary University of London, UK

^dGlobal Action Plan, UK

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 16 March 2015

Revised 25 January 2016

Accepted 28 January 2016

Available online 16 February 2016

Keywords:

Corporate Social Responsibility

Heritage

Employees

Visitors

Consolidative model of CSR development

ABSTRACT

Although research on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in tourism has seen increased attention, few studies have focused on CSR at the micro level. In addition, while stage models of CSR development have been extensively proposed these studies are rarely examined in actual organisations and, hence, lack empirical validity. This article explores the consolidative model of CSR, mainly via employees' but also via visitors' viewpoints in a large heritage tourism organisation. The research locates the organisation within the broad 3 phase-model and notes that differing parts of the organisation may be at different stages. However it is more difficult to locate the organisation within the narrower 7-stage model because of heritage tourism specific characteristics such as inter-generational drivers and cliques.

© 2016 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +44 (0) 114 222 3271.

E-mail addresses: victoria.wells@sheffield.ac.uk (V.K. Wells), d.gregory-smith@sheffield.ac.uk (D. Gregory Smith), b.taheri@hw.ac.uk (B. Taheri), d.manika@qmul.ac.uk (D. Manika), Clair.McCowlen@globalactionplan.org.uk (C. McCowlen).

¹ Tel.: +44 (0)114 222 3264.

² Tel.: +44 (0)131 451 4452.

³ Tel.: +44 (0)20 7882 6541.

⁴ Tel.: +44 (0)20 7420 4444.

Introduction

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is an innovative way to engage with social and environmental issues (Henderson, 2007). While CSR strategies are core to environmental and socially-responsible tourism (Caruana, Glozer, Crane, & McCabe, 2014), CSR tourism research is undeveloped (Coles, Fenclova, & Dinan, 2013), and lags behind mainstream CSR research (Ayuso, 2006). Inferences made about CSR in one organisation tend not to apply directly across similar organisations, let alone across industries (Dahlsrud, 2008). Further, CSR research in industries other than tourism is unlikely to be relevant to tourism. Thus, more needs to be done to understand CSR's role in the tourism industry.

Stakeholders “who may be affected by corporate actions, including employees, customers, partners...the public” (Valenti, Carden, & Boyd, 2014, p. 2) are of importance (Maon, Lindgreen, & Swaen, 2009), but both wider and tourism CSR research has focused on institutional (e.g., laws, standards) and organisational (macro boards and management) aspects, while ignoring ‘meso’ functional/departmental level aspects (Mason & Simmons, 2011) and the individual micro level stakeholders (e.g., employees; Aguinis & Glavas, 2012; Chun, Shin, Choi, & Kim, 2013; Hansen, Dunford, Boss, Boss, & Angermeier, 2011). While tourism CSR research has explored the micro level of visitors, employee behaviours remain largely unknown (e.g., Chou, 2014; Deery, Jago, & Stewart, 2007). This is despite employees being the core target for behaviour change in CSR initiatives, particularly in the services industry due to close relationships between employees and consumers (Coles et al., 2013), their role as ambassadors (Maon et al., 2009), their responsibility for implementation of CSR strategy (Costa & Menichini, 2013) and suggested vital role in CSR's success (Bolton, Kim, & O’Gorman, 2011). Maon et al. (2009) note the importance of engaging employees in CSR initiatives and communicating the organisation’s CSR approach and reasoning.

In 2010, Maon, Lindgreen and Swaen proposed a ‘consolidative model of CSR development’; designed as a practical model of CSR implementation to understand organisational engagement in CSR. Its proposed consolidation of “cultural, moral, strategic and organisational elements that characterise an organization at different stages in its CSR development” (Maon, Lindgreen, & Swaen, 2010, p. 22). The model focuses on the need to internalise CSR values at institutional, organisational and individual levels, and to integrate CSR principles into an organisation’s long-term strategy and decision-making. While the model has been extensively cited, it has not been examined fully in a business case. Therefore, by seeking to explore the model within environmental CSR in heritage tourism, at the micro level (employees and visitors), this paper responds to calls for attention at this level (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012) and acknowledges employees as a key driver of organisational environmental change and a true identifier of CSR adoption.

The specific research objectives are: (a) to assess how much the model reflects CSR properties in the heritage tourism context; (b) to locate, if possible, the organisation’s phase/stage of development using the model; and (c) to evaluate whether the model helps provide workable strategies to further the organisation’s CSR development. In doing so, this study will provide tourism organisations with an example of how the model can deepen understanding of their CSR status and how to audit current CSR practices (Ditlev-Simonsen & Gottschalk, 2011). Study outcomes include recommendations on how to adapt Maon’s et al. (2010) model to benefit tourism organisations implementing CSR initiatives.

CSR, stage models and micro level environmental behaviour

CSR is defined as “organisational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders’ expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance” (Aguinis, 2011, p. 855). Drivers of CSR include enhanced reputation (Coles et al., 2013), cost savings (Ayuso, 2006) and management support (Kasim & Ismail, 2012). Implementing CSR is challenging due to a lack of resources (Coles et al., 2013), technical and management barriers, poor communication, administrative heritage (Bohdanowicz, Zientara, & Novotna, 2011), environmental regulations, supply chain issues, and poor tourist and community demand (Kasim & Ismail, 2012) as well as expense (Frey & George, 2010). Many studies focus on the tangible and financial benefits (Weber, 2008) expected to come from CSR involvement. This includes: reduced cost/risk, increased competitive advantage,

employee motivation and retention (Gardiner, Rubbens, & Bonfiglioli, 2003), increased reputation and the link between CSR and corporate financial performance (CFP) (Lee, 2008). Yoo and Chon (2013) found CSR's effect on CFP is greater when CSR is more developed within the organisation. However, research remains largely inconclusive regarding a positive relationship between CSR and CFP (Lee, 2008).

Studies in tourism CSR have noted a similar set of motivations and barriers (Ayuso, 2006) in comparison to generic CSR research. Some work has suggested technical, infrastructure and 'other priorities' play a greater role in tourism CSR (Wells, Manika, Gregory-Smith, Taheri, & McCowlen, 2015). Additionally, Nicolau (2008, p. 991) highlights society as a special characteristic of tourism: "society is part of the product and companies have acute duty responsibilities regarding the places they are selling. . . This trait is likely to make them more sensitive to the adoption of CSR". Regarding environmental CSR, tourism research has recently increased significantly with studies highlighting CSR in museums and heritage (Edwards, 2007), mass tourism (Weaver, 2014), tour operators, airlines (Coles, Fenclova, & Dinan, 2011) and leisure and sport (Salome, van Bottenburg, & van den Heuvel, 2013). Research examining linkages between CSR and CFP in tourism have also been inconclusive (Inoue & Lee, 2011). 'Responsible environmental marketing' and 'community-based tourism' reflecting the balancing of initiatives and communication in order to achieve sustainable competitive advantage (Lee, Jan, & Yang, 2013; Starr, 2013) have also been considered, although little consistency has been shown across studies. Furthermore, sustainable design and green building practices have been increasingly used in heritage buildings (Starr, 2013), but the largest focus within tourism is accommodation (e.g., Chou, 2014) because hotels have a larger environmental impact due to higher than average energy and water consumption (Bohdanowicz et al., 2011).

Moving beyond managers and secondary data, further research is required in tourism CSR to include other stakeholders (Coles et al., 2013). This is needed due to the difficulties and lack of clear frameworks in the implementation and design of CSR for different companies and stakeholders (Starr, 2013). Regarding the design and implementation of CSR, Yoo and Chon (2013) note that modelling is routinely used by companies and implementation is often studied through stage models (Baumann-Pault, Wickert, Spence, & Scherer, 2013). A range of models have been proposed to assist the auditing, design and implementation of CSR. These have included models based on evolutionary processes (Mason & Simmons, 2011), organisational learning (Baumann-Pault et al., 2013), a positioning matrix (Calabrese, Costa, Menichini, & Rosati, 2012), moral development (Mason & Simmons, 2011), stages of growth (Ditlev-Simonsen & Gottschalk, 2011) and Lewin's change model (Maon et al., 2009), amongst others (for an overview see Maon et al. (2010)). The proposed models acknowledge different starting points, theoretical backgrounds, number of stages, and note a lag may exist with different departments, levels or geographical areas within the same organisation at different stages (Baumann-Pault et al., 2013; Mason & Simmons, 2011).

One of the most recent and comprehensive stage models is proposed by Maon et al. (2010). This model of CSR development seeks to show the development of CSR practices "into an embedded culture where organizational activities are directly influenced by CSR principles" (Costa & Menichini, 2013, p. 151). This emphasis is relevant to tourism heritage organisations, which aim to protect and preserve cultural sites that bring social benefits to society and future generations (Du Cros, 2001). Moreover, Maon's et al. (2010) model highlights the strategic nature of CSR and importance of a supportive stakeholder culture. The model presents CSR development as moving through three main phases (forming a three phase model): cultural reluctance, cultural grasp and cultural embedment (see Fig. 1). In the first phase, the organisation's social and environmental impact is ignored. The corporation focuses on short-term self-interest and there is active opposition to any initiatives that go beyond financial gain. In the second cultural grasp phase, sensitivity towards CSR emerges and practices are adapted to include CSR principles. There is also a focus on reducing environmental and social damage. Organisations are generally self-regarding and will adhere to CSR principles when it is instrumentally advantageous. From here "CSR progressively percolates into the cultural loam of the organisation" (Maon et al., 2010, p. 32). In the final phase, cultural embedment, CSR is fully embraced within all organisational decisions, the organisation is increasingly other-regarding (focusing on all stakeholders) and CSR is seen as an opportunity for innovation and long-term sustainability.

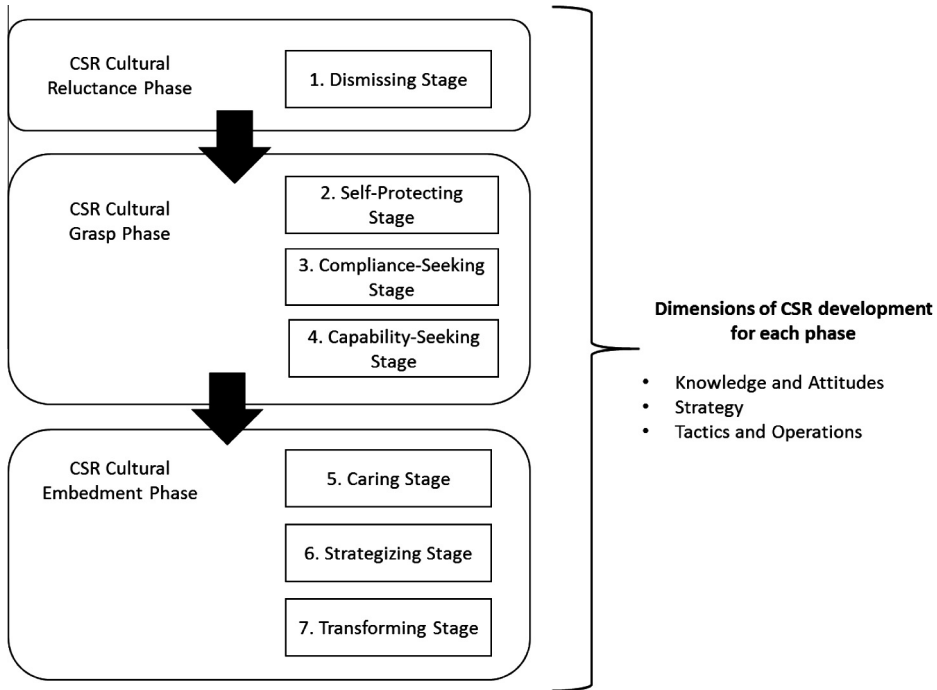


Fig. 1. The stages of CSR development (based on Maon et al., 2010).

Within these three phases, 7 development stages are embedded (forming a seven-stage model): (1) dismissing, (2) self-protecting, (3) compliance-seeking, (4) capability-seeking, (5) caring, (6) strategizing and (7) transforming. Each stage is characterised by distinctive features, which are classified into three dimensions: knowledge and attitudinal dimensions (organisational sensitivity, drivers and management support), strategic dimensions (rationale behind CSR initiatives, social responsiveness and performance objectives) and tactical and operational dimensions (relationships with stakeholders, commitment of resources) (see Table 5, p. 31, Maon et al. (2010) for further details).

In the dismissing stage (1) there is an absence of CSR related actions, management does not support CSR and strategically there is no transparency (a 'black-box' posture (Maon et al., 2010)). In the self-protecting stage (2) (which comes under the cultural grasp phase), there is lack of awareness, little involvement of management and CSR activities lack coherence and are seen as window-dressing. In the compliance-seeking stage (3) CSR is perceived as an obligation, top management awareness increases, there is a focus on compliance meeting minimum industry standards and the responsibility of this falls on heads of departments/functions. In the capability-seeking stage (4), the final of the cultural grasp phase, there is a growing awareness of advantages that can come from CSR activities as the organisation opens up to more stakeholders. Additionally, the organisation will choose to demonstrate their CSR stance building on its increasing familiarity with CSR. In the caring stage (5) (which comes under the cultural embedment phase), there is active management of CSR issues, coordinated at a cross-functional level going beyond compliance. There is a shift to a stakeholder dialogue perspective and CSR is seen as beneficial. In the strategizing stage (6) CSR becomes the objective of all corporate activities and strategy. In the final stage of the model, the transforming stage (7), CSR is integrated into every aspect of the organisation, while culture and strategy have changed completely with a proactive commitment to human well-being and ecological sustainability.

Overall, as organisations move through phases/stages, changes are expected in motivations for CSR, stakeholder relationships become more externally oriented (with increasing transparency),

organisational cultural support of CSR increases, there is development of processes and practices, greater awareness and a longer term focus (see [Maon et al., 2010, p. 31](#) for details). The end stage results in an organisation, which “goes beyond its traditional business model and fully integrates CSR principles into every aspect of the organization and its activities” ([Maon et al., 2010, p. 33](#)).

Models, such as those discussed above are “an abstract representation of reality that is built, verified, analysed, and manipulated to support a particular purpose” ([Browning, 2010, p. 317](#)). Models are designed to support planning and decisions, to represent important aspects, illuminate dynamics and test hypotheses ([Browning, 2010](#)). However, [Epstein \(2008\)](#) calls for caution as “all the best models are wrong. . . fruitfully wrong. . . they are illuminating abstractions”. [Browning \(2010\)](#) suggests the models managers tend to use fulfil the criteria of being simple, complete, robust, easy to control and easy to interact with. However, the process of modelling has been criticised due to a lack of: (a) empirical validity as models are often simplistic ([Ditlev-Simonsen & Gottschalk, 2011](#)); (b) empirical evidence supporting theoretical claims and (c) involvement of actual stakeholders in the empirical measurement of theory ([Hillenbrand, Money, & Ghobadian, 2013](#)); as well as by-passing real-world validation and disconnect with practice ([Bendoly, 2008](#)). These issues can affect the generalisability of findings and hence, this paper seeks to examine a comprehensive CSR model in a natural context in a large heritage tourism organisation.

Regarding micro level environmental behaviour within organisations, past research has explored and measured employees' behaviour. Internal initiatives to encourage such behaviour have increased in recent years, as organisations strive to be more socially responsible ([Hansen et al., 2011](#)). Early studies of employee environmental behaviour compared directly with individuals' household environmental behaviour, but numerous differences exist regarding the motivation for employees' environmental behaviour in the workplace ([Andersson, Shivarajan, & Blau, 2005](#)). Generally, employees do not have the same financial interest in the workplace as they do at home, are not typically concerned with their energy usage, and have little knowledge of how much energy they use ([Siero, Bakker, Dekker, & van den Burg, 1996](#)). Nevertheless, [Carrico and Riemer \(2011\)](#) argue employees are a captive audience and, thus, can be targeted through low-costs means e.g. e-mails and e-newsletters.

Prior research has focused on broad individual and organisational factors that affect employee environmental behaviour and the success of internal social marketing interventions. Researched individual factors include: attitudes ([Chun et al., 2013](#)), norms ([Carrico & Riemer, 2011](#)), self-efficacy ([Smith & O'Sullivan, 2012](#)), habit ([Siero et al., 1996](#)), motivation ([Tudor, Barr, & Gilg, 2008](#)), knowledge ([Siero et al., 1996](#)) and socio-demographics ([Wehrmeyer & McNeil, 2000](#)). In tourism, [Chou's \(2014\)](#) study in the hotel industry found that personal environmental norms had the strongest effect on employees' environmental behaviours. The only study within heritage tourism, [Wells et al. \(2015\)](#) focused on employees' satisfaction with their environmental behaviour and highlighted the importance of knowledge and self-efficacy. Both studies took a largely quantitative approach to assessing employee environmental behaviour and did not assess the level of CSR development within the researched organisations.

There is clearly scope to test and potentially develop [Maon's et al. \(2010\)](#) consolidative model of CSR development, thus adding to the micro level CSR literature by focusing on employees' environmental behaviour, and visitors' perceptions. Therefore, this study contributes directly to limited literature at the micro level of tourism CSR research and responds to the critique of stage models through empirical real world validation.

This study is the first assessment of CSR properties using the consolidative model in tourism. An inductive qualitative methodology was employed—triangulating interpretive individual and group interviews ([Buda, 2015; Silverman, 2006](#)). This study's data was drawn from a large UK heritage tourism organisation, and was gathered by Global Action Plan; an environmental behaviour change charity (<http://www.globalactionplan.org.uk/>). Interviews were conducted on multiple sites in 2013. The organisation's sites were large estates with historic properties, maintained gardens, tea-rooms and gift shops, which the organisation owns and maintains for public enjoyment. The four sites were representative of the organisation's geographical spread, one being in the east, one in the midlands, one in the north and one in the south east of England. The interviews were neither designed, nor data collected with this specific CSR exploration in mind, which imposes some limitations. However, by using data, collected in a non-laboratory/field environment, our paper overcomes limitations of data collected

primarily for academic research, such as lack of realism, artificiality, and generalisability (Levitt & List, 2007; Schram, 2005).

Research methods

68 separate respondents, including employees, managers, volunteers, seasonal staff and visitors/tourists were interviewed both individually and in groups (at a private agreed location on site), as informants in groups can hold different perceptions about a given phenomenon than as individuals (Hudson & Ozanne, 1988) and this diversity exposed different people's opinions, interests and involvement. The interviews were semi-structured and ranged from short intercept style interviews to longer depth interviews. 12 interviews took place at the head office, eight at Site 1, eight at Site 2, ten at Site 3 and 13 at Site 4. The employee interviews covered a range of topics from environmental behaviours, use of equipment, individual and organisational motivations, CSR organisation and communication and what they felt could be done better. Visitor interviews focused on perceptions and expectations of the organisation and its environmental CSR, compared to other similar organisations and what they would like to see improved. The respondents were recruited through purposive sampling (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003) to ensure a balance of key roles (both managerial and visitor facing) and contract types (employees, seasonal workers and volunteers) (see Table 1).

Interviews were conducted with employees and visitors rather than relying on top management and corporate CSR statements because general staff are critically important to organisations, and despite their importance in CSR development, have received scant attention in the literature (Bolton et al., 2011; Hillenbrand et al., 2013). This is due to the aforementioned literature gap and because research from surveys and relying on public or media perceptions has failed to go beyond a "potentially unsubstantiated CSR-façade" (Baumann-Pault et al., 2013, p. 694). Moreover, researchers have questioned whether CSR commitment can be effectively disclosed through a company's sustainability/annual report (Mason & Simmons, 2011). Ditlev-Simonsen and Gottschalk (2011) note corporations can look equally CSR-engaged from the outside but, in fact, be at different stages of CSR engagement on the inside. Additionally, survey methods in CSR could fail to capture what is actually happening on the shop floor (Baumann-Pault et al., 2013). By using interviews, it was expected the study would capture the actual, rather than communicated, status of CSR, assess the organisational integration of CSR in daily practices and distinguish between CSR 'talk' and CSR 'walk' (Baumann-Pault et al., 2013). In addition, visitors were included in the sample to further triangulate the state of CSR within the organisation from an alternative perspective and to provide details on potentially more externally facing CSR elements, such as transparency, and building on work that highlights the importance of consumers' perceptions of CSR (Beckmann, 2007).

The interviews were audio-taped, transcribed verbatim, and confidentiality was assured. The participants were encouraged to explain their views, with themes driven from their narrative (Jafari, Taheri, & vom Lehn, 2013). Theoretical coding, based on the model was used to explore each phase/stage, while thematic analysis was used to identify new themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The analysis process was fluid, with codes modified as ideas developed. Results of the coding process along with coded interviews transcripts were shared between the researchers; enhancing the validity, integrity and consistency of our analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). There were few differences, which were resolved by group in-depth discussion guided by the model and the empirical material (Bradley, Curry, & Devers, 2007) to ensure the codes and themes were grounded in the data (Lyons, Emslie, & Hunt, 2014).

Study findings

The findings (detailed by interview #, see Table 1) are presented by each dimension of CSR development (see overview in Table 2) to identify the stage of development. Clear-cut evidence of the organisation's development stage was not always possible. Hence, the table shows stages where there is some evidence (✓) and considerable evidence (✓✓) to suggest how far the dimension is developed.

Table 1
Interview details.

Interview number (#)	Site	Respondent detail	Group/individual interview (number of respondents in group interview in brackets where applicable)
1	Head Office	Catering operations manager	Individual
2	Head Office	Catering/cafe General Staff	Individual
3	Head Office	Receptionist	Individual
4	Head Office	Shop staff	Group (2)
5	Head Office	Head of operational risk	Individual
6	Head Office	Head of Profession	Individual
7	Head Office	IT PMO	Individual
8	Head Office	Business Administrator	Individual
9	Head Office	Training Manager	Individual
10	Head Office	Online marketing	Individual
11	Head Office	Post room	Individual
12	Head Office	Central Operations Director	Individual
13	Head Office	Facilities Manager	Individual
14	Site 1	Building manager	Individual
15	Site 1	Bookshop Volunteer	Individual
16	Site 1	Seasonal staff member (reception)	Individual
17	Site 1	Building Maintenance Operative	Individual
18	Site 1	Gardeners	Group (2)
19	Site 1	Volunteer (reception)	Individual
20	Site 1	Building manager	Individual
21	Site 1	Kitchen/Catering Staff	Group (2)
22	Site 2	Gardening/maintenance & café, Various- Volunteers/Staff	Group (3)
23	Site 2	Gardener Volunteer	Group (3)
24	Site 2	Joiners	Group (2)
25	Site 2	General office Staff	Individual
26	Site 2	General Staff (also Green Team Lead)	Individual
27	Site 2	Shop Volunteer	Individual
28	Site 2	Shop Staff	Individual
29	Site 2	Catering manager	Individual
30	Site 3	Various Site Employees	Group (9)
31	Site 3	Shop Seasonal staff	Individual
32	Site 3	Guide Seasonal staff	Individual
33	Site 3	Seasonal staff	Individual
34	Site 3	Visitor	Individual
35	Site 3	Visitor	Individual
36	Site 3	Visitor	Individual
37	Site 3	Shop Seasonal staff	Individual
38	Site 4	Property manager	Individual
39	Site 4	Day manager	Individual
40	Site 4	Commercial Manager & Wedding and Functions Coordinator	Group (2)

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Interview number (#)	Site	Respondent detail	Group/individual interview (number of respondents in group interview in brackets where applicable)
41	Site 4	General site worker	Individual
42	Site 4	Tree surgeon	Individual
43	Site 4	Head gardener	Individual
44	Site 4	Shop manager	Individual
45	Site 4	Kitchen manager	Individual
46	Site 4	Visitors	Group (2)
47	Site 4	Visitors	Group (2)
48	Site 4	Visitors	Group (2)
49	Site 4	Visitors	Group (2)
50	Site 4	Book Shop Volunteer	Individual

Knowledge (K) and Attitudinal (A) dimensions

In [Maon's et al. \(2010\)](#) model, the K and A dimension is split into three parts: organizational sensitivity to CSR issues, drivers of CSR initiatives and support of top management.

Regarding organisational sensitivity, there is conflicting evidence as to the position of the organisation's development. There is evidence that financial benefits are a key motivating factor:

"I know the general aims. I know it's driven partly by cost." (#20)

"The energy efficiency target is the key thing. . . it's linked to our financial success." (#13)

but also that the organisation does see beyond this, suggesting that there is growing awareness of the advantages to be gained (suggesting compliance seeking):

"It would be money we're saving in the long term but . . . [it] would be for conservation and environmental issues rather than money." (#28)

"It's on its way to using its resources and recycling properly. . . it's got a long way to go." (#14)

Despite some knowledge within the organisation, this dimension has not reached the cultural embedment stage, as some sustainability measures have only been initiated while others are still being considered:

"Interviewee: They've started a Green Team and [name] has volunteered to put himself forward as a Green Champion. . . ."

Interviewer: What are the objectives. . . .?

Interviewee: We have a monthly meeting which is chaired by [name] with [name] so we set off on the simple things like turning electricity. . . . turn your computer, photocopier off as necessary. . . all basic things." (#23)

"Let me show you, were just going through the central plans at the moment there's another half to go and these are all the things we're asking properties to do next year already. . . it's a lot. Hence under the energy one at the moment we've just done conservation. . . it's the EMS [Environmental Management System] property efficiency actions and the six pilots for renewables. . . and the volunteering one. . . it will be good when it will happen." (#12)

The data showed a lack of clarity over whom or what is driving CSR initiative development (the second K&A dimension). There is confusion among staff and managers about how and if this is done (suggesting the self-protecting stage):

". . . it's probably bigger than that. . . I think it would need to be driven right from the top down not from the bottom up." (#18)

"Interviewer: I was as I say at [site 2] they've done such fantastic things in the kitchen, they've got a new catering manager in and he's reduced their energy consumption in the kitchen by about thirty eight percent. . . ."

Table 2
 Determination of the stage of CSR development.

Phase	Stage	Dimension of CSR development: Knowledge (K) and Attitudinal (A) dimensions			Dimension of CSR development: Strategic (S) Dimensions				Dimension of CSR development: Tactical (T) and Operational (O) Dimensions			
		Organizational sensitivity to CSR Issues	Driver of CSR initiative development	Support of top management	Social Responsiveness	Rationale behind CSR initiatives	Performance objectives	Transparency and reporting	Stakeholders Relationship	Resources Commitment	Structuring of CSR initiatives	Coordination of CSR issues
CSR Cultural Reluctance	1. Dismissing	✓	✓	✓				✓✓	✓✓			
CSR Cultural Grasp	2. Self-protecting	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓						✓✓		
	3. Compliance-seeking	✓✓	✓	✓				✓		✓✓	✓✓	✓
	4. Capability-seeking	✓				✓✓	✓✓				✓✓	✓
CSR Cultural Embedment	5. Caring	✓			*	✓	✓				✓	✓
	6. Strategizing											
	7. Transforming											

Note: ✓ means some evidence and ✓✓ means a substantial amount of evidence. * Employees at one site want this level of social responsiveness but there is no evidence to place the organisation on this dimension.

Interviewee: Who knows about it? How many other catering managers know what he did and how he did it?" (#12)

"...it's all very well having this strategy but it needs to be communicated through to the whole body. I just found out by myself what they're doing." (#33)

Regarding the support of top management (the third K&A dimension), the employees felt there is little support, who they also think should be driving initiatives:

"I suppose that's the ethos people are trying to establish but it's not coming from the top." (#33)

"The bulk won't happen unless leaderships behind it... There's just so much information around; if we want people to actually do it, it needs to come from their leader." (#12)

Moreover, despite knowing that "energy and energy conservation is...one of the main priorities...it's a case of something has to give..." (#40) as the real priority is "looking after the properties on site and sometimes it costs more to heat something and you can't do nothing about it" (#17) and the general lack of support from management suggests on this dimension the organisation is at the self-protecting stage.

Thus, based on the K&A dimension it appears that the organisation is in the cultural grasp phase but it is not clear at what stage, as some evidence for each of its 3 stages was found (although focused more on self-protecting and compliance-seeking stages) but none of the stages appeared to emerge as the dominant one.

Strategic (S) dimension

The Strategic (S) dimension is split into four sections: Social Responsiveness, Rationale behind CSR initiatives, Performance objectives, and Transparency and reporting.

The data provides little evidence of social responsiveness (the first S dimension) and it is not possible to place this organisation on this dimension. However, there is some evidence suggesting a wish for some level of proactive approach, which corresponds to the cultural embedment phase. However, this cannot be seen across the organisation but rather just for one of the sites.

"We litter pick everybody else's rubbish;...I've got an agreement with [local] County Council where I proactively request a tipping licence because we're a charity to go and recycle it properly." (#30)

Concerning the rationale behind CSR initiatives (the second S dimension), the data shows its manifestation within the compliance stage. This compliance is aligned with external drivers such as policy-makers ("It's driven partly by cost and partly because we need to do it and I know there's government targets" (#14)) but also by internal factors such as the organisation's mission, principles and ethos. Such an alignment between CSR and the organisation's values, norms and mission would also be an effective strategy to pursue (see [Maon et al., 2009](#); [Valenti et al., 2014](#)):

"I would see it going quite hand in hand with the overall conservation principles...in that we're not necessarily just here to look after this building for today...it needs to be looked after forever..." (#14)

"...you don't preserve and conserve things by polluting everywhere so it does fit really well the ethos." (#5)

The findings regarding performance objectives (the third S dimension), seem to situate the organisation within the compliance seeking stage, largely dictated by the changing norms and rules:

"They've just changed the sandwich boxes to sandwich bags as far as I am aware they are bio degradable but I don't know how...I know that was a consideration when they were doing it, I don't know again if it's part of the bigger picture...just that's what you must buy so I'm assuming its bio degradable." (#45)

Moreover, there is also evidence for a potential move into the capability stage as several employees have identified CSR initiatives that could be taken but which have not been initiated yet by staff or management:

“One of the ones I would like to see is a kill switch for the lights, so it’s a case of house done. . . every thing’s off! You don’t run the risk of having lights left on accidentally.” (#14)

“Yeah we could. . . I think we should harness water at the lake, a corkscrew system to generate electricity.” (#18)

Finally, regarding transparency and reporting (the last S dimension) there is evidence this is very poor, in many cases reflecting cultural reluctance:

“I think we’re pretty poor as an organisation about sharing knowledge and learning.” (#6)

“Interviewer: Do you ever hear anything about the X’s environmental initiatives or the energy KPI’s or anything like that?

Interviewee: Not really. . .no.” (#41)

“Interviewer: During your visit today or in the past have you noticed anything the site is doing to cut its energy use or reduce its environmental impact?

Interviewee: I haven’t noticed to be honest. . .no.” (#49)

There is some internal reporting of environmental initiatives, implying some development into the cultural grasp stage with meetings compliance: “We have a weekly Tuesday meeting and the energy efficiency scores. . . are given at those meetings” (#25) and an understanding that more should be done.

A move to the caring stage and dialogue with other stakeholders appears to be welcomed by managers as “it would be a good idea to be seen to be energy efficient. . . how we are careful with resources and certainly to offer advice to the public.” (#14) but also something that visitors are expecting to see as “they could publicise what they’re doing...And maybe talk a bit more about the importance of the environment and. . . well, energy saving.” (#36)

Tactical (T) and Operational (O) dimensions

The Tactical (T) and Operational (O) dimension is split into four sections: Stakeholders Relationship, Resources Commitment, Structuring of CSR initiatives and Coordination of CSR issues.

The relationship between the organisation and its stakeholders appears to be very different depending on the particular stakeholder, and hence it is difficult to accurately pinpoint the level of development regarding stakeholders. However, the particular stakeholder relationships that were commented on appear primarily contractual and pinpoint towards the self-protecting stage:

“There is very, very little contact between [head office] and the [organisation]...there’s very little contact between the [organisation] and the town.” (#6)

“We only get a licence because we’re saying we’re picking up litter from open space properties and the council helps us because we’re actually doing their job. They give us a licence because it’s rubbish off the coast.” (#30)

Resources commitment (the second T&O dimension) translates largely into budgeting for problems as they emerge, as “. . . quite often it’s up until the last sort of stop gap in doing things, rather than have enough money to plan and do what you want” (#43), which alludes to the early cultural grasp phase. There seems to be a good level of awareness about the advantages of environmental CSR initiatives as some employees have expressed a wish for additional actions and resources to be employed:

“We could go round and insulate things. . . reduce the amount of boilers. . . ground water systems, grey water. . . in an ideal world, we know we would like to do them but its setting it all up and paying for it.” (#43)

Structuring and coordination of CSR initiatives (the third T&O dimension) varies across the organisation’s sites with employees largely complying to various initiatives/policies (e.g., the Environmental Management System and the Green Team) despite a perceived lack of knowledge/understanding, training and effectiveness:

“We acknowledge we still don’t understand well our meters and what’s telling us what. . .” (#38)

“There was a big push. . .to hibernate them [computers] but it takes just as long to wake them up from hibernate as it does to turn them on. . .the systems [are] very slow so if you turn it off it can take ten, fifteen minutes to get it back again.” (#13)

The development and integration of these programmes should be welcomed by the organisation as [Yoo and Chon \(2013\)](#) suggests that, when exclusive CSR teams are in place, CSR activities are more successful. The programmes suggest that environmental initiatives are developing well, but there is a need for environmental knowledge/literacy among employees ([Siero et al., 1996](#); [Wells et al., 2015](#)) for the systems to work: “if people don’t know they [systems] are there and don’t know how to use them, they’re not going to work, so I think part of it is education” (#14). Thus, suggesting that this dimension sits within the compliance seeking stage.

Coordination policies, activities and programmes (the fourth T&O dimension) have partially reached a multi and cross-functional level (largely with the initiatives outlined above) pointing towards the capability-seeking stage and in some cases the caring-stage. Despite this proactive behaviour, the coordination does not seem to move beyond the caring stage as it appears to be within sites and not across the entire organisation. Thus, the strategizing and transforming stages of cultural embedment have not been reached:

“[X] set up a [environmental] working group of one from each department; it has more impact if I’ve got five people each from each department then I would expect the house to tackle their bit, the office tackle their bit, the gardeners tackle their bit.” (#38—site 4)

Across all dimensions (see [Table 2](#)) the organisation seems to be in the CSR cultural grasp Phase while making some progression towards cultural embedment of CSR. However, it is not completely clear at which stage within the CSR cultural grasp phase the organisation sits. The prominence of CSR seems to suggest the organisation is at the Compliance Seeking stage where there is a ‘requirements/CSR as worthy of interest perspective’. Nonetheless, some elements are clearly moving towards the Capability Seeking where CSR is influential ([Maon et al., 2010](#)). Some dimensions are lagging behind, with Transparency and Reporting and Stakeholder Relationships requiring the most work to drive the development of CSR forward. A significant cultural shift is required to move the organisation fully into the cultural embedment phase, as a number of staff respondents were relatively insular and saw environmental issues as very separate from their job role. As the catering operations managers confesses: “I’m more focused in what I do in my job, the [organisation] is not an organisation I have any empathy or feeling towards, cos I just come in and do my job” (#1). However, among other employees there was an understanding that successful CSR development must be rooted in job roles:

“I think making more of its staff environmentally aware; aware even if your own personal job is software programmes or something. . .the subject matter of the organisation it’s relevant. . .but somehow we’re missing out on the inspirational somewhere.” (#6)

Barriers and enablers

The interviews also highlighted barriers and enablers that could influence the transition through the stages of CSR development. Similar barriers were observed compared to other studies, which include lack of resources and understanding ([Coles et al., 2013](#)), technical barriers, top management organisational barriers (“we have like a duty of care I suppose but we’ve no authority to alter them or change them or anything like that” (#18); [Bohdanowicz et al., 2011](#)) and expense ([Frey & George, 2010](#)). Additionally, both barriers and enablers specific to heritage tourism were highlighted relating to the infrastructure, age and type of properties. This can affect environmental decisions or their acceptance: “. . .when we got all the Phillips light bulbs in the castle was that very few were suitable for some historic light fittings” (#30); while a building manager said that:

“The advantage for us is [the new energy efficient light bulbs] don’t emit ultraviolet light which is the most damaging part of the spectrum. . . .the reduced load on the electrical circuit of the house is a bonus because of the reduced fire risk.” (#14)

Reconciling the desire for environmentally friendly measures and the needs of historic buildings is probably one of the biggest challenges because they are “dealing with historic light fittings in terms of low wattage (#41)” and while “it would be lovely if you could [put a solar panel on the roof] . . . there is an impact on the appearance of the building.” (#30) These barriers and enablers would generally influence the adoption of CSR in a heritage tourism context, as such organisations would be concerned more with the safety/protection of the buildings over the environment (Starr, 2013).

The data also showed that employees can act as an environmental catalyst (Hillenbrand et al., 2013) and could be motivated by financial savings. Also reinvestment in the organisation (“if they saved the money on energy then they could actually spend the money on things that need to be done” (#16)) would be perceived as “linked to our financial success. . . [and] a double win” (#12). Seeing this connection serves as an incentive for increased employee engagement. This connection is particularly salient for seasonal staff and volunteers that appear to be less engaged and have fewer suggestions for eco-initiatives than permanent staff, which could be due to a reduced level of commitment and perceived connection with the organisation (Kim, Aryee, Loi, & Kim, 2013).

Discussion

The present findings highlight a number of issues raised by Maon et al. (2010) regarding their model. As they note, the model must be apprehended flexibly and differing aspects of the organisation might “relate preceding or subsequent cultural phase or organizational stage” (p. 34), which is certainly supported here. However, the results were not always just the subsequent stage with evidence often across a range of stages in a number of dimensions. While the model performed well in reflecting its properties in the heritage tourism case, some findings demonstrate the difficulty in placing the organisation under some dimensions within the model, and that some issues specific to heritage tourism require discussion outside the model's parameters.

Firstly, both the academic literature and respondents' views show that tourism organisations are different from commercial organisations regarding their rationale behind CSR initiatives. Tourism literature has shifted from economic profit motives towards sustainability (Jamrozny, 2007) and intergenerational/inheritance aspects of tourism sustainability (Chhabra, 2009). The respondents' comments suggest that fit with the organisations mission and values and energy efficiency are important drivers. On the other hand, customer demands, legislation and the business case do not appear to be as central as expected. This finding implies that the suggested competitive advantage and value proposition may not be as relevant to heritage tourism in the cultural embedment phase. Hence, this dimension may need adjustment to suit this sector. Perhaps focusing on sustainability of the properties via cost savings which is noted as a potential enabler of CSR development. This may also start to explain the difficulty found in situating the organisation in terms of social responsiveness. If the social groups to which the organisation needs to be responsive differ from commercial organisations (e.g., local communities may be more important than shareholders) and also include future generations, this dimension needs further investigation in the tourism context. Barriers and characteristics specific to the heritage tourism context might require an adaptation of the model, which could be pursued by future research.

Secondly, tourism serves both entertainment and educational roles to varying degrees (Chhabra, 2009). Heritage buildings serve the latter role by educating present and future generations about the past and a nation's legacy (Park, 2010). While the diffusion of expertise is included within the Strategic dimension (performance objectives) of the final phase (cultural embedment), this placement may be too late for tourism organisations heavily invested in an educational role. Instead, it should be embedded earlier within the cultural grasp phase, and this dimension likely needs adapting for heritage tourism. Additionally, heritage tourism's educational role also affects the extent/types of stakeholder relationships linked to CSR development, especially for local communities. For example, a study exploring the collaboration of a U.S. college and a sustainable community suggests educational partnerships with communities are an effective method to foster sustainable attitudes and practices (Allen-Gil, Walker, Thomas, Shevory, & Elan, 2005).

Thirdly, support offered by top management requires further consideration. For the present heritage organisation, top management support was weak, and, thus situates it in the self-protecting phase. However, the employees' responses highlight desire for management support, and they seek empowerment to take environmental actions. One respondent noted "we have like a duty of care I suppose but we've no authority to alter them or change them" (#18) reflecting that, in the absence of support or clear guidance, responsibility to act might best motivate the employees. This attitude aligns with the importance of self-efficacy in sustainable behaviour (Wells et al., 2015). Limited empowerment and responsibility may also be a result of loose interactions between the different actors (i.e., managers, seasonal staff and employees) within the organisation who interact loosely with each other, but with this interaction not representing a sense of belonging to the organisation. Rather it is representative of a type of 'clique' (Rocha, 2012), which is a connection between a subset of actors within the organisation. Moreover, instead of a 'tightly knit' clique (Rocha, 2012) driven by environmental and social concerns, this interaction appears to be loose at both site and organisational levels. This arrangement may have resulted in respondents not taking responsibility for their actions, and may be further accentuated because of the large numbers of volunteers and seasonal workers (in turn affecting CSR coordination). Additionally, the barriers serve as a disincentive for employees to take responsibility. Changing this mind-set requires clear and consistent internal communications and support from top management. This also suggests the move to the CSR cultural embedment stage might be a challenge, unless these interactions and cultural elements are made more concrete and focused.

Limitations

This research is not without limitations and opportunities for future studies. Firstly, while the study accounted for the views of both employees and visitors, fewer visitors were included in the data collection. Hence further data from visitors should be collected allowing a comparison between visitors and employees perspectives. Additionally, it would be useful to compare these viewpoints with the media and external stakeholder perceptions of the organisation's environmental CSR strategy. Moreover, while volunteers and seasonal workers were included within the sample, it would be worthwhile to further study how volunteers and seasonal workers viewpoints and behaviour may differ from full time employees. Additionally, length of service and position in the organisation hierarchy have been shown to affect the environmental behaviour of employees (Wehrmeyer & McNeil, 2000) and should be included in further studies. Moreover, the interviews took place across only 4 sites and the head office. It is clear that with potential inter-site differences (as highlighted above), choosing a different sample of sites might highlight different issues and further research should consider possible site and functional differences (the meso level: Mason & Simmons, 2011). Secondly, as social responsiveness was difficult to determine further research should be focused in this area, through assessment of other organisations (using qualitative methods) to determine whether the difficulty in determining this dimension is universal across organisation types. If so, future studies could provide examples of social responsiveness at each phase/stage to allow easier identification. Additionally, it may be that social responsiveness requires individual attention in the CSR development process and future research could utilise mixed methods to examine this dimension in more detail. Thirdly, further research is required to assess whether the CSR dimensions of each model phase might change across cultures (e.g., different countries) and distinct tourism sectors (e.g., hotels, airlines). Finally it would be useful to further extend the research using a quantitative methodology to validate the model in a wider range of heritage tourism organisations and to further develop the model in these contexts.

Conclusion

This paper sought to explore whether the consolidative model of CSR development is reflected in environmental CSR in heritage tourism by utilising both employees' and visitors' viewpoints, via qualitative methods.

The analysis was guided by three research objectives. Firstly, the paper sought to explore whether the CSR properties outlined in the model were reflected in the heritage tourism organisation. Even

though the data were not collected with this analysis in mind, all dimensions of the model (except social responsiveness) were identified in the organisation. Social responsiveness was difficult to determine which may be due to issues noted above.

Secondly, the project sought to assess whether or not the CSR stage of development could be identified within the organisation. Positioning the organisation within the 3-phase model was relatively straightforward and, therefore within the CSR cultural grasp phase. However, pinpointing the exact stage of development within the 7-stage model was far more difficult. Using Maon's et al.'s (2010) dimensions, complemented by the stage descriptors, the organisation's stage appears to straddle two stages (i.e., Self-protecting and Compliance-seeking). However, the data show that certain sites or functions might lie at other stages of development. As previously noted, managers often seek models that are simple to use and offer easy interaction (Browning, 2010), so the three phase model may be a good starting point for an organisation of this type, at least initially.

Finally, the paper sought to determine strategies that could further the organisation's CSR development. The model has allowed a comprehensive audit to take place (Ditlev-Simonsen & Gottschalk, 2011; Maon et al., 2009) and to assess where the organisation is lagging behind in CSR development i.e. Transparency and Reporting and Stakeholder Relationships. It is clear the organisation needs to work carefully on these two factors to develop them further. This could be facilitated by better communication between managers and employees (and visitors), a better sense of cohesion (i.e. stronger "clique") between all types of staff, and by building on the values of the organisation.

The findings also show the organisation needs to make a significant shift towards the third phase (i.e., cultural embedment) to ensure continued development. Implementing this change implies a shift in focus for all organisational aspects. As Maon et al. (2009) suggest, success requires aligning the CSR programme with the values, norms and mission of the organisation, and embedding them deeply in management practice. This approach has been successful in other tourism industry areas. For example, internal communication and training are considered key to successful companies' such as Singapore Airlines. This method works because they are "founded on strong corporate values, internal communication and training [which] can help transform key employees... into 'walking embodiments' of the core values" (Chong, 2007, p.201). The present findings also highlight the need to develop an integrated CSR-enabling structure, improve coordination within and between sites and ensure that sufficient training and skills are in place across the organisation. Without this alignment, activities could fail (Hillenbrand et al., 2013).

Thus, it can be concluded the model is relevant in the context of heritage tourism and that it is relatively straightforward to show which dimensions of the model are reflected in the organisation. However, for some dimensions unique characteristics of heritage tourism make some model elements difficult to identify. Further model refinement appears necessary to better fit the sector.

References

- Aguinis, H., & Glavas, A. (2012). What we know and don't know about corporate social responsibility: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 38(4), 932–968.
- Aguinis, H. (2011). Organizational responsibility: Doing good and doing well. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 3, pp. 855–879). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Allen-Gil, S., Walker, L., Thomas, G., Shevory, T., & Elan, S. (2005). Forming a community partnership to enhance education in sustainability. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher Education*, 6(4), 392–402.
- Andersson, L., Shivarajan, S., & Blau, G. (2005). Enacting ecological sustainability in the MNC: A test of an adapted value-belief-norm framework. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 59, 295–305.
- Ayuso, S. (2006). Adoption of voluntary environmental tools for sustainable tourism: Analysing the experience of Spanish hotels. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 13, 207–220.
- Baumann-Pault, D., Wickert, C., Spence, L. J., & Scherer, A. G. (2013). Organizing corporate social responsibility in small and large firms: Size matters. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 115, 693–705.
- Beckmann, S. C. (2007). Consumers and corporate social responsibility: Matching the unmatchable? *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 15(1), 27–37.
- Bendoly, E. (2008). Silver bullet junkies and the codifiers that love them: Behavioral roots behind a legacy of bad modelling and use. *Decision Sciences*, 39(2), 157–173.
- Bohdanowicz, P., Zientara, P., & Novotna, E. (2011). International hotel chains and environmental protection: An analysis of Hilton's we care! programme (Europe 2006–2008). *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(7), 797–816.
- Bolton, S. C., Kim, R. C.-h., & O'Gorman, K. D. (2011). Corporate social responsibility as a dynamic internal organizational process: A case study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 101(1), 61–74.

- Bradley, E. H., Curry, L. A., & Devers, K. J. (2007). Qualitative data analysis for health services research: Developing taxonomy, themes, and theory. *Health Services Research*, 42(4), 1758–1772.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77–101.
- Browning, T. R. (2010). On the alignment of the purposes and views of process models in project management. *Journal of Operations Management*, 28, 316–332.
- Buda, D. M. (2015). The death of drive in tourism studies. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 50, 39–51.
- Calabrese, A., Costa, R., Menichini, T., & Rosati, F. (2012). A positioning matrix to assess and to develop CSR strategies. *International Journal of Social, Management, Economics and Business Engineering*, 6(9), 344–350.
- Carrico, A. R., & Riemer, M. (2011). Motivating energy conservation at the workplace: An evaluation of the use of group-level feedback and peer education. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 31(1), 1–13.
- Caruana, R., Glozer, S., Crane, A., & McCabe, S. (2014). Tourists' accounts of responsible tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 46, 115–129.
- Chhabra, D. (2009). Proposing a sustainable marketing framework for heritage tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 303–320.
- Chong, M. (2007). The role of internal communication and training in infusing corporate values and delivering brand promise: Singapore Airlines' experience. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 10(3), 201–212.
- Chou, C.-J. (2014). Hotels' environmental policies and employee personal environmental beliefs: Interactions and outcomes. *Tourism Management*, 40, 436–446.
- Chun, J. S., Shin, Y., Choi, J. N., & Kim, M. S. (2013). How does corporate ethics contribute to firm financial performance? The mediating role of Collective Organizational Commitment and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Management*, 39(4), 853–877.
- Coles, T., Fenclova, E., & Dinan, C. (2011). Responsibilities, recession and the tourism sector: Perspectives on CSR among low-fares airlines during the economic downturn in the UK. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(6), 519–536.
- Coles, T., Fenclova, E., & Dinan, C. (2013). Tourism and corporate social responsibility: A critical review and research agenda. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 6, 122–141.
- Costa, R., & Menichini, T. (2013). A multidimensional approach for CSR assessment: The importance of the stakeholder perception. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 40, 150–161.
- Dahlsrud, A. (2008). How corporate social responsibility is defined: An analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 15, 1–13.
- Deery, M., Jago, L., & Stewart, M. (2007). Corporate social responsibility within the hospitality industry. *Tourism Review International*, 1, 107–114.
- Ditlev-Simonsen, C. C., & Gottschalk, P. (2011). Stages of growth model for corporate social responsibility. *International Journal of Corporate Governance*, 2(3/4), 268–287.
- Du Cros, H. (2001). A new model to assist in planning for sustainable cultural heritage tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(2), 165–170.
- Edwards, D. (2007). Corporate social responsibility of large urban museums: The contribution of volunteer programs. *Tourism Review International*, 11, 167–174.
- Epstein, J. M. (2008). Why model? *Journal of Artificial Societies and Social Simulation*, 11(2), 12. Accessed online: <http://jasss.soc.surrey.ac.uk/11/4/12.html>.
- Frey, N., & George, R. (2010). Responsible tourism management: The missing link between business owners' attitudes and behaviour in the Cape Town tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, 31, 621–628.
- Gardiner, L., Rubbens, C., & Bonfiglioli, E. (2003). Big business, big responsibilities. *Corporate Governance*, 3(3), 67–77.
- Hansen, S. D., Dunford, B. B., Boss, A. D., Boss, R. W., & Angermeier, I. (2011). Corporate social responsibility and the benefits of employee trust: A cross-disciplinary perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 102(1), 29–45.
- Henderson, J. C. (2007). Corporate social responsibility and tourism: Hotel companies in Phuket, Thailand, after the Indian Ocean tsunami. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(1), 228–239.
- Hillenbrand, C., Money, K., & Ghobadian, A. (2013). Unpacking the mechanism by which corporate responsibility impacts stakeholder relationships. *British Journal of Management*, 24, 127–146.
- Hudson, L. A., & Ozanne, J. L. (1988). Alternative ways of seeking knowledge in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(4), 508–521.
- Inoue, Y., & Lee, S. (2011). Effects of different dimensions of corporate social responsibility on corporate financial performance in tourism-related industries. *Tourism Management*, 32, 790–804.
- Jafari, A., Taheri, B., & vom Lehn, D. (2013). Cultural consumption, interactive sociality and the museum. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29(15–16), 1729–1752.
- Jamroz, U. (2007). Marketing of tourism: A paradigm shift toward sustainability. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality*, 1(2), 117–130. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/17506180710751669>.
- Kasim, A., & Ismail, A. (2012). Environmentally friendly practices among restaurants: Drivers and barriers to change. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(4), 551–570.
- Kim, T. Y., Aryee, S., Loi, R., & Kim, S. P. (2013). Person–organization fit and employee outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(19), 3719–3737.
- Lee, M.-D. P. (2008). A review of the theories of corporate social responsibility: Its evolutionary path and the road ahead. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 10(1), 53–73.
- Lee, T. H., Jan, F.-H., & Yang, C.-C. (2013). Conceptualising and measuring environmentally responsible behaviours from the perspective of community-based tourists. *Tourism Management*, 36, 454–468.
- Levitt, S. D., & List, J. A. (2007). What do laboratory experiments measuring social preferences reveal about the real world? *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 21(2), 153–174.
- Lyons, A. C., Emslie, C., & Hunt, K. (2014). Staying 'in the zone' but not passing the 'point of no return': Embodiment, gender and drinking in mid-life. *Sociology of Health and Illness*, 36(2), 264–277.
- Maon, F., Lindgreen, A., & Swaen, V. (2009). Designing and implementing corporate social responsibility: An integrative framework grounded in theory and practice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 87, 71–89.

- Maon, F., Lindgreen, A., & Swaen, V. (2010). Organizational stages and cultural phases: A critical review and a consolidative model of corporate social responsibility development. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12(1), 20–38.
- Mason, C., & Simmons, J. (2011). Forward looking or looking unaffordable? Utilising academic perspectives on corporate social responsibility to assess the factors influencing its adoption by business. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 20(2), 159–176.
- Nicolau, J. L. (2008). Corporate social responsibility: Worth-creating activities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(4), 990–1006.
- Park, H. Y. (2010). Heritage tourism: Emotional journeys into nationhood. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(1), 116–135.
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., & Elam, G. (2003). Designing and selecting samples. In J. Ritchie & J. Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social students and researchers*. London: Sage Publications.
- Rocha, J. M. (2012). Business groups as hierarchical clique structures: A conceptual and methodological discussion as it applies to the Mexican experience. *British Journal of Management*, 23, 291–306.
- Salome, L. R., van Bottenburg, M., & van den Heuvel, M. (2013). 'We are as green as possible': Environmental responsibility in commercial artificial settings for lifestyle sports. *Leisure Studies*, 32(2), 173–190.
- Schram, A. (2005). Artificiality: The tension between internal and external validity in economic experiments. *Journal of Economic Methodology*, 12(2), 225–237.
- Siero, F. W., Bakker, A. B., Dekker, G. B., & van den Burg, M. T. C. (1996). Changing organizational energy consumption behaviour through comparative feedback. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 16(3), 235–246.
- Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analysing talk, text and interaction*. London: Sage.
- Smith, A. M., & O'Sullivan, T. (2012). Environmentally responsible behaviour at the workplace: An internal social marketing approach. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28(3–4), 469–493.
- Starr, F. (2013). *Corporate responsibility for cultural heritage: Conservation, sustainable development and corporate reputation*. UK: Routledge.
- Tudor, T. L., Barr, S. W., & Gilg, A. W. (2008). A novel conceptual framework for examining environmental behaviour in large organisations: A case study of the Cornwall National Health Service (NHS) in the United Kingdom. *Environment and Behaviour*, 40(3), 426–450.
- Valenti, A., Carden, L. L., & Boyd, R. O. (2014). Corporate social responsibility and businesses: Examining the criteria for effective corporate implementation utilizing case studies. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(3), 1–14.
- Weaver, D. B. (2014). Asymmetrical dialectics of sustainable tourism: Toward enlightened mass tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(2), 131–140.
- Weber, M. (2008). The business case for corporate social responsibility: A company-level measurement approach for CSR. *European Management Journal*, 26, 247–261.
- Wehrmeyer, W., & McNeil, M. (2000). Activists, pragmatists, technophiles and tree-huggers? Gender differences in employees' environmental attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 28(3), 211–222.
- Wells, V. K., Manika, D., Gregory-Smith, D., Taheri, B., & McCowlen, C. (2015). Heritage tourism CSR and the role of employee environmental behaviour. *Tourism Management*, 48, 399–413.
- Yoo, J. M., & Chon, M. L. (2013). The effects of CSR activities on firms' financial performance: Investigating in terms of CSR development stages. *Journal of Convergence Information Technology*, 8(12), 414–418.