# THE 5th ADVANCES IN HOSPITALITY & TOURISM MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT (AHTMM) CONFERENCE

## 18-21 June 2015

## Beppu, Japan

**Edited by**

**Dogan Gursoy, Medet Yolal, Timothy Lee**

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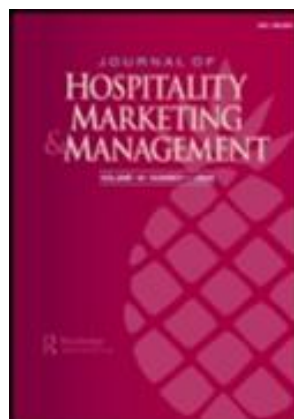## 18-21 June 2015

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# PROCEEDINGS

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# Preface

On behalf of the organizing committee, it is our pleasure to welcome you to the "5thAdvances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference" hosted by Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) and Washington State University. The event will take place in Beppu, Japan at outstanding facilities of Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) between June 18 and June 21, 2015. I am sure that all of us will have unforgettable experiences during this conference.

Our vision for this scientific meeting is to create an international platform for balanced academic research with practical applications for the hospitality and tourism industry, in order to foster synergetic interaction between academia and industry. During this conference, presenters will submit their latest research findings on hospitality and tourism marketing and management. It is our sincere hope that those research presentations will contribute to knowledge and theory of hospitality and tourism marketing and management as distinct, multifaceted fields approached through the administrative disciplines, the liberal arts, and the social sciences. Furthermore, this conference will provide an outlet for innovative studies that will make a significant contribution to the understanding, practice, and education of hospitality and tourism marketing and management. We strongly believe that presentations scheduled throughout the conference and the papers published in the conference proceedings will have a significant contribution to the dissemination of knowledge while serving as a unique international forum for both industry and academia.

The conference addresses a wide range of issues that are crucial for today's world. Studying a multi-faceted and hybrid industry like hospitality and tourism requires us to examine issues related to both supply and demand. Therefore, during this conference and in this proceedings book, you will see presentations and papers that examine a wide range of topics such as marketing, management, consumer behavior, planning and development, issues related to sustainability and the use of technology, etc. It is our hope that, during this conference, a clear picture of the hospitality and tourism industry is developed. In addition, we are sure that the papers included will identify the complex and interrelated issues that the sector faces every day and propose sound solutions to some of those problems.

The organizing committee has spent countless hours to put this conference together. We would like to express our sincere gratitude and thanks to all the organizing committee members who graciously volunteered their time and effort to put this amazing conference together. We would also like to extend our appreciation and sincere gratitude to the international scientific committee members who worked to ensure the quality of the papers. Without the organizing committee and the help of international scientific committee, we could not have this conference.

On behalf of the organizing committee, we would like to welcome you again to the "5th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference". We hope that your will enjoy Japanese hospitality while attending the conference and have an unforgettable stay in Beppu.

Dogan Gursoy, Ph.D.                                             Timothy Lee, Ph.D.

Washington State University                        Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University
Conference Co-Chair                                           Conference Co-Chair

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# ALTERNATIVE TOURISM

# 50 SHADES OF GREEN – ECOTOURISM IN THE NEW SINGAPORE TOURISM LANDSCAPE

Aaron Tham
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## ABSTRACT

The *City in a Garden* agenda has been a national priority for Singapore to create green spaces on the land scarce island state by 2016 (National Parks Board, 2011). The primary intent of the agenda is to enable locals and tourists to enjoy nature-based activities amidst the concrete skyscrapers that has often characterised Singapore (Yuen, 1996). In light of the national movement towards 2016, recent tourism developments in Singapore have utilised various terms associated with ecotourism across different exemplars. This working paper is concerned with examining how ecotourism has been characterised and exploring the commitment of these enterprises towards ecotourism accreditation.

Key Words: Ecotourism, Singapore, Accreditation, Nature-based tourism

## INTRODUCTION

There have been numerous attempts to define ecotourism (Bjork, 2000; Blamey, 1997; Diamantis & Ladkin, 1999; Donohoe & Needham, 2006; Fennell, 2001; Sirakaya, Sasidharan & Sonmez, 1999; Valentine, 1993). For instance, Blamey (1997) expressed that ecotourism is to be understood as concerted attempts at maintaining the bio-diversity of the environment. Hence, Sirakaya *et al.* (1999) contended that ecotourism should be framed from a supply-side perspective given that the onus of managing ecotourism lies with service providers. For this reason, the positioning of ecotourism definitions has reflected the enlarged responsibilities of organisations to serve broader interests such as socio-cultural and economic sustainability (Diamantis & Ladkin, 1999; Donohoe & Needham, 2006). However, the loosely held interpretations of ecotourism have been criticised for lacking clarity and perpetuating problems related to accountability (Bjork, 2001; Fennell, 2001). Goodwin (1996) asserted that any definition of ecotourism should be strictly adopted within specified guidelines. Clearly, literature has demonstrated that the definition of ecotourism is a slippery one. Rather than dwelling on the definitional differences, other scholars have instead focused on characterising ecotourism practices across a spectrum (Buckley, 1994; Orams, 1995; Weaver, 2005). Yet, despite the disagreements as to what ecotourism means, a common theme derived from extant studies has illustrated the overall goals towards the sustainability of a destination (Muller, 2000; Ross & Wall, 1999; Sharpley, 2006; Wight, 1993).

One way to demonstrate the commitment towards ecotourism has been the practice of accreditation (Buckley, 2002; Medina, 2005; Wearing, 1995). There are several types of accreditations around the world, where the origins were laid in Australia in the form of a National Ecotourism Accreditation Program (NEAP) in 1996 (McArthur, 1997; Newson, 2001). At the core of the NEAP is a set of guiding principles that equip enterprises with an understanding of how ecotourism should be delivered. The origins of the NEAP have been a driving force in the creation of an *ECO certification* program that has been widely adopted across the country. Under the guidance of Ecotourism Australia (www.ecotourism.org.au), a non-profit organisation, any enterprise may apply for ECO certification that is divided into three levels – Nature tourism, Ecotourism or Advanced Ecotourism. The distinguishing factor among the three levels should be framed as to the types of experiences an ecotourist has. For instance, an Advanced Ecotourism certification embodies strong interpretation cues

whereas Nature tourism certification is more aligned with minimalistic ecotourism practices (Honey, 2003; Perkins & Grace, 2009). As such, the different levels of ECO certification should not be perceived as one being superior to the other. Rather, the differences are reflected in the types of ecotourism experiences delivered (Linson & Getz, 1996; Warnken, Bradley & Guilding, 2005). Accreditation serves twofold benefits. One, tourists can apply eco-certified labels as a proxy in selecting desired ecotourism outcomes (Jamal, Borges & Stronza, 2006; Lee & Moscardo, 2005). Two, organisations know that they have delivered on a prescribed set of standards and practices to achieve ecotourism outcomes (Dowling, 2000; Matysek & Kriwoken, 2003). While ecotourism accreditation is clearly beneficial, there have been problems in relation to implementation. This is because each ecotourism enterprise differs in scope and that there is no universally accepted standard for accreditation (Haaland & Aas, 2010; Malloy & Fennell, 1998). Furthermore, Font, Sanabria and Skinner (2003) highlighted that some tourists hold ambivalent attitudes towards ecotourism, particularly when the destination under consideration is from a developing country. Instead, such tourists are primarily attracted to the novelty of visiting countries with different cultures, and often where the cost of visitation is much lower (Sasidharan, Sirakaya & Kerstetter, 2002). Ecotourism then becomes an added incentive to visit such a destination. The literature reveals that accreditation is a valuable process to show ecotourism commitment, yet there is a clear lack of clarity as to whose perspective to adopt and the comparability of different ecotourism measures across different contexts. Nonetheless, Ecotourism Australia's certification looks at not only environmental efforts but also the social and cultural initiatives of operators.  Supporting environmental conservation, local communities and traditional local culture is also a requirement of all Ecotourism and Advanced Ecotourism level operators. This may show that drivers of ecotourism are not merely focused on the natural environment, which is a myopic view of its potential benefits.

Existing literature has also revealed some conceptual frameworks to further the understanding of ecotourism (Boyd & Butler, 1996; Hvenegaard, 1994; Weaver & Lawton, 2007; Ziffer, 1989). For example, Ziffer (1989) conceptualised ecotourism from a supply-side perspective by distinguishing between for-profit and not-for-profit sectors of ecotourism. Her approach to ecotourism is aligned with the spectrum of ecotourism with low engagement on one end to high involvement levels at the other. While such an approach is useful, other ecotourism models have further integrated the roles of different stakeholder groups towards an ecotourism experience (Boyd & Butler, 1996; Hvenegaard, 1994; Weaver & Lawton, 2007). Hvenegaard (1994) recognises the roles of government and public opinions as drivers of ecotourism activities that are then measured for their impacts. On a similar note, Weaver and Lawton (2007) highlight four types of impacts derived from a stakeholder-centric approach to ecotourism. The four types of impacts in their study were ecological, socio-cultural, economic and quality control/ethics. However, Boyd and Butler (1996) took a slightly different approach to measuring impacts of ecotourism. Ecotourism indicators of community, cultural heritage, wildlife and landscape were considered in light of social infrastructure and naturalness base. In other words, ecotourism should be evaluated on the basis of the context in which it is embedded. As such, this paper follows the ecotourism model proposed by Boyd and Butler (1996) to shed light on the nature of ecotourism developments in Singapore.

Ecotourism in a Singapore context has been a highly under-researched area despite tourism being a key thrust of the country (Litvin & Chiam, 2014). As a matter of fact, the genesis of tourism in the country has been strongly associated with economic developments (Heng & Low, 1990; Khan, Seng & Cheong, 1990). In this space, the national airline (Singapore Airlines) and airport (Changi Airport) were pivotal towards developing the blueprint for successful tourism outcomes (Chan, 2000; Phang, 2003). Collectively, the impetus for long-term tourism developments in the country was founded on being an aviation hub and demonstrating service excellence. Additionally, national tourism campaigns have focused on Singapore's heritage and culture (Chang, 1999; Henderson, 2000; Teo & Huang, 1995). While green spaces were made available to both residents and tourists, very little has been investigated on their roles in the tourism landscape (Hui & Yuen, 2002; Lew, 1988; Yuen, 1996). These studies reported that garden spaces are one of the places of attractions visited by tourists, though it is evident that green spaces are not the main purpose of travel.

Interestingly, there have been recent large-scale government initiatives to launch ecotourism within the Singapore tourism landscape, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Various ecotourism enterprises in order of their commencement of operations

| Name of enterprise | Website | Commencement of operations |
|---|---|---|
| Kranji Countryside | http://www.kranjicountryside.com/ | Jan 2005 |
| Marina Barrage | http://www.pub.gov.sg/Marina/Pages/default.aspx | Nov 2008 |
| Gardens By The Bay | http://www.gardensbythebay.com.sg/en/home.html | Oct 2011 |
| Marine Life Park | http://www.rwsentosa.com/language/en-US/Homepage/Attractions/MarineLifePark | Nov 2012 |
| River Safari | http://www.riversafari.com.sg/ | Nov 2012 |
| Sisters Islands' Marine Park | http://www.nparks.gov.sg/cms/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=207 | Aug 2014 |

The launch of six large scale ecotourism projects in the last decade is certainly a surprise given the scarcity of land in Singapore. Nonetheless, these exemplars provide a testament of the role of government initiatives in collaboration with private enterprises to develop a suite of ecotourism activities to enhance the tourism landscape. To further showcase the array of ecotourism activities in Singapore, the Singapore Botanic Gardens of Singapore has recently applied for World Heritage status (Feng, 2014). Clearly, there is a national movement towards the greening of Singapore's tourism landscape.

However, much remains unknown as to whether the ecotourism label is a strategic shift towards proactive behaviour or a campaign for new tourism products and services. Even less is known about the ecotourism niche market in Singapore (Litvin & Chiam, 2014). Litvin and Chiam (2014) postulated that the Singaporean consumer exhibits very low interest towards ecotourism experiences. A case study by Wu (2012) found that small and medium enterprises struggled to deliver ecotourism experiences when faced with lower prices from non-ecotourism competitors having a similar product or service. There are evident gaps as to the government initiated developments and the level of interest towards ecotourism in the tourism industry. Potentially, ecotourism trends in Singapore have arisen out of a public good mentality – an inclusive approach where residents and tourists may enjoy the provision of green spaces by the government.

Derived from the literature is the main research question for this paper:
To what extent do practitioners understand and integrate ecotourism principles towards their tourism products and services?
If the main research question shows positive intentions towards ecotourism, then it would be essential to explore the extent in which practitioners demonstrate their commitment to ecotourism. As such, subsequent research questions are:
Are practitioners willing to engage in ecotourism certification in reflection of their ecotourism practices?
What are the facilitators or inhibitors to the adoption of ecotourism certification?

METHOD

This research will use a mixed-method approach to addressing the research questions. The approaches used will be undertaken across three stages:
Secondary data from practitioner websites as to their characterisation of ecotourism
Participant observation to document photographs and other visual forms of evidence illustrating ecotourism practices

Interviews (phone, Skype or face to face) with practitioners to explore their desire for ecotourism certification

PRELIMINARY FINDINDS

Participant observation was undertaken between December 2014 and January 2015 at three sites in Singapore – South East Asia Aquarium, Sisters Islands Marine Park and the Gardens by the Bay. Among these three sites, only Sisters Islands Marine Park was free of charge while the other two attractions had an admission fee.

Across the three sites, ecotourism efforts varied widely in terms of exposure on their signages and interpretative services. For instance, at the South East Asia Aquarium, there was no explicit links to ecotourism or conservation until the researcher visited the last zone of the aquarium, where the word conservation was mentioned on one sign next to a tank. The aquarium, currently the largest in the region, can do more perhaps to have more signs depicting their efforts at conservation in addition to what they have provided on their website. This is because the visitor experience is based on visual stimuli rather than technology while at the attraction. When it was first launched, the aquarium had already received negative publicity from animal activists in relation to their use of 25 bottlenose dolphins for performances (ACRES, 2014). Clearly, such new attractions are not spared from the growing debates about conservation efforts and whether places of captivity are best positioned to cater to animal interests.

For the Sisters Island Marine Park, notions of ecotourism were perhaps more actively planted during the two hour guided tour hosted by National Parks Board. The tour was dedicated to bring to the participants an awareness of coastal and marine environments to an island that was previously not open to the public prior to August 2014. These tours, operated free of charge, occur usually twice a month and coincide with times of the lowest sea tides. The tour therefore enables participants to wade into the shallow water to observe marine species close to shore. Figure 1 depicts what occurs during the tour. From Figure 1, we can observe participants congregating a particular point to observe a specific type of marine species within a plastic pail. Throughout the tour, participants were advised not to touch these species with our bare hands, but instead to view them from these transparent pails. The marine species were placed in the pails by trained staff members who are called 'Seekers'. Exhibit 1 also shows a seeker in action towards the breakwater. Clearly, the attempt at minimising human-animal interaction adheres to the principles of ecotourism by ensuring that cross-contamination does not take place. Yet, Sisters Island is also not limited to these guided tours. Instead, individuals or groups can charter private ferries to take them to and from the island. The island provides basic amenities such as toilet facilities and BBQ pits, where littering was also observed during the researcher's visit, as evident in Exhibit 2. For ecotourism to succeed on the island, there is an apparent need to inculcate responsible behaviour from all visitors.



Figure 1: Wading in the Lagoon at Sisters Island Marine Park

Figure 2: Littering at Sisters Island

At Gardens by the Bay, two enclosed spaces were included in the admission ticket – the Flower Dome and the Cloud Forest. At the Flower Dome, the various displays of flowers from various parts of the world had no mention of eco-centric initiatives. Instead, more efforts at conservation were found at the Cloud Dome, which was a seven storey display as to how different plants acclimatise to terrain and climate change. This suggested that there was a targeted effort towards raising environmental issues in specific aspects of its operations. Potentially, more could be done to have a more consistent message given the elaboration as to how the attraction is a sustainable practice on its website.

Collectively, the preliminary findings suggest that ecotourism in Singapore is very much in its infancy. The outcomes show that more can be done within these new attractions and how a more consistent adoption of ecotourism is required to guide and meet the needs of visitors. Accordingly, ecotourism certification will definitely be one such avenue to extend their dedication to sustainable tourism. Nonetheless, the extant findings will be further assessed in comparison with the other methods, such as secondary data and in-depth interviews.

At present, the findings allude to the minimalistic dimensions of ecotourism proposed by Weaver (2005), and that more effort is required to be congruent with the comprehensive dimensions that are more desirable.

RELEVANCE TO INDUSTRY

The outcomes of this research provide managerial implications of ecotourism, especially when South East Asia is earmarked as a corridor for tourism growth. The findings can then examine if government led initiatives are facilitators to the endorsement of ecotourism certification and whether there is consensus as to the need for the adoption of such practices. Furthermore, the research lends further clarity as to the typology of ecotourists and reflects on the success, or lack thereof, of ecotourism as a destination branding tool for Singapore.

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# THE CASE FOR ZERO-G TOURISM IN REUNION ISLAND

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ABSTRACT

Reunion Island is a unique island like no other island, with the very best of what the world has to offer, all concentrated in one place. With its greatest diversity of stunning untamed landscapes and authentic cultures, Reunion Island, close to well-known Mauritius, is a destination that offers the most unforgettable experiences in just one trip, with 40% of its 2500 km² territory being classified as Unesco World Heritage.

Reunion Island is boosting the development of space-oriented possibilities by creating a dynamic network, including experienced Japanese partners. The island's southern airport of Pierrefonds may become the nucleus for new operations as a commercial « spaceport » in the South of the Indian Ocean.

Zero Gravity touristic flights appear to be the most effective embryonic activity for planning the emergence of this new branch of tourism, with many challenges in terms of management and marketing but also many promising opportunities… Set for emotions in the third dimension?

Key words: Reunion Island, Space Tourism, Zero Gravity, Business Jet, Singularity, Promotional Events

## INTRODUCTION

Located in the southwest of the Indian Ocean by a latitude of 21 degrees South and a longitude of 55 degrees East, Reunion Island is a singularity on Planet Earth, just three million years old, that appears to have concentrated whatever best the Earth had to offer. It

is altogether tropical, French, European, African, Indian, and Chinese. It offers a possibility of making a world tour in just a few days. Over some 2 500 km², the wonderful mix of cultures, cookings, religions makes it a unique destination for traveling.

With a large part of its territory recognized as World Heritage by UNESCO, it combines an incredible biodiversity. It counts more than one hundred microclimates, and its Piton de la Fournaise is one of the most active volcanoes in the world. From the volcanic desert to the luxuriance of the primary forest, from the sand beaches to the mountain trails of Mafate, Reunion Island offers its heart for all the explorers of the world. The visitors are welcomed with a whole panel of activities to experience the intense life of this island, from swimming in the lagoon to hiking around or paragliding, riding horses, or most exciting of all, taking helicopter tours.

What else could it now offer to the world's travelers?

A tour in the third dimension of cosmos, a taste of the space experience! Space adventurers, and quite particularly Pavel Vinogradov, have enjoyed looking at Reunion Island from 400 km above and taking photographs while floating in the weightlessness of the International Space Station. A dream today for most people, but a dream that could someday become true, taking off from Reunion Island for the experience of suborbital flights, and to start with, quite soon, the experience of Zero-Gravity...

Figure 1. Reunion Island (center) and Mauritius (right) seen from space – Picture by Cosmonaut Pavel Vinogradov in 2013.



THE DEVELOPMENT OF SPACE ACTIVITIES IN REUNION

After many years of developing small scale active regional space projects, such as designing and building the first high-school satellite in the world, putting a symbolic lychee fruit in orbit, or hosting a secret Nasa tracking station for the exploration of Pluto, Reunion Island is at the threshold of growing progressively a full new local economic sector connected with the so-called « new space » activities of a second generation, taking advantage of the technological and logistical development brought to the world by the first generation of the « big » national or multinational space activities.

In this large spectrum of regional-sized activities, most interesting for the sector of tourism, is the emerging possibility of offering soon enough to a perhaps limited number of high-class tourists the overview experience of suborbital flight, and very soon to a large number of tourist explorers, the excitement and sensations of tasting the disappearance of gravity: the experience of Zero-G during parabolic flights with standard aircraft.

Figure 2. A map of emerging « new space » activities in Reunion Island

SPECIAL INTEREST:

Cubesat development
Tracking station
Wireless Power Transportation
Air-launching to orbit
Astrobiology
Moon Mars Analogue

GENERAL PUBLIC:
Space Culture Center

LOCAL & WORLD TOURISM:
Zero-G Flights
Suborbital Flights
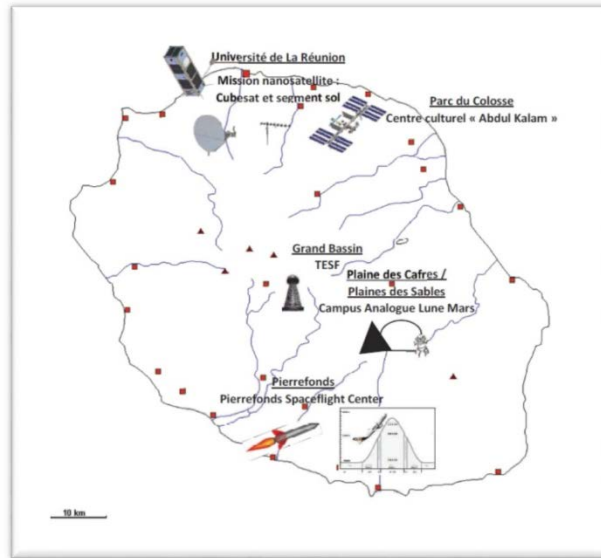


WILL PIERREFONDS AIRPORT ALSO BECOME PIERREFONDS TOURIST SPACEPORT

Located in the Southern part of Reunion at the opposite of the main Roland Garros RUN airport in Saint-Denis, the smaller Pierrefonds Airport, near the city of Saint-Pierre, has suffered from a limited number of passengers. Options are being taken to open the activities with possibly the creation of a small local regional airline to connect the South of Reunion with nearby islands.

Another major option now considered is the extension of Pierrefonds towards space activities, with suborbital tourism, ram-jet testing and eventually air launching of small satellites. And to start with as a founding activity: Zero Gravity tourism, easy enough to implement.

Five keywords come to the mind for this activity to become livable: safety, low cost, flexibility, fast turnaroud, and fun experience!  If we may count other clients for the activity beside upper class tourism, like educational, technological and research activities, then we can be confident that the Zero-G activity will be sustainable.

With this in mind, we have looked at the current Zero-G offer around the world and especially the European activities by Novespace in France and S3 in Switzerland, but our attention has eventually been caught by the Diamond Air Services Company who operate a Gulfstream-II business aircraft to entertain parabolic flights in Japan.

We have met the team at DAS and we have appreciated their advice and their expertise. We enjoyed their attitude open to innovation, the harmonious vision carried by the leaders of this Mitsubishi daughter company, and all this has comforted our idea that the DAS way of doing things was appropriate for our own developments in Reunion Island and that a partnership was possible.

Under the light of the Japanese experience by DAS, Pierrefonds Airport may indeed someday soon become « Pierrefonds Spaceport ».

REGULATORY AND LEGAL ISSUES

In France, Zero-G flights fall in the category of « Thrill flying » which has been defined and regulated by the French Ministry of Transportation in a legal document published on the 8th February 2012: « Flight with sensations: a flight in which departure and destination places are

identical, made for enjoyment, to create strong sensations to the passengers by acrobatics operations. It does not constitute an activity of public air transport… »

This is the regulatory frame under which the major French Zero-G companies Novespace and Avico operate, and for the present time, it appears that the French aeronautical laws fully cover the Zero-G flights, providing also for insurance requirements.

In Reunion Island, the local administration of Civil Aviation may help organizing the activity, possibly together with the administration of Youth and Sports. We also have several groups in Reunion with valuable experience in related fields, such as the Parachute Club of Bourbon, which is fully organised concerning regulatory issues.

At a later time, more complex questions may arise whenever suborbital flights will be considered for tourists since there are no clear legal aspects and regulatory framework yet, as legislations different from one country to country.

When the objectives of space tourism commercialization at Pierrefonds will eventually become suborbital, there will be a strong need for a space tourism treaty with clear risks and liabilities, injuries and hazards of suborbital flights. As an illustration, in the United States, the *Commercial Space Launch Amendments Act of 2004* states that the US ''should encourage private sector launches, reentries, and associated services and, only to the extent necessary, regulate those launches, reentries, and services…''. But this is not the case yet, at this time, for the implementation of Zero-G tourist flights in Pierrefonds under the French laws and regulations.

TECHNICAL ORGANIZATION AND CHALLENGES

DAS, Diamond Air Services, was founded in 1989 by Dairo Kageyama, an enthusiastic pilot and a businessman, as a full subsidiary of Mitsubishi Heavy Industries, for Zero-G flights and for aircraft maintenance. About 30 persons including six Zero-G qualified pilots are employed for operating the flights.

DAS has been agreed by Japanese authorities for government sponsored activities by JAXA and scientific institutions. It cooperates with Universities in Asian countries (Malaysia, Vietnam) to fly students and research programs. It operates also Zero-G flights for special purposes or events. One hundred to two hundred people fly Zero-G every year with DAS.

A typical experimentation campaign lasts one week, with two days of preparation and three days with one flight per day featuring ten to twelve parabolas per flight, in a reserved military airspace. The aircraft climbs to 6000 meters, flies Zero-G, and comes down to land. The total flight time is about two hours.
For Zero-G flights, the Gulfstream takes two pilots, and one DAS Zero-G specialist, and eight experimenters. The working space is comfortable, 1.90 meter high, 2.50 meter wide and 4 to 5 meter long.

The operational costs amount approximately 7000 € pr hour for the aircraft, a figure that has to be doubled to account for the salaries of the pilots and the support crew of about ten persons. Every six years the aircraft has to go through general maintenance with the constructor company in the USA at a cost of about 300.000 € and after about 20 years of operation, the engines have to go through full revision at a cost of about one and half million euros.
DAS ways of operation may be a model for the implementation of Zero-G tourist flights in La Reunion with the possible creation of a dual purpose local company. It should be noted that with a « quick change » capability for reconfiguration, the Gulfstream-II can be turned into a standard passenger aircraft with a 16 seats capacity for regional regular or charter flights. These features make the Gulfstream a very promising option to open a realistic Zero-G tourist offer from the Pierrefonds Airport/Spaceport.

MANAGEMENT POSSIBILITIES

The commercial touristic offer for the « Zero-G Experience » needs to be developed along innovative paths by the business operators, the clients and the various users, with special attention to the small « plusses » that will make the difference and foster the emotional content of the experience.

What may the customer get for his ticket?

A typical package could be:
- 12 parabolas,  with Zero-G, but also Moon and Mars gravity
- Their own Zero-G flight suit to take home
- A certificate and a souvenir, like a model of the aircraft
- A festive post-flight ceremony
- Souvenir videos and pictures

An enjoyable welcome facility should be provided, for the preparation of the flight, but also for the families and friends that will accompany and support the Zero-G tourist before and after his flight. And a series of goods and derived products for promotion and souvenirs as well.

MARKETING OPPORTUNITIES

One immediate and obvious action would be to paint the aircraft with the names and logos of the partners during the duration of a promotional Zero-G operation in Reunion, with the financial support of the partners.

Developing synergies with existing touristic helicopter flights over the island seems necessary for the implementation of a touristic Zero-G offer. A possible partner would be Corail Helicopters, the most prestigious and expert leading company in the field in Reunion Island. They have a broad range of activities that extend beyond the original tourist flights with transport activities, and a general maintenance, counselling and training capability, including in international partnerships.

More synergies may be implemented with a dual operation of a Gulfstream type business jet, both as a Zero-G aircraft and as a passenger aircraft for regional business and tourist flights to nearby islands of Madagascar, Seychelles, Mauritius or Rodrigues.

While the basis for Zero-G development in Reunion Island will be tourism experience, science and education remain important objectives, and with the help of the regional authorities and of the National Education, experimental scientific campaigns may be regularly scheduled. This offer could easily extend to neighbouring countries in the Indian Ocean, but also to many science teams in the world, especially in Europe who would find in La Reunion a flexible alternative to the major national Zero-G campaigns

The preparation of this new, open, aeronautical/aerospace «ecosystem» could be developed by a cluster of companies, in coordination with regional tourist organisations, and in cooperation with Japanese partners.

Figure 3. Left : Zero-G advertizing campaign for Schick shaving cream - see the incredible effect obtained in microgravity Right : Wedding ceremony in Zero-G as arranged by Mrs Misuzu Onuki onboard of DAS Gulfstream-II aircraft

Marketing of Zero-G could extend to special outstanding events such as inventing Zero-G sports like football, or squash with guest stars, artistic performances, Miss Zero-G pageant contests, or even wedding ceremonies, as this was the case in Japan, organized by space tourism leader Misuzu Onuki. Marketing agencies could play a role in developing such activities, including designing awesome flight suits with the colors of Reunion!

In all these fields, the demonstrated know-how and experience of Diamond Air Services with their Gulfstream-II has proved that the possibilities are real. It has been done in Japan, and this is an encouragement that it can now also be done in Reunion Island.

GO !

Up we go!  For an unforgettable extension of high-class tourism with the unique real emotions and sensations of being a cosmonaut for a short time, but much more than most people will ever experience!

Figure 4. Promotional key-rings for flying ZERO-G in Reunion Island – Recto/Verso

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# FACILITATING FAMILY VALUE CREATION IN A HERITAGE VISITOR ATTRACTION

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ABSTRACT

The tourist experience is at the heart of tourism. Despite this, academic and practitioner understanding of the complexities inherent in the interaction-rich context of tourism consumption is surprisingly under-developed. With more demanding customers and increased competition, there is an urgent need to better understand tourist behaviour and enhance managing and marketing practices. The context for this study is family visits to a leading UK heritage visitor attraction. Utilizing service-dominant logic as a lens to examine customer value creation, this study provides insights that can be applied in related service environments. Recommendations are made to facilitate visitor interactive approaches.

Key words: consumer behaviour; services marketing; heritage tourism; value co-creation; families; visitor attraction

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism marketing is taking stock. After two decades of 'paradigm shift' (Fesenmaier and Xiang, 2014) that saw old mantras challenged, new approaches and tenets have taken hold. Old, comforting certainties regarding the role of organisations and their customers and the relationship between them have been unceremoniously dismantled. The consequences are profound and have prompted a fundamental reconfiguration of marketing planning and operations. One of the key drivers has been technological change, with enhanced supply and accessibility of information facilitating an enhanced role for consumers, who are increasingly sophisticated and knowledgeable. In the face of more active and engaged customers, much of the change has been enforced: "*it is no longer clear whether marketing is having any effects on consumers at all... Marketing is in danger of losing its way*" (McCabe, 2014, p.1). Whilst such significant recalibrations can be unsettling, the new operating environment is also rich in opportunities for organisations that can adapt to the new 'rules of engagement'. Yet the operating procedures remain largely conceptual in nature and the literature is in danger of being left behind as tourism organisations adapt and evolve.

By grounding this qualitative investigation of the visitor experience of families at a UK heritage attraction in the new 'service-dominant logic', this study provides in-depth insights into the value creating experience. As well as advancing the literature, actionable recommendations are made to tourism organisations in managing the visitor experience, especially for families, which constitute an important visitor segment.

The multi-disciplinary nature of tourism provides it with the ability to draw on many tools in order to advance knowledge. Whilst a lot of the tourism marketing literature is applied research, it provides a very sophisticated body of knowledge that can facilitate conceptual development (McCabe, 2014). Indeed, as a consequence of the paradigm shift, the new foundations of tourism marketing mean it is now better placed to meet the enduring forces of change (Fesenmaier and Xiang, 2014). As the visitor experience is an integral component of the 'tourism product' (Pernecky and Jamal, 2010) and tourism's

core product is the beneficial experiences gained by the visitor (Prentice, Witt and Hamer, 1998), this means it is an ideal context in which to empirically investigate the value creation process. Although there is disagreement and uncertainty regarding this process, it is clear that designing service delivery systems that can facilitate customer value creation is now a key area of differentiation and competitive advantage (Shaw, Bailey and Williams, 2011 and Stickdorn, 2014). Such conceptual debates also have great practical relevance for service-dominated sectors such as tourism. In the face of greater competition and more demanding and informed customers, tourism managers and planners must aim to facilitate compelling and satisfying experiences that emotionally and cognitively connect with their customers (Pine and Gilmore, 1998). Yet key questions regarding the process remain, such as when value creation starts and ends, what is included in the process, and how different customers perceive value creating situations (Grönroos, 2011). This study also answers a recent call by Dolnicar and Ring (2014), who conducted an extensive meta-analysis of tourism marketing literature, and identified studies of actual tourist behaviour as one of the key areas in need of further research that can advance the field into a more mature discipline. After reviewing the tourism and marketing literature on value and the visitor experience, this paper then looks at the literature concerning the novel research context: family visits to a leading UK heritage visitor attraction (hereafter referred to as 'HVA'), Edinburgh Castle. The research methods are then considered, before analyzing the implications of the findings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the key endeavours in marketing research is to better understand value and its formation (Echeverri and Skålén, 2011). In spite of great interest among marketing researchers, the construct of value is one of the most overused and misused concepts in the social sciences (Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). There have been a number of studies to investigate value, yet despite its centrality to marketing thought, customer value research is still in the early stages of conceptual development (Smith and Colgate, 2007). Williams and Soutar (2009) confirmed the complexity of value within an adventure tourism setting, where customers play an active and integral role in creating their own experiences. Adventure tourists' value perceptions covered a range of socio-psychological value dimensions: their assessments featured cognitive, social, emotional and epistemic aspects. A multi-dimensional value perspective has also been applied online (Mohd-Any et al., 2014) and in a festival tourism setting (Song, Lee, Kang and Boo, 2012). The literature review revealed that there is an unfortunate lack of understanding of the HVA experience. Valuable contributions have been made, though these tend to take a managerial approach (e.g. du Cros and McKercher, 2014). Despite awareness that the core product of attractions has always been the experiences of their visitors, there remain many unknowns (Beeho and Prentice, 1997 and Prentice et al., 1998). In focussing mainly on value from a visitor perspective, a multi-faceted value perspective is considered appropriate and can utilise some of these value components. Table 1 shows the constituent value dimensions attainable or realisable through family visits to an HVA.

Another significant driver of the 'paradigm shift' was the debate generated by Vargo and Lusch (2004), with 'services-dominant logic' (hereafter referred to as 'SDL'). Drawing upon developments in the fields of services and relationship marketing, they proposed an alternative conceptualisation of the value creation process and the relationship between organisations and their customers. Arguing that marketing has evolved from a simple transaction-based connection, they conceptualise value as emerging from interactions between the two parties. Moving beyond an approach that views customers as rational decision-makers, interested in functional features and benefits that are evaluated through 'means-end' considerations, customers are instead conceptualised as both rational and emotional, evaluating potential and experienced service encounters in terms of the outcomes they offer and realise. Value is now seen as interactive, relativistic, conditional, dynamic and asymmetric (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Of particular relevance to this study, and tourism in general, is the conceptualisation of value formation. Interactive value, or 'value in use', views value being co-created during interactions

between service providers and customers. Understandings of value became more nuanced; value assessments are "*...always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary*" (Vargo and Lusch, 2008, p.7).

Table 1. Family value dimensions derived from visiting Edinburgh Castle

| Value dimension | Description |
|---|---|
| Functional | Often defined in terms of utility or instrumental value, it is seen as hugely important in driving consumer choice of goods and services. In an HVA context it can be seen as the punctuality of a tour, the appropriateness of the features, aesthetics and attributes of the service environment and the level of performance quality and service-support outcomes in line with Edinburgh Castle's status as one of the UK's most popular paid visitor |
| Emotional/ hedonic | The social-psychological dimension that is dependent on the ability of the HVA to stimulate feelings and create appropriate experiences and emotions for the family, individually and collectively. Also the novelty value of the visit, and the extent to which it satisfies the desire for a new experience. The affective states generated or realised through the visit contribute a significant portion of the variance in satisfaction evaluations. |
| Social | The perceived relational or network benefits, bonding/connectedness and trust/emotional benefits that can accrue from undertaking a specific activity. In this study context it can take the form of interactions with other visitors/family members, relationships with guides and staff and the social recognition or prestige that may accrue from undertaking the |
| Symbolic/ expressive | The extent to which the family individually and collectively attach or associate psychological meaning to the visit. Also the personal feelings and associations with the castle that only have meaning to the family members, individually or collectively. |
| Epistemic | The perceived ability of the castle to arouse curiosity and to satisfy the family members' desire for knowledge. Within the castle this will correspond to learning opportunities on aspects of both military and social history, relating to the castle, Edinburgh and the wider socio-political situation. |

Adapted from Smith and Colgate (2007) and Williams and Soutar (2009).

There is a consensus within contemporary literature that this 'value-in-use' is the value concept that most closely describes the process of customers' value creation, rather than 'value in exchange', where value was embedded in products or services unilaterally by the provider (Grönroos and Ravald, 2009). With SDL emerging as the dominant paradigm and the cutting edge in marketing thought, studies that adopt a 'value co-creation' lens can provide valuable insights on service user-provider interactions that can advance the field (Tynan and McKechnie, 2009). There is agreement that SDL literature has largely been at a general conceptual level, with limited elaboration on the key concepts and removed from the complexity that characterises the interactions between customers and organisations (Heinonen, Strandvik, Mickelsson, Edvardsson, Sundstrom and Andersson, 2010). In order to create satisfying experiences and achieve desired outcomes, customers are in control of their value creation; it is the job of organisations to facilitate this process (Grönroos, 2011). In a tourism context, Shaw et al. (2011) revealed how customer service staff interacted with long-term guests to co-create value through the development of a new room design for hotels. Echeverri and Skålén (2011) empirically investigated the interactions between passengers and staff in a public transport context, establishing a useful conceptual framework on the impact of different interaction value practices on value creation - and destruction.

In SDL, value is cocreated, contextual and experiential. It is the outcome of interactions, where resources are integrated and operated on. These resources can be 'operand' and 'operant'. Operand resources are conceived of as physical and static; at an HVA these could refer to the building or artefacts. In contrast, operant resources are intangible and could be the knowledge, skills or experience or customers and staff at an HVA (Vargo and Lusch, 2008). This has important implications for HVAs, as there are extended interaction opportunities for the attraction to influence the visitors' value creation and value for both parties can emerge from this

*integrated interaction process*. As the interactions have an effect on experience, experience determines value that emerges from the interaction - which may influence future service experiences (Grönroos, 2011). This ties in to the subjective, multidimensional nature of value adopted by this study. Thus in an HVA setting, value can be predicted to emerge from interactions between:

- *operant resources of the visitors* (skills, experience, knowledge) and *the operant resources of the HVA* (staff skills, experience, knowledge; also the organisational culture particularly concerning the visitor experience)
- *operant resources of the visitors* (skills, experience, knowledge) and *the operand resources of the HVA* (the visitor interface, particularly the interpretative methods, the site itself as well as the ancillary services provided)
- *operant resources of the individual visitors* (their skills, experience and knowledge, with a focus on the other members of the family group, though also including other visitors)

Within the context of this study, this means analysing the effectiveness of the HVA in utilising its resources to enhance the visitor experience and the effectiveness of the 'interface' in facilitating internal and external group interactions. By focussing on the group, this research can provide an important contribution to the literature as previous literature overwhelmingly takes the individual as the unit of study.

A key source of resources available for customer utilisation are contained within the HVA interface, yet visitors to an HVA also bring with them a whole range of operant resources that can facilitate value creation. Independently and collectively, the families are social and economic actors that belong to a variety of networks. These networks - also referred to as social systems - are spatial and temporal constellations of interconnected actors and resources, which customers can move within and between during the value creation process (Mohd-Any et al., 2014). Within such a network, "*all actors are operant resources that influence and shape each other; hence, they create their own context or environment…In that regard, actors are viewed as not only accessing market-facing resources but also non- market facing resources, including private resources and public resources*" (Vargo and Lusch, 2012, p.195).

Actors, such as family visitors, are viewed as active and dynamic as they appraise and integrate resources to assist their value creation. As highlighted above, families and individual family members navigate within and between the systems of actors, resources and social structures to which they belong in order to achieve desired outcomes (Edvardsson, Tronvoll and Gruber, 2011). Whilst all resource integrators are enterprising, those with more experience and wider public and private resources at their disposal to access resources from will be more skilled and enterprising (Vargo and Lusch, 2012). It is through drawing on their diverse resources that allows actors to realise the value embedded in service consumption situations (Vargo and Lusch, 2008). The service environment within HVAs is complex and highly interactive and much will depend on the skills, experience and knowledge of the family members in possessing the adequate resources and the ability to use them to gain some or all of the potential value within each situation. As noted by Mohd-Any et al. (2014), it is not only the *resource availability* and *resource quality* that determine the value derived, but also the actors' own *resource usability* - their ability to make use of the relevant resources at the opportune time. This study can thus show tourism managers the range of resources that customers draw upon in order to create value; conversely it can show shortfalls in resources, where the customers need additional resources in order to attain the latent value within their service experiences. As this can lead to greater visitor satisfaction, it can potentially encourage more spending, repeat visitation and positive word of mouth, all of which will help achieve its wider organisational goals and improve its competitiveness. The idea of *resource usability* also ties in with the results of a study of nature tourism in Norway, which concluded that tourists' resource availability and successful utilisation explained a significant variance in outcome determination (Prebensen and Dahl, 2014).

In order to more fully understand the families' experiences, this study will also draw upon recent conceptual advances that distinguish between value creation processes (i.e. through interactions and resource integration) and outcomes (Gummerus, 2013). Such a distinction can bring a deeper insight into visitor value perceptions and assessments. "*Service customers may experience value as a critical element of the resource integration process itself and as a critical element of the resource integration outcome*" (Mohd-Any et al., 2014, p.12). Value outcome determination is related to the type of value outcomes that visitors or other actors perceive. Value creation processes instead consider the parties, activities and resources that are involved in the value creation process (Gummerus, 2013). Given that value is centred on the customers' experiences (Prebensen and Foss, 2011), outcome determination against desired outcomes is thus a subjective process (Gummerus, 2013), and is the result of resource integration that may or may not involve other people or the organisation (Grönroos, 2008). Although some conceptualisations of value assessment view it as 'uniquely determined' (Vargo and Lusch, 2008, p.5), this study will adopt Gummerus' proposition that instead multiple perspectives on value coexist (Gummerus, 2013). This is in line with Holbrook's perspective that the value creation process is an interactive, relativistic, preference experience (Holbrook, 2006) and will vary between family members. Evaluations may be negative and/or asymmetric (Gummerus, 2013) and will feature both individual and group assessments within the family. As different actors will have varying aims, their actions may not be aligned, the relationships between them may be uneven and actors may behave irrationally or opportunistically (Edvardsson, Tronvoll and Gruber, 2011).

Heritage tourism is considered the most popular form of special interest tourism (McKercher and du Cros, 2006), and a major component of the UK tourism package (Garrod and Fyall, 2000). The HVA sector makes a valuable contribution to the wider economy, as it provides visitors with wet weather facilities, helps extend their length of stay and also helps tackle seasonality by spreading the visiting season and increasing visitor spend (Garrod, Fyall and Leask, 2006). Competition for visitors is intensifying at intra-sector level, where HVAs are also competing with other leisure activities such as visiting museums and art galleries. Within the HVA, visitors and staff play active roles in creating the experience and it can be termed an 'elaborate' servicescape, with a wealth of opportunities for visitors and staff to interact (Bitner, 1992). In light of the lack of research into the HVA visitor experience, this study can help reveal the congruence between the experience that the attraction wishes to provide, and visitors' evaluations of their actual experiences. From a resource-integrative perspective this can be viewed in terms of reducing discrepancies between the perceptions of what managers think their visitors value against what visitors actually experience as valuable (Gummerus, 2013). Reducing such discrepancies is a key aim that can help organisations in enhancing their competitive advantage.

This context of this study is Edinburgh Castle, Scotland's most popular paid visitor attraction (VisitScotland, 2013). It is operated by Historic Scotland, the quasi-governmental organisation trusted with the safekeeping of Scotland's historical resources, and is rated by VisitScotland as a 5 star attraction, which implies commitment to delivering and maintaining high levels of service. This ensures that they will be operating at a certain externally accredited standard, have full-time staff that have received training in management and have access to resources to enhance the visitor experience. The castle enjoys worldwide brand recognition and welcomed a record 1.42 million visiting in 2013 (Association of Leisure and Visitor Attractions, 2014). Despite its success in attracting overseas visitors, the castle is failing to attract family visitors from the surrounding area. Market research commissioned by Historic Scotland found that in contrast to other attractions, only 31% of visitors are domestic (TNS Travel and Tourism, 2009), in spite of the organisation's commitment to widen access and engage with groups such as families. The percentage of visitors bringing children has declined from 22% in 1993 to 9% in 2009 (Historic Scotland, 2012). From a visitor numbers perspective, local families are very much a minority market segment, yet forging connections and widening access with local families and younger generations are key operative directives of Historic Scotland.

The family group is one of the most important visitor segments for HVAs (Kozak, 2010) yet is poorly understood. Tourism is intensively group based and families form a significant consumer segment of many visitor attractions. Yet families and children remain unnoticed, with most research featuring, *"…a solitary, disembodied subject without family, children or friends"* (Obrador, 2012, p.402). Discussions of families and their behaviours rarely include any negative aspects and fail to address diversity in terms of cultural background and family composition (Shänzel, 2012). Research tends to focus on families' decision-making, and has a tendency to assume too much homogeneity (Bronner and de Hoog, 2008 and Shänzel, 2012), which unfortunately reduces its applicability. Heritage visitor attractions offer families a unique environment in which to achieve desired individual and group outcomes, one of the main being strengthening social ties by spending time together (McCabe, 2009). Historic calls for research to better understand families within tourism (e.g. Stringer, 1984) remain largely unanswered, and there is little awareness of how families make decisions and 'consume' such an experience.

METHODS

In-depth interviews were conducted with 20 local families, who were recruited through local schools. Two interviews were held with each family at their home: the initial interview took place prior to their visit, to establish family perspectives on their upcoming service encounter and to establish the family's leisure habits and experience. The post-visit interview explored how the visit had gone and their individual and collective assessments. Participating families were mixed in both composition and in their socioeconomic background. Fourteen out of the 20 families were traditional 'nuclear' families, and the others were a mixture of single parent and 'blended' families, where the adults were living together but were not married. However, the families were purposively selected, in that they contained at least one child between 11-17. In order to investigate families' value creation practices in detail, an interpretivist framework was adopted. Interpretivism asserts that consumer's practices are socially constructed; as such, it is frequently connected with qualitative research (Decrop, 2004). Through selecting such methods, the researcher accepts that this leaves open the possibility that the research produced will be the result of a limited number of local, historically-contingent cases that may not be representative and generalisable, yet will produce meaningful data from the respondents' own perspectives.

This data collection involved two complementary streams of in-depth interviews, supplemented by visitor observations. With the ultimate aim of gaining both user and provider perspectives on the consumption experience, interviews were held with both managerial and frontline staff as well as families before and after a visit. The views of children were actively sought. During the pilot interviews the family group was initially interviewed together and the adult(s) and child(ren) were then interviewed separately. As these had generated only limited additional insights it was then decided to interview the family members together. The child(ren) were fully encouraged to participate and the adult(s) were advised beforehand to allow this. The semi-structured nature of the interviews allowed the conversation to flow more naturally, and the families responded well to being interviewed in the comfortable surroundings of their own homes. Participating families were given a free pass that allowed them free entry to all Historic Scotland properties for a limited time period. Families were provided with video cameras that could also take photographs. Families were asked to record salient aspects of their visitor experiences and these were used to guide the post-visit interviews. The images and videos generated helped to build an accurate picture of families' internal and external interactions as well as providing a means to understand resource integration. In aiming to acquire an in-depth understanding of the value creation process it was deemed essential to supplement interviews with both observations and family's video recordings and photos.

FINDINGS

This study revealed the highly complex nature of the value creation process, which takes place in two distinct phases and features subjective perceptions of value at both group and individual

levels. Customers proved more than capable of creating value by themselves as well as through interacting with other customers; co-creation with the service provider was just one of the many paths from which value emerged. Family interactions within Edinburgh Castle revealed how value could be realised as well as impaired, such as through deficiencies in resource availability or accessibility. Value realised from the processes of value creation - through interactions to 'create' experiences - complemented post-interaction value perceptions of the outcomes derived. Situations and encounters within the castle servicescape facilitated a number of incidents where family members were able to realise latent value by drawing upon their collective and individual resource networks and social systems. The following section provides some examples to highlight the key findings.

A fascinating example of a family's collective experience being enhanced through integrating their own resources was provided by the 'JP' family. Although she was only 13, the oldest daughter in the family (JPD1) often adopted the role of 'expert' during family visits. Both her parents were non-native English speakers; despite being   reasonably fluent, JPD1 was the most proficient English speaker in the family. She had been to the castle three times with her school, so had built up considerable knowledge about the castle. During these tours she had learned much from her teachers and also the official castle guides. This included its history and special things to look out within the castle, some of which are not known by the average visitor. A good example is the 'Dog's Cemetery', that contains the graves of dogs whose owners had been stationed or lived in the castle, and had died during their time there. It is not well signposted, and without 'insider knowledge' is often missed by visitors. Those that do find it always gain emotional value, and both the Father (JPM) and Mother (JPF) recounted how it was one of their most memorable aspects of the visit. Without their daughter's know-how they would have missed this opportunity. Through seeing this they were moved by the touching nature of the cemetery (emotional value), as it brings out the human side of the castle and helps visitors imagine what it was like for those who lived in the castle. As well as learning about this (epistemic value), they enjoyed the family interactions that had surrounded this particular memory (social value).

During the visit to the castle, both her parents were hugely impressed with JPD1's knowledge and her role in helping them to realise the latent value that was embedded within the servicescape, gaining emotional and social value. They had not had such a visit together for a few years, partly as the Father (JPM) was not keen on sightseeing. Both JPM and his wife, JPF, explained how important the visit had been to them as parents, and the family collectively. In sharp contrast to previous experiences of sightseeing (including to the castle) that he had done alone or with other conference attendees, this visit had surpassed expectations and been a really enjoyable group activity. In their own country it is much more usual to visit as part of a tour and be taken round by an experienced and knowledgeable guide. There, visiting attractions is experienced very passively, and requires little effort or interaction by the visitors. Having lived overseas for several years now, they are starting to get used to sometimes being obliged to be more actively involved during visits in order to gain more value from the visit. They were fortunate enough to have their daughter with them and it was a source of delight for them to interact with their daughter, to learn from her and for the traditional parent-child relationship to be reversed. The value they had gained from this particular visit covered several dimensions and had transformed their thinking about going to such attractions. The experiences of the JP family support the claims within the literature that value can be realised from both the resource integration process as well as from the outcomes of this (e.g. Gummerus, 2013 and Mohd-Any et al., 2014). Their daughter had helped them enjoy a highly inclusive tour (functional value) that stimulated feelings of enjoyment (emotional value) through learning (epistemic value) and the interactions they had as a family (social value). This supports the claim that those with more experience and wider public and private resources at their disposal to access resources from will be more skilled and enterprising at realising value (Vargo and Lusch, 2008, 2012). Those who lack resources or the ability to utilise available resources, will realise much less of the latent value within a service experience (Mohd-Any et al., 2014). In contrast to JPM's previous beliefs

about tourism the family now seem more willing to consider visiting attractions together. Given his interest in learning about British history and culture that was apparent in the interviews and the fact the family had only done a limited selection of activities during their short visit, undertaking a repeat visit has now become a more serious option for future leisure-time decision-making.

The experiences of the JP family were repeated in a number of other interviews, including the GR family. The family had derived emotional, social, symbolic and epistemic value from the way that individually they had enhanced the group's experience through their individual contributions. These were in the form of knowledge and know-how. GRS was 17 years old and had been on visits to the castle with school and the family, as well as studying aspects of its history. GRF explains how this collective approach was so meaningful for her: "…*and we were all able to sort of, bolster each other's experience, cause I would say 'my uncle fought in the war and I'll show you the book'* [referring to the books of remembrance within the War Memorial that are continually being updated with the names of fallen soldiers]…*and then we could all go to the, that memorial and, that enriched that part of the experience. And then he* [GRS] *could tell us about, somebody who had that wedding in that hall* [GRS had learned a lot during a recent school visit], *so as a family we all brought different things...*". This example of visitors creating value through combining resources supports the claims that such interactions and shared experiences with others forms a crucial part of the service experience, and is a key source of value (Rihova, Buhalis, Moital and Gouthro, 2014; also Prebensen and Foss, 2011).

The importance of catering for a variety of interactive styles and abilities was a recurring theme from the interviews. Within the families there was a range of dispositions towards interacting within the castle interface that different members and different generations had. This varied immensely and could not be simply characterised by generational or gender differences. The eldest son in the 'DE' family (DES1; 17 years old) indicated his general preference for passive forms of interaction, being more comfortable interacting on his own terms and under conditions where he feels in control. "*I just like information boards; I like re-enactment, but as long as I can kind of observe from a distance, I don't need to get involved.*" This is confirmed slightly later in the interview when he expressed his enjoyment of opportunities for 'hands-on' involvement with historical military artefacts. "*We had a shot of holding the musket and stuff... that was fun... yeah, hands-on. Interactive stuff's good...*". In the interview he took pleasure in confirming his desire to 'spend hours' reading as much as possible from visits to such attractions, particularly on exhibits related to military events concerning the castle and army regiments connected with the castle. His interactions were clearly aimed at providing symbolic and social value through expanding his knowledge. His interest in handling military artefacts was linked to his personal networks, as he was in the school Officer Training Corps (OTC). As well as his impressive historic knowledge, his background in the OTC had provided him with knowledge and experience in dealing with various weapons. His resources were unique in the family and gave him the confidence to usually assume the role of 'informed expert'; it also created more emotive value through experiencing castle resources and relating them to his personal abilities and networks. It became clear that DES1 was comfortable actively interacting with operand resources when he has a feeling of control of the servicescape, in contrast with the uncertain feeling when interacting with operant resources. By favouring interactions with static facets of the servicescape, he can initiate the interactions and has a greater influence in how the interactions develop. His younger brother (DES2; 13 years old) was quite the opposite and took advantage of every opportunity to become actively involved with both operand and operant resources within the castle interface. By being able to choose the interactive style and how and when to integrate the provider resources with his own resources, DES1 was able to gain value that corresponded to all the value dimensions in Table 1. Demonstrating his own knowledge and abilities to the other family members (value derived from resource integration, c/f Gummerus, 2013) was a source of pride for him that came across from the post-visit interviews and video clips.

The last example is drawn from the BC family. The BC family was a single-parent family,

and the mother (BCF) and her two sons (BCS1, 12 years old; BCS2, 9 years old) were all born and raised in Edinburgh. As a single mother she was trying exceptionally hard to provide a rich balance of activities for her boys and saw the castle as providing 'good, happy memories' of the family together. Their affective benefits would be supplemented by a sense of having 'achieved something' and 'having some fun' together. They had considerable operant resources from which to draw upon in order to realise value from their service encounters. As well as their active weekends and visits to various attractions, they had been members of Historic Scotland and were aware of, and sympathetic to, its various educational and outreach programmes. BCF identified with the aims and activities of Historic Scotland and this prior knowledge and awareness seemed to have instilled a more favourable and understanding mindset. The family seemed more willing to accept service failures or deficiencies in the operant or operand resources at the castle, and also more accommodating of other visitors. BCF had pointed out a number of issues that had not met her expectations, such as poor lighting, interpretive text that was too small, interpretation of exhibits that was very dry and unappealing for younger visitors or visitors who did not have a strong interest in military history. Yet her complaints were often framed in a way that expressed concern that the experiences of other visitors would be impaired by these failures. During an enjoyable interaction with some costumed re-enactors dressed as WW1 soldiers, they were interrupted by a loud, elderly visitor from America. Rather than feeling aggrieved, the family were able to derive emotional, social, symbolic and epistemic value from the situation. BCF explains "…*so we sort of moved away, cause, em, an American lady came up and spoke to them… she had a very loud American accent* [the lady then went on to identify an object the WWI re-enactors had brought with them and recognised it as similar to one she had found in her attic that had belonged to her Scottish grandfather]…*you know* [she] *had a real reason to be in Scotland and the fact that these artefacts were, em, out on the table, and the fact that she was able to speak to somebody about it, oh, it would have been absolutely priceless for her…it was really, really good*'. Despite feeling slightly upset at being displaced by another customer, by observing this lady's interactions the group felt satisfaction and pride that the castle had facilitated such an obviously poignant and meaningful experience. The group also took into consideration her nature as an elderly overseas tourist, particularly when it became apparent she had a very special reason for being in Scotland and for interacting with the WWI re-enactors. Through displaying a sense of moral responsibility and altruism, BCF demonstrated high levels of customer citizenship and customer care, a type of customer that organisations should strive for in order to create win-win situations (Rosenbaum and Messiah, 2007).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As well revealing significant insights in the behaviours of the under-researched family group, the vital role of resource availability and accessibility became apparent. In line with the findings of Mohd-Any et al. (2014), individuals or families that were able to draw upon the experience of prior visits to the castle, or similar attractions, were able to realise much more value than those who were first time visitors. Similarly, for visitors such as the JP family who were unfamiliar with *how* to interact with some of the castle resources (e.g. was it acceptable to approach the stewards with questions or handle certain artefacts or touch the walls, cannons, etc), the castle did not provide enough guidance or resources to enable customers to realise the potential value. In contrast with previous studies on consumer behaviour (e.g. Tynan, McKechnie and Hartley, 2014), visitors to the castle were far more comfortable when provided with a range of interpretive and interactive options that catered for both passive and active engagement. Providing more substantial interpretation for particular visitor groups like children would help them form connections with the site and also better facilitate their own resource integration, such as demonstrating their new knowledge to the rest of the family. This could be fairly easily achieved through utilising mobile technology. Rather than assuming what value visitors will derive from the service environment, service providers should establish through qualitative research the value processes and outcomes that customers engage with. This will help to enhance the ability of customers to realise more value from their service encounter.

One of the most visited parts of the castle is the display of the 'Honours of Scotland'. This features a stone upon which the kings of Scotland were enthroned, and as such, it has considerable symbolic and epistemic value. Yet JPM remarked that he had simply thought it was a stone that had fallen off the walls. However, his daughter had led them through the correct entrance and described the significance of the stone, and so the family had realised some of the latent value from the exhibition. Tourism managers must ensure that there is not only sufficient signage, to ensure that visitors know where to go, but that they are aware of *how* to interact with the organisation's resources, especially for those of significance, such as the Honours of Scotland. Historic Scotland do provide an audio guide that can help visitors, but it costs extra (£3.50 for adults, less for concessions) and as the castle is not a cheap place to go, the majority of the families were price-sensitive, and either didn't want to pay, or grudgingly paid for the guide. As the guide contained essential resources that visitors can access at their own pace and depth, it would be beneficial for the castle to provide this guide free of charge. Whilst the castle would lose some income, it is highly possible that they would make this up through other means. If customers were better able to realise value outcomes, they would have a more satisfying and memorable visit. Satisfied customers would make emotional and cognitive connections with the castle and are much more likely to spend money in the shops, positively recommend or repeat their visit. This may also extend to the operating organisation, Historic Scotland, and make them more likely to visit other attractions the organisation runs, and possibly consider membership.

The interviews, observations, video clips and images all created a picture that points to the vital enabling role that customers' own resources and the resources of other customers play in creating and realising value. A valuable approach for service providers would be to enhance the ability of customers to realise value. Whilst this can be through direct means such as marketing and providing resources within the service environment, this can also be extended to more indirect channels. In the case of Historic Scotland, they could acknowledge the importance of visitors' networks in stimulating interest in potential visits as well as providing them indirectly with resources to gain more from a visit. Examples of this would to engage more with the local community through school outreach programmes, night school classes and community groups such as Rotary clubs, women's groups and local history clubs. The castle guides are hugely experienced and knowledgeable about a wide variety of aspects relating to the castle, such as genealogy and horticulture, as well as in-depth knowledge on various historical events and figures.

By indirectly enhancing the knowledge and know-how of individuals through their various networks, this interaction can 'prime' them to be more open to the idea of visiting the castle. If this was supported by pricing promotions that gave discounts to attendees or their families (e.g. kids can bring a grandparent free) then organisations such as Historic Scotland can play a vital role in facilitating ongoing customer-to-customer value co-creation processes (Rihova et al., 2014). This can allow organisations to develop strategies to support customer learning as a means of enhancing their competitiveness (Hibbert, Winklhofer and Temerak, 2012). 'Priming' customers to have greater resource accessibility can facilitate on-site interactions with other customers and create win-win situations. Tourism represents a unique and important context for social capital, trust and interactions to build between strangers, who regularly benefit from the kindness of other travellers (Glover and Filep, 2015). This can be applied not only to visitor attractions and tourism, but also other service environments, which provide high levels of opportunities for customers to interact with staff and other customers.

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# THE RECONNECTION OF HUMAN AND ENVIRONMENT: TWO CASE STUDIES OF VOLUNTEER TOURISM IN TAIWAN

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to compare general visitors with volunteer tourists traveling to the same destination, assessing differences in their sense of place, environmental attitudes, and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors. Two volunteer tourism projects of different lengths were selected to compare against the general visitors for the purpose of examining whether duration and specific experiences of the projects affect behavior. The study found that the hands-on activities and deeper interactions of volunteer tourism projects participants' environmental attitudes and fostered their intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors.

Key words: volunteer tourism, sense of place, environmental attitudes, intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors

## INTRODUCTION

A volunteer tourist (VT) in an environmental conservation project contributes significant effort and time, gaining more hands-on experience with the environment than general visitors to the same destination. Does the experience   of volunteer tourism create a stronger bond between participants and the land than is gained by general visitors? Two volunteer tourism projects were investigated to examine whether their lengths and resulting experiences had an effect on their attitudes and behavior. The projects were the Ecological Working Holiday in Yangmingshan National Park and Taroko Conservation Working Holiday in Taroko National Park, both offered by the Taiwan Environmental Information Center (TEIC). The purpose of this study is to compare general visitors and VTs traveling to the same destination, assessing differences in their sense of place, environmental attitudes, and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors.

Since the 1970s, the research focus of humanistic geography has shifted to human-environment relationships, highlighting the notion of "place." Place, in this sense, is the blended philosophy of phenomenology and existentialism (Crewswell, 2004). Both Tuan (1977) and Relph (1976) have claimed that, when a spatial setting is injected with human experiences and affections, it becomes a "place," a meaningful space for those involved. This notion is called "Sense of Place" (SOP). SOP is an affective linkage between people's psychological and physical needs and their environment, emphasizing human experiences rather than spatial setting (Lewicka, 2011). More recently, Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) applied the concept of "place bonding" to define and measure SOP with an attitude-based model that connects the three components of attitude—affective, behavioral, and cognitive—with the three realms of SOP—place attachment, place identity, and place dependence.

Regarding environmental attitudes, Van Liere and Dunlap (1978) took a sociological perspective and applied the norm-activation model proposed by Schwartz (1977) to develop the New Environmental Paradigm scale (NEP). The NEP scale utilizes an ecological worldview to determine people's attitudes toward the environment. The 12-item scale contains two values, ecocentric and anthrocentric, and three dimensions, balance of nature,

limits to growth, and human domination of nature. Later, Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, and Jones (2000) reexamined the NEP scale. Their revised scale contains 15 items and 5 dimensions: limits to growth, anti-anthropocentrism, the fragility of nature's balance, rejection of exemptionalism, and the possibility of an ecocrisis. After considering its validity and reliability, the revised NEP scale was applied in this study to measure tourists' and VTs' environmental attitudes.

Gössling (2002) has discussed global consequences of tourism, pointing out negative environmental impacts caused by changes in the relationship between humans and the environment. With growing awareness of environmental concerns, the concept of environmentally friendly behavior has been emphasized in the tourism field. Many non-profit organizations, governments, and academicians have proposed such indices as green tourism, sustainable tourism, and low carbon tourism to monitor and evaluate its environmental impact. The Green Tourism Association of Taiwan (2011) examined environmentally conscious tourism activities and categorized eight dimensions, including food, clothes, lodging, recreation, entertainment, shopping, and charity to assess tourists' impact. In a report for the United Nations Environmental Program, Simpson, Gössling, Scott, Hall, and Gladin (2008) observed that tourists could adopt mitigation actions to decrease or eliminate environmental impacts. In Taiwan, Chen (2011) applied the fuzzy Dephi method to build indices of low-carbon travel for travel agencies and tourists. By reviewing the literature, the researcher applied five key elements of tourism, including transportation, food and beverages, lodging, shopping, and destination and activities, to develop a scale of intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors.

METHODS

The purpose of this study is to compare general visitors with VTs traveling to the same destination and to assess differences in their sense of place, environmental attitudes, and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors. Two volunteer tourism projects offered by the Taiwan Environmental Information Association (TEIA), Ecological Working Holiday in Yangmingshan National Park and Taroko Conservation Working Holiday in Taroko National Park, were selected to examine whether their lengths and resulting experiences affected behavior. The Ecological Working Holiday project is a one-day volunteer tourism activity that began in 2004 (TEIA, 2005). The goal of the project is to maintain the ecology of the wetland and promote environmental education. The project features four hours of clearing alien species in the wetland and one and a half hours of sightseeing and ecological interpretation. The project was cancelled in 2013 due to maintenance of the wetland, so the researcher utilized purposeful sampling to recruit previous participants as VTs ($n_1 = 66$) via an online survey. General visitors of Yangmingshan National Park ($n_2 = 387$) were also contacted via an on-site survey from June to September of 2013.

The Taroko Conservation Working Holiday is a three-day volunteer tourism activity that began in 2011 (TEIA, 2011). The goal of the project is to maintain the trails and environment of the Taroko National Park and promote environmental education. The project features 23 hours of volunteer services across 4-7 hour sessions. The study recruited VTs ($n_3 = 73$) and general visitors of Taroko National Park ($n_4 = 266$) via an on-site survey from September to November of 2013.

The questionnaire contained five sections: (a) activity experience in Yangmingshan or Taroko National Park, (b) environmental attitudes, (c) intention toward environmentally friendly travel behavior, (d) sense of place, and (e) socio-demographic information. In the first section, the purpose was to understand participants' previous park experiences, including frequency and average duration of visits. For environmental attitudes, the revised NEP scale (Dunlap et al., 2000) was adopted. For intention toward environmentally friendly travel behavior, a scale was developed by the researcher after reviewing related indices. For sense of place, the three-construct scale developed by Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) was adopted. For the second, third, and fourth sections, three scales were also measured using a 6-point Likert type scale (1 = extremely disagree, 6 = extremely agree). The last section included questions about gender, age, education, marital status, monthly income, residency,

and membership in environmental organizations. To secure content validity, the questionnaire was examined and revised by three academic experts   from the tourism field. Then, a pilot study was conducted to ensure face validity and reliability. A total of 63 valid responses from Taiwanese college students who had previously visited national parks were collected in May of 2013. The Cronbach's α for three scales were above .7, and the final questionnaire was established.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Out of 653 visitors and 139 VTs from the two national parks, 57% of the visitors and 64.7% of the VTs were female. Ages ranged from 30 to 59 for 58.2% of the visitors and 70.5% of the VTs. More than half (58.3% of the visitors, 62.6% of the VTs) had a college degree or above. Regarding marital status, 42.2% of the visitors and 46.8% of the VTs were single. For residency, 71.1% of the visitors and 79.1% of the VTs lived in North Taiwan. About half of the respondents visited Yangmingshan or Taroko National Park for the first time in 2013: 45.3 % of visitors and 49.6% of VTs. Regarding duration of visit, 52.7% of the visitors and 30.2% of the VTs stayed an average of 3–4 hours.

The purpose of the study was to compare the SOP, environmental attitudes, and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors exhibited and expressed by VTs and general visitors of Yangmingshan and Taroko National Parks. By examining the variances among the four groups (one set from each park), the study revealed significant differences in SOP ($p < .01$), environmental attitudes ($p < .05$), and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors ($p < .001$).

After Scheffé post-hoc comparison analysis, results revealed that except for SOP, the Yangmingshan VTs had the highest scores out of all three groups for environmental attitudes and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors. For environmental attitudes, the scores of the Yangmingshan VTs were significantly higher than those of Yangmingshan and Taroko visitors, both $p < .05$. For intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors, the scores of the Taroko visitors were significantly lower than the scores of the Yangmingshan and Taroko VTs as well as the Yangmingshan visitors, all $p < .001$. Regarding SOP, the scores of the Taroko VTs were the highest, while the Yangmingshan VTs scored lowest. The scores of the Yangmingshan VTs were significantly lower than the scores of the Taroko VTs and Yangmingshan visitors, both $p < . 05$. Findings may have been affected by issues stemming from on-line versus on-site surveys.

The relationships between (a) SOP and environmental attitudes and (b) environmental attitudes and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors were also examined. Regression analysis revealed positive correlations among all variables ($p < .05$). Therefore, higher SOP indicates higher intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors, as well as better environmental attitudes. This positive relationship echoes the previous literature.

In order to examine categorical variables that may differentiate these variables, variance of analysis was applied. Results revealed that for overall respondents, gender, age, education, marital status, residency, duration of visit, visit frequency, and memberships differentiated degrees of SOP. In addition, gender, education, duration of visit, and memberships differentiated degrees of environmental attitudes, and gender, age, marital status, residency, visit frequency, duration of visit, and memberships differentiated degrees of intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study compared general tourism and volunteer tourism activities at two popular national parks in Taiwan (Yangmingshan National Park in Taipei and Taroko National Park in Hualien), assessing differences in sense of place, environmental attitude, and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors between two different groups. By examining relationships among these variables among participants of two types of tourism activities at two destinations, this study investigated whether volunteer tourism succeeds in establishing and maintaining   stronger

connections between participants and the environment. Further, the study examined whether lengths of volunteer tourism affect behavior and attitude.

Results showed significant differences in SOP, environmental attitudes, and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors. Except for SOP, where the Yangmingshan VTs scored lowest, the VTs scored overall higher than the general visitors. This result was opposite to the presumed research question, but the sampling method may be the cause. Due to the cancelation of the Eco Working Holiday in Yangmingshan National Park in 2013, an online survey was applied to recruit previous participants. Compared to the onsite survey of the general visitors, online participants may have lost a certain degree of their perception of sense of place. Although the experienced VTs invested significant time and efforts in the land, their sense of place may have declined as time passed. This interesting finding needs further investigation to understand the mechanism of SOP more thoroughly.

Results also revealed significant positive correlations among SOP, environmental attitude, and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors. A higher degree of sense of place indicates higher degrees of environmental attitudes and intention toward environmentally friendly travel behaviors. In addition, variables such as gender, age, marital status, education, residency, membership, visit frequency, and visit duration all influence each of the three research variables.

In conclusion, this study has determined that with hands-on activities and deeper interactions, volunteer tourism projects improve participants' environmental attitudes and foster their intention toward performing environmentally friendly travel behaviors. Though this study was limited by the data collection methods prompted by the cancellation of the Yangmingshan VT project in 2013, its findings still shed light on VTs' relationships with the land, the understanding of which is primary to sustainable tourism. The author suggests that further study with longer   duration in different destinations could extend these comparisons across VT projects, examining how duration of time affects the relationships among the three variables.

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# COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM - LESSONS LEARNED FOR KNOWLEDGE MOBILIZATION

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines a number of best practice examples as well as community base tourism models around the world to determine the key success (and failure) criteria. It then evaluates these criteria and puts forth recommendations to increase community based tourism viability and presence in tourism. Key findings include the need to increase access to market as well as disseminate this knowledge on a wider basis to both policy makers and tourism marketers.

## INTRODUCTION

Although much literature has focused on the need for tourism to be more sustainable and to benefit the communities around which it operates, the key element that forms the basis of analysis of the economic impact of tourism is visitor spending (Wilton and Nickerson 2006). This form of analysis is contradictory to the success measures of community-based tourism, as those measures focus on benefitting livelihoods and increasing empowerment within the local community rather than simply measuring an economic indicator (Lebe & Milfelner, 2006).

CBT can be defined as "tourism planned, developed, owned and managed by the community for the community, guided by collective decision-making, responsibility, access, ownership and benefits" (Tasci et al., 2013, p. 9). It is rooted in community development (Salazar 2012) and important in poverty alleviation, empowering local communities, livelihood diversification, improving stakeholder cooperation, protecting the natural environment and helping struggling economies (Su, 2011). According to Lapeyre (2010) CBT minimizes leakages, maximizes linkages and empowers locals and instills a sense of ownership. Therefore such community development is necessary in working towards achieving transformations to sustainability.

Tourism has been seen as an effective tool in creating *supplemental* income in areas where conservation affects local populations' traditional livelihoods (Campbell 2002; Forstner 2004; Markandya et al. 2005). Supplemental is emphasized because it is important to note that "tourism only has limited potential for securing rural livelihoods" (Forstner 2004, p. 512). Tourism is promoted as a community development tool in *Agenda 21* (Vaughan 2000), by the World Bank and the Global Environmental Facility (Markandya et al. 2005). It is also used by Conservation International (2008) and other major conservation NGOs, such as Rainforest Alliance (2008), although it is noted to be conditional on local involvement and control measures, and is sometimes limited in impact (Kiss 2004; Kruger 2005). Community-based tourism is tourism that is community-managed, comprising several locally owned businesses with the goal of providing benefits

to the community, and usually with the objective of contributing to conservation (when taking place in or near protected areas) (Lebollo, 2000).

Community-based tourism shares the goals of sustainable development in that it strives to be socially equitable, ecologically sound, and economically viable for the long term.  It is important to note that although many definitions exist (e.g. ecotourism, sustainable tourism, community-based tourism), there is a commonality between them. Community-based tourism can be viewed as an alternative form of tourism with sustainable community development as its goal, different from tourism that 'develops' by building large resorts and removing ownership of resources from the local communities. Community-based tourism differs from many other forms of tourism in that it is not aimed at maximizing profits for its investors. This form of tourism is more concerned with the impact of tourism on the community and its environmental resources and is focused on "managing tourism resources with the participation of local people" (REST, 2003:11).  Scheyvens (1999) argues that community-based tourism thus has the potential to empower local communities at four levels: economic, social, psychological and political.

There is no shortage of literature on community-based tourism (APEC, 2010;  Belsky, 1999; Clarke, 2005; Conservation International, 2008; CTO, EU & CANARI, 2007; Forstner, 2004; Hall & Jenkins, 1998; Jameison, 1999; Jones & Eplerwood, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Pardeo & Chrisman, 2006) however most literature has focused on destination specific cases (Africa – Nielson & Spencley, 2010; Lapeyre, 2010; Mbaiwa, 2008; Asia -Khanal & Babor, 2007; India Lepcha, nd; Su, 2011; Caribbean – Martin- Haverbeck, 2005; CTO, EU & CANARI, 207; Wight, 2009; Latin America – Mitchell & McKosy, 2008) and the initiation of community-based tourism rather than ensuring that it is a viable form of financial support for communities over the long term. As Mair and Reid (2007) point out, tourism development in rural communities has become something of a panacea in that it is seen as the answer to protecting local culture, developing infrastructure, and protecting the environment. There is a lot of debate as to whether such tourism is indeed so successful and multiple authors have questioned its success (Reid, 2003; Burr, 1994; Craik, 1991; Mowforth & Munt, 1998). Furthermore, there has been little focus in the literature on how to ensure the long-term financial viability of such a tourism model.

In order to move towards increasing the volume and impact of community-based tourism, there is a need to understand different stakeholder and destination roles and their levels of salience in terms of influencing the sustainability of these projects over the long term. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine multiple examples of community-based tourism in order to determine successes and failures and to determine the key criteria that will allow for greater market impact. This project aims to examine some of the issues surrounding community-based tourism and its current role in order to promote the growth of its market share within the larger tourism industry.

METHODOLOGY

This research project gathered and assessed case studies and models on community-based tourism worldwide to systematically assess the criteria needed for long-term success and poverty alleviation in community-based tourism. Then key criteria were extrapolated to determine models for success as well as failure and specific examples to illustrate success and failure were determined.

FINDINGS/CONCLUSION

Rural communities worldwide, while differing in numerous aspects, often share the common need for more community-managed opportunities be it due to their remote location, proximity to protected areas, lack of infrastructure, lack of access to jobs and education. While the criteria discussed in this paper is a high-level outline, it provides the necessary elements that can be simplified and adapted for any community context. Understanding the importance of each

element and reviewing cases worldwide, provides context so that any community can define its partners, it's value proposition, its natural, human, and financial resources, its "distribution channels" or methods of selling and communicating to its customers, who its customers are, how it will earn money, and how that money will be funneled towards community development. Therefore these key elements are essential for successful CBT and could be used to guide communities with similar needs and situations, taking into account the individual characteristics and unique needs of the location and people from socio-cultural, ecological and economic perspectives.

The findings showed that there are six major issues inhibiting success of CBT. They include: lack of access to markets, financings, capacity, marketing linkages and partnerships and lack of clear planning.

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# COMPETITION AND DIVERGENCES IN IMPLEMENTING THE CONCEPTS OF RURAL TOURISM IN EUROPEAN TOURISM

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## INTRODUCTION

The aim of the paper is to better understand the significance of rural tourism, the factors leading to its emergence and to catch a glimpse in the rural tourism on the level of the European Union in order to analyse it from two perspectives: rural tourism in Western Europe and rural tourism in Eastern Europe.

The first part lays out the rural tourism concept with its various meanings on an international level. This is followed by a presentation of the European space with a short history of rural tourism in this area as well as its characteristics in the present. Last but not least, the emphasis was put on the impact of tourism on the European rural areas, pointing out its positive consequences on the socio-economic development of the respective region.

The second part is focused on the presentation of the macroeconomic indicators and on essential tourism-related indicators, on the level of the European Union. It was considered necessary to present the development strategies of rural tourism in the European Union, both of the one in force and of the prospective ones.

The paper is concluded with case studies aiming at the three countries belonging to the Western Europe (France, Germany, and Spain) and the three countries belonging to the Eastern Europe (Romania, Bulgaria and Greece).

## RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

The analysis carried out points out the fact that the predominant rural areas in the European Union represent approx. 57% of the territory and approx. 23% of the population. There are also significant differences from one state to another, of almost 80% rural, for the countries where the predominant rural areas are almost inexistent. From a demographic point of view, a concerning phenomenon is the aging of the population, phenomenon encountered in the European rural areas where of all types of regions, the highest number of aged population (> 64 years old) is encountered and the lowest number of young population (< 15 years old).

In the tertiary sector the most prevalent economy is the one of the rural European areas. In this case there are differences between the Member States of the European Union. Therefore, although on an average the tertiary sector holds a 3,95 share of the gross added value, and there are countries where this share is over 10% - Romania, Bulgaria.

As for the tourism infrastructure from the rural areas of the European Union, this is unequally distributed on the level of the Member States. Therefore the number of accommodation places for the rural space has a 26,5% share of the total number of accommodation places. Moreover the number of accommodation places in the rural

environment registers an annual average rate of growth of only 50% of the one registered on the level of the urban environment. An interesting aspect is represented by the fact that there are certain Member States of the European Union which have a significant share in the accommodation places in the rural environment on the level of the European Union, fact indicating the importance of this type of tourism in those countries.

We may say that rural tourism was developed in different periods of time, but also for different reasons in the two extremities of the European continent. Therefore in the Western part of Europe, rural tourism was slowly but consequently imposed in the second half of the 20thcentury. Industrialisation, urbanisation and generally the process of economic development determined the migration of the rural population towards the urban centres and then the emergence of the desire to come back to the homely places in their spare time. Rural tourism was also practiced in Eastern Europe, but we can only talk of a real development of rural tourism starting with the 90s. The countries in this region had to suffer from the transition processes from the market economy and the restructuring of the agricultural process, processes which pointed out the need of a non-agricultural economic development of the rural regions, rural tourism being a key element in this case.

According to the author all Member States of the European Union analysed in this paper aim at meeting the same objectives of the rural development policies, all being confronted with the phenomenon of the ageing of the population and with a high unemployment rate in the rural areas. It is interesting the fact that in the case of East-European countries there is a high percentage of the business in the field of tourism and a higher share of the employed population in this sector of activity.

Rural tourism represents one of the most efficient solutions for the harmonisation of the requirements of tourism with the exigencies of the environmental protection and of the sustainable development. Due to the fact that all European countries, irrespective of the location are currently confronted with similar problems, the benefits of this type of tourism are equal for all parties. Even if the West-European rural tourism enjoys its popularity, experience and a better and stricter organisation, East European rural tourism experienced a fast evolution in time. Perhaps the biggest problem of the East European countries lies in the insufficient capitalisation of the huge potential related to rural culture and traditions, very well preserved, a much higher advantage as opposed to the ones of the countries in Western Europe. As long as this aspect is not made aware, or it is going to be ignored, West European countries will continue to have their domination and supremacy over the European rural tourism.

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# IDENTIFYING THE VIETNAMESE ECOTOURIST:
## A QUALITATIVE PERSPECTIVE

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## ABSTRACT

The profile of the "Western" ecotourist is becoming increasingly clear as a result of concerted research efforts in this area. In contrast, little is known about the characteristics of Asian protected area visitors and their relationship with ecotourism, despite the rapid growth and large numbers of such consumers. Such knowledge is essential if negative environmental and sociocultural outcomes are to be avoided as a consequence of growing visitation levels. This paper presents the results of a study conducted in Cat Tien National Park (CTNP), Vietnam, which experiences high levels of domestic visitation because of its accessibility to Ho Chi Minh City, the largest urban area in Vietnam. Data from twenty four qualitative interviews with Vietnamese visitors, conducted during 2012, reveal soft ecotourism tendencies and anthropocentrism as dominant characteristics, arising as an outcome of long-term human interaction with nature in a Vietnamese cultural and social context. Anthropocentrism includes preferences for touching wild animals and plants, visiting protected areas in groups of four or more, avoiding wilderness areas due to safety concerns, and visiting large cities rather than national parks. These preferences were dominant in the three visitor groups identified by cluster analysis as being dominated by domestic Vietnamese visitors. Related beliefs include the inseparability of humankind and nature but also the inherent tension between the two as exemplified in the yin/yang dichotomy. Animistic tendencies and belief in ghosts underlie wariness of wilderness settings and larger-group preferences, with the latter also being motivated by strong indications of sociability and the efficacy of large groups for better solving potential problems such as getting lost or encountering hostile wildlife. Somewhat paradoxically, anthropocentrism also involves a strong desire to learn, predicated on respect for education in traditional Confucianism. However, focal interest in larger animal species contradicts the preference for micro-fauna identified in other East Asian ecotourist samples. Also differentiated is the lack of human artifacts in protected areas, and a pragmatic approach to sustainability that privileges utility. However, as a consequence of modernization, "Western" concepts of sustainability are becoming more prevalent, as indicated by the growth of environmental interest groups. Conflict between tradition and modernity is exemplified by conflicted attitudes about consuming the meat of wild animals. These findings inform suitable ecotourism management and products for diverse and changing domestic ecotourist markets and effective interpretation strategies for enhancing learning/education that better ensure

the attainment of triple bottom line outcomes. Yet, caution should be exercised when extrapolating these findings to other East Asian protected area visitor samples, due to the idiosyncracies of Vietnamese culture.

INTRODUCTION

After the entirely new genus of large hoofed mammal, the Saola (*Pseudorynx nghetinhensis*), was discovered in Vietnam in 1992, this country has been brought to the attention of global ecotourists and has become a new ecotourism destination (Sterling et al., 2006). However, despite efforts to conserve wildlife, protected areas in Vietnam are increasingly threatened (Brunner, 2012) and require a rigorous development of ecotourism as one optimal way for management of wildlife protection and increasing people's awareness of the importance of conservation (Goodwin, 1996).
Ecotourism markets are dominated by international visitors from Western countries (Eagles & Higgins, 1998), but the massive domestic visitation of Asian protected areas (Weaver, 2002a), overwhelming the international component, raises questions about the role and viability of ecotourism. In Vietnam, the emerging young educated middle class constitutes a potential domestic ecotourism market which has not been sufficiently investigated in the literature (King, 2008). Therefore, this research is designed to explore the distinctive characteristics of Vietnamese domestic ecotourists.

ECOTOURISTS

Ecotourism is commonly defined through three core criteria (Blamey, 1997) which emphasise (a) relatively undisturbed nature-based attraction, (b) the provision of opportunities for environmental learning and education and (c)_the management of ecotourism sites and associated visitation in tandem with the principle of 'triple bottom line' sustainability. Based on this strict definition of ecotourism, not all visitors travelling to protected areas can be considered ecotourists. In 1987, Laarman and Durst coined the concept of the hard-soft dimension of ecotourism by differentiating between dedicated or casual interest respectively and the physical rigor of the experience (Laarman & Durst, 1987). By examining national park visitors' behaviours, Weaver and Lawton employed a typology technique to prove and expand this theory. They found three groups of harder, softer and structured ecotourists, in which the newly identified latter group combine characteristics of both harder and softer ecotourists in the same trips (Weaver
& Lawton, 2002).

Understanding about the behaviours of Western harder and softer ecotourists is well developed. In term of ecotourism sites, for harder ecotourists, the destinations are wilderness or otherwise relatively undisturbed settings (Acott et al., 1998) and the efforts exerted to access those remote areas are considerable (Weiler & Richins, 1995).  In contrast, softer ecotourists prefer more infrastructure and services to make their trip more comfortable and less risky (Wallace, 1993). Softer ecotourists (or 'occasional ecotourists') sometimes combine their ecotourism trip with other leisure purposes (Laarman & Durst, 1987). In addition, preference for big city attractions can differentiate between ecotourists and non-ecotourists (Eagles, 1992).

In addition, research on learning and education purposes displays consistent findings about harder ecotourists (Weaver, 2002b). Learning new things about nature and wildlife occurs on-site (Ballantine & Eagles, 1994; Diamantis, 1999) or before the trip through prepared documents and reading (Lindberg, 1991). However, with softer ecotourists, learning activities are more passive as expressed by greater reliance on interpretation services (Meric & Hunt, 1998), the presence of interpretation facilities (Blamey & Hatch, 1998) and viewing wildlife in semi- or quasi- captive settings (Ryan et al., 2000).

The third ecotourism criterion implicates efforts to minimise negative impacts (or 'footprint') in the destination and improve conservation outcomes. Harder ecotourists require only basic accommodation and services (Laarman & Durst, 1987) and are also more likely to want to leave the destination in a better condition than when they arrive (Acott et al., 1998; Diamantis, 1999; Weiler & Richins, 1995). They are also more concerned with being ethical visitors (Wight, 1993). The potential negative impacts of softer ecotourists are well described in the literature (Duff, 1993; McClung et al., 2004). Approaching wildlife is one aspect of this dimension. Harder ecotourists make efforts to influence other people to not have a negative impact on the site.

While the Western ecotourist has been described extensively, Asian ecotourists have received to date poor coverage in the English-language literature (Cochrane, 2006; Tao et al., 2004). Nevertheless, empirical studies of Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Taiwanese ecotourists have unveiled some characteristics in common with Western ecotourists but also substantial divergences (Cochrane 2006; Kerstetter et al., 2004; Tao et al., 2004; Woods & Moscardo, 1998; Wen & Ximing, 2008). No studies about Vietnamese ecotourists have been undertaken to date. Thus, a main research question for this research is: How are the Vietnamese protected area visitors distinctive according to the three ecotourism core criteria?

STUDY METHOD

The qualitative study comprises two stages of total 24 in-depth face to face interviews. Stage one (I) comprises fourteen interviews in a field trip to the Cat Tien National Park (CTNP), a RAMSAR recognised national park in Vietnam, in early June 2010. Fourteen Vietnamese informants were selected by the researcher for their representation of harder as well as softer ecotourism proclivities, agreed to participate in in-depth interviews. The respondents were simultaneously and invited along the trekking trails or in the night wildlife watching tour. They were questioned about their motivations, behaviours, attitude, and experiences during their trips in CTNP and their overall view towards nature and conservation. Three visitors were interviewed just after their trip in the park and the other 11 were approached in Ho Chi Minh City not later than one month after the trip.

From the result of the stage I, a quantitative study surveyed 1,082 visitors to, in 2010-2011. This study segmented visitors into six distinctive groups by motivations, preferred activities, behaviours, and environmental and socio- economic attitude variables capturing the three core criteria of ecotourism and the distinction between harder and softer ecotourists. From the quantitative study, Principal Component Analysis also revealed the factor 'anthropocentrism' ($\alpha$=.714) which entails preferences for touching wild animals and beautiful flowers and plants; to be in a larger group of four persons or more; avoiding wilderness areas because of safety concerns; and big city attractions over national parks. Among six visitors groups, three groups comprising majority of Vietnamese visitors in the sample (93.4%), one group resembles 'soft ecotourists' and two groups as 'structured ecotourists'. Other three majority Western visitor groups pertain to harder, structure and softer ecotourist. It is noteworthy that the three majority Vietnamese groups have higher 'anthropocentrism' than other three groups. The qualitative interview component of the research was designed to not only explain the new concept of 'anthropocentrism' among Vietnamese ecotourists but also explore their distinctive characteristics in relation to the three core ecotourism criteria.

In the stage two (II), qualitative data consists of nine face-to-face in-depth semi-structured interviews and one telephone interview, was collected during a one-month period in early 2012. The informants were selected to represent each of the six groups revealed by the cluster analysis. Data collection occurred in Ho Chi Minh City after one week or maximum one month after their trips to CTNP. Most encounters took place in quiet coffee shops, except for one participant who invited the researcher to her home. Each interview took approximately 60 to 90 minutes. Ten interviews with Vietnamese informants were audio recorded then transcribed. In addition, the participants were encouraged to provide explanatory materials, such as photos, objects, and other personal things relating to their behaviour in Cat Tien National Park. Structured according to the three ecotourism core criteria, the following sections report the relationship between nature and human in which

concept of 'anthropocentrism' is explained, then introduced the nature of learning and sustainability from Vietnamese ecotourist perspective.

NATURE AND HUMAN

The Vietnamese people share a similar worldview with other East Asian people in embracing the *unity between humans and nature* (Sofield & Li, 2007; Wen & Ximing, 2008), and in regarding humans as an integral part of nature, as per the ancient influence of Confucianism and Taoism (Weller, 2006). As evidenced in the data, wildlife, landscapes and humans harmonise as a complete entity. Inseparability is one of the most popular themes raised by almost all Vietnamese participants. This finding corresponds to Lee, Lawton and Weaver (2013), who describe the reciprocal relationship between humans and the physical environment in Korean culture.

The existence of both unity and tension between nature and culture corresponds with the negative yin and positive yang of Taoism in which two opposite things exist reciprocally and paradoxically (Brunn & Kalland, 1995; Saso, 1972). Therefore, it was not surprising that besides unity between nature and human, nature was also perceived as being *distant from people* so that luxurious nature appeared only in cyber space. "The nature I know is only from Discovery or Geographic channels", C6V65f[1]. In addition, C2V68f similarly described her perception of the distance between humans and nature that she has experienced:

I mean nowadays, people gather in cities too much. It means that they compete to live here, even myself, competitive to find a job. They completely don't have time to go there (forest) and visit like we, students, do now. The majority of employees work from Monday to Saturday. I know a girl who just wants to sleep on Sunday. Asking her to go shopping, or walking, she never goes because working is too tiring, 8 hours a day. There are people who work in offices. There are people who work extra time. They even work on Sunday. The opportunities for them to visit and connect [with nature] are rare. I think nowadays, they [human and nature] are separated.

*Touching nature*

Touching, therefore, enabled people to have contact with and brought participants closer to nature; "I felt like I was close to them, I saw them, I touched them", (PilotG, female[2]). The desire to touch also resulted from a desire to feel that nature still persists:

I have a feeling that nature is close. It's close. It appears very completely. It's not a state that it is being destroyed. It's still untouched, wild. It's not faded. I think so. Once touching, I feel that it still exists…I respect it. I'm afraid that I don't have a chance to touch. Actually last time, I couldn't see any (C1V156m).

In addition, the cultural proclivity for touching is also evident in the Dong Ho folk woodcut paintings that were very popular in almost every household during the 17th to 20th centuries (Dao, 2013). The focus of these paintings was on domestic animals such as pigs, chickens, cats, buffalo, and fish (that is tamed nature), as well as rural life, agriculture and other cultural activities (that is human landscapes). Close relationships between humans and tamed nature were embodied and clearly represented in these paintings through images of humans holding and touching animals (Figure 1).

Data distillation exposes three cultural constraints that demotivate visitors from being alone in the forest. Mystery is defined by Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary as something that is difficult to understand or to explain, "In general, forest is a place of mystery. It has inside something that we don't know" (C1V232m). However, people still believe and have a fear of myths, for example sacred forests in Cam Din Chin that curse and punish intruders (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012). This animistic tendency is also found in Japan and India where curses associated with specific places or specific

types of wildlife prevent people from approaching (Gadgil & Vartak, 1976; Sasaki, Sasaki & Fox, 2010). As a result, Pilot N, male was "scared of being alone".

Figure 1. Dong Ho folk woodcut paintings (17-20th century).



*The alien concept of walking alone in the wilderness*

Ghosts are another issue, discouraging people from being alone in the darkness of the night. "But at night, I am afraid of ghost…not really…walking alone in the forest at night, I have a feeling of someone following me…and I hate that feeling", C6V65f. This fear is not confined to females. One male respondent who travels extensively to Cat Tien has also experienced the same feeling. Belief in ghosts is a reflection of local beliefs mixed with Taoist and Buddhist cultural characteristics (Peng, 2007). In the case of C4V198m, such spiritual aspects originated from Buddhism and prevent a harder ecotourist from walking in the night time when the 'yin' (dead people) are thought   to appear; "I am a true follower of Buddhism, and there are yin people and yang people". Although the existence of ghosts is not scientifically proven, its impact as a temporal barrier hold true in Cat Tien and has also been reported   in the case of tsunami-hit destinations in Thailand (Rittichainuwat, 2011).

*The preference to be a part of larger groups*

The fear of animistic spirits and ghosts aside, sociable interaction is an important consideration for Vietnamese people in protected area trips. Without accompanying people, the experience in the park would cause much distress for many Vietnamese visitors, with one respondent (Pilot N, male) equating solitude with an act of suicide: "Going to such a wild place needs friends. If I go alone, I might jump into Crocodile Lake". Less dramatically, C1V232m expressed the fundamental need for having others to communicate and enjoy leisure with: "Along the road, we have people to talk with, and make fun with".

When traveling with partners, visitors feel safer because they help and support each other as a way to cope with various constraints, such as being lost, a lack of knowledge, a lack of travelling experience, and a lack of survival skills. In addition, socialising is also a way to mobilise the collective expertise of the group: "If we meet dangerous animals, more heads can find out solutions", (C1V232m). This finding supports the high collectivism and low individualism of Vietnamese culture as measured by Hofstede's 2001 cultural survey, wherein Viet Nam ranks equally with the sister East Asian cultures of China, Thailand and South Korea (score IDV 20/100). The individualism score is much lower than in Western cultures such as Australia (90), UK (89), France (71) and Germany (67). Besides the direct impact on group size, Vietnamese collectivism is also argued to be associated with the alien concept of being alone in the wilderness, in sharp contrast to Western culture where many protected area visitors cherish solitude in wild or semi-wild settings.

*Big cities as safer than national parks*

Some constraints that may affect domestic visitors travelling to protected areas are presented in this section. In addition to the above dimensions of mystery and the supernatural, forests have also traditionally been regarded as unfavourable and risky destinations to visit. Dangerous animals are the most prevalent risk mentioned by both harder and softer ecotourists. People are usually warned about dangerous animals such as snakes and tigers when travelling into forests, and can easily mention anecdotes about unpleasant encounters from friends, family or other acquaintances. PilotL, female, shared her story; "I don't know which animals are inside the forest. They might harm me, don't they? People told me that there must have many dangerous animals, because it's the forest!". Visitors are also afraid of poisonous plants that are rumoured to be easily found in the forests (Thien Nhien, 2013). Protected areas, moreover, not only house hostile wildlife and plants but pose the risk of encountering illegal intruders. Illegal loggers, illegal traders, and wildlife poachers are all perceived to be security risks for the visitor, especially if they are by themselves. "While walking in the forest, people said that illegal loggers might attack …so I've already prepared some self-protection tools", (PilotG, female).

In order to better understand this issue, the social context of Viet Nam's increasingly urban population, which dominates the domestic portion of the sample, should be examined. Urbanisation in Viet Nam is a recent phenomenon affiliated with the *doi moi* policy of economic liberalisation, though city dwellers still accounted for only 30% of the population in 2010, or 26.3 million individuals. This situation contrasts with the figure of 85% in Australia, and 80.7% in the U.S (Berg, 2012; Stevenson, 2003; World Bank, 2011), but indicates a major increase from the 11.8 million in 1986. At least one-half of current Vietnamese urban citizens, therefore, constitute people with deep rural roots who had to quickly adapt to new urban lives. Having experienced all features of early, late and post- modernity within a single generation (Zukin, (1998), this new 'bourgeois' expects improved amenities, luxury brands, shopping arcades, easily accessible entertainment, golf courses, and of course travel to 'dream destinations'. National parks perhaps are the alternative destinations that satisfy a desire for novelty, but cosmopolitan and iconic tourist destinations are still preferred for general domestic tourists.

LEARNING

A desire to learn is indicated by the specific types of plants and animals that visitors wish to encounter. Question 6 in the survey questionnaires (Stage 1) asked respondents to list the names of wild animals and/or plants that they wanted to see in Cat Tien. Among the 374 Vietnamese visitors who responded to this inquiry, the coding shows that megafauna are most frequently listed. These include mammals such as rhino (82), deer (72), gaur (72), elephant (54), boar (16), and fox (9). Cited carnivores include bear (72), tiger (62), panther (35), weasel (8), cat (2), and civet (1). Primates comprise monkey (44) and gibbon (28). Listed amphibians are crocodile (62) and lizard (3) while reptiles are represented by snakes (14). Bird species include birds in general (73) and more specifically peacock (19), and pheasant (10). Other small species, such as leech (6), insect (3), and butterfly (3), are poorly represented. In terms of plants, giant trees (60) and wild flowers (39), in particular orchids (22), are of interest to visitors. It should be noted that 67 visitors, accounting for 18% of respondents to this question, were able to list specific types of species under families or scientific names. The highest number of fauna and flora listed by any single visitor was eight. Such high levels of familiarity, pending further testing, are likely associated with the preponderance of university students and others with university qualifications who may further reflect on the erosion of traditional taboos against 'dangerous' wild animals.

This salient Vietnamese preference for seeing megafauna is very much different from other studies alleging an East Asian (China, Japan, South Korea) focus on charismatic *micro*-flora and *micro*-fauna (Lee et al., 2013). The author's field observations confirm that the East Asian "blossom and waterfall" prototype (Weaver, 2002) is not applicable in Viet Nam ecotourism. As can be seen from the aforementioned *Dong Ho* folk paintings, Vietnamese imagery is different from East Asian

paintings that focus on panoramic views of landscapes (context-oriented) as well as small details. *Dong Ho* paintings simply present "human scale" images of subjects that share a certain similarity with the Western attention to major objects, and completely omit the background (that is, they are object-oriented) (Masuda, Gonzalez, Kwan & Nisbett, 2008; Petersen, 1995).

The different style of learning that characterises Vietnamese culture is also pertinent. All three majority Vietnamese clusters adhere to passive learning, unlike Western cultures, and therefore express support for interpretation, tour guides and other forms of attraction mediation. However, there is also awareness of how individual touching and other physical contact can facilitate the learning process. Through touching, people can gain some knowledge about the subjects, as emphasised by one informant: "I think that by touching trees, leaves, animals, they inspire us to love and understand nature", (C1V232m). What transpires in this exchange is that wildlife receives respect, empathy, and tenderness from humans, who in turn are inspired to love and respect nature.

SUSTAINABILITY

Given the aforementioned context about forests as an unfamiliar and hostile environment for the majority of Vietnamese people, it is not surprising that the historical and contemporary human artefacts that are commonly encountered in the protected areas of China, Japan and South Korea (Lee, Weaver & Lawton, 2013) are almost unknown in Viet Nam. Tombs are sometimes encountered, but these belong to indigenous people (Thanh, 2012). An important consideration here is how the agricultural culture still defines the relationship between nature and humans in the mindset of the many people with ongoing rural connections (Thomas, 2002). As a result, the Vietnamese proclivity was to protect forests only if they perceived them to be a direct benefit for themselves (Anh, 2013). One participant alluded to this proclivity in advocating more tourism for protected areas: "I saw another value…if we put our efforts to protect it, and employ it for tourism, we will have much benefit from it". (PilotG, female).

Recent developments, however, indicate some change in these attitudes. As this research neared its completion in late 2013, it appeared for the first time that a civil environmental movement protecting CTNP from the threat of two hydro-electric power plants had gained momentum. The Save Cat Tien group was established and sent a letter to the Chairman of the State Council. The information was disseminated online and obtained over 4,700 signatures on an online petition, according to savingcattiennationalpark.blogspot.com.au. It is the first time that the Vietnamese people lobbied to protect a forest not for their direct benefit but for the earth and for future generations.

This study finds that the biggest contribution of ecotourism experiences to sustainability is changing visitor awareness and traditional perceptions about wildlife protection and the role of conservation in improving the quality of life for an increasingly urban population. There is considerable evidence of an adherence to a 'steady-state' sustainability awareness that respects the environment by 'leaving no trace'. However, there is also evidence of a vanguard that evinces awareness of 'enhancive sustainability' in which human actions deliberately try to improve the condition of the environment. These "agents of change" remind other people to behave correctly and respect nature by clearing existing rubbish, inspiring other people, and being environmental models in their own behaviour. These environmental models, notably, often publicise their trip experiences through social media, calling for others to join the trips "to help people to obtain a right view of nature", C4V198m. The degree to which this 'right view' assimilates Western environmental sensibilities is as yet unclear, since the transition is still early and the advocates still too few.

Last but not least is the awareness of eating wild meat. In a metaphor for a changing Viet Nam, one participant confessed that he is struggling with himself about whether or not to eat wild meat. Like many other respondents, he selected the Neutral option for his answer to this question in the survey. In terms of the reasons why most participants insist that they don't like to eat wild meat, some admit that they would like to eat the meat of wild animals at least once. Curiosity is the reason most often given: "If the meat is special, I am open to trying it - trying it once just to know" (PilotN, male).

This curiosity may be related to perceptions that wild meat has good flavour and texture. The harder ecotourist C4V198m is aware of both sides of this issue and finds himself struggling with it: Desire for new things is a basis for being human. We all eat pork which is contaminated by chemicals so we want to try wild animal meat to see how it is by comparison. It's just the "like", but eating them is illegal, so we shouldn't do that. I hesitate, struggling with myself.

Confounding this issue is the observation that eating wild animals is not contradictory to a world view that sees animals and humans as part of the same unity of nature, though the logic of 90 million Vietnamese all participating in this activity is not conducive to harmony and balance because it dictates against the long term survival of wild animals. Socialising is another factor associated with eating wild meat. People just find it hard to resist eating it when they were invited to an event where wild meat was being served. They may feel bad about it, but they need to be diplomatic and keep a harmonious relationship with the hosts and other guests. This mismatch between attitude and behaviours is also observed in the hunting and consumption of wild meat on the Caribbean island of Trinidad (Waylen et al., 2009). Often marketed as a local specialty, in many places the wild meat is in high demand as a souvenir that people take back to families and friends.

Yet, most of the surveyed Vietnamese visitors expressed no intention to eat wild meat during the trip to CTNP. Besides feelings of disgust and cruelty, they cited ethical consideration, conservation issues and legal constraints. The belief in the unity of humans/nature, is also paradoxically, invoked in sentiments against such consumption. Emphasising the equality of all organisms in the world, one informant stated that: "In terms of spiritual aspect, I feel that a creature has its right to live", (C5V504f). This awareness very much related to a dimension from Buddhist ideology that called for restraint in the killing of animals. In sum, the experiences of Vietnamese visitors in protected areas informed by traditional ideologies that disproportionately affected urban residents, as well as by more recent Western influences through education and elsewhere and tend to comply with ethical perspectives that also pervade and typify Western perceptions of ecotourism (Fennell, 2001).

The idiosyncracies of Vietnamese culture curtail the degree to which the anthropocentric tendencies of its emerging ecotourist market can be extrapolated to other East Asian and Southeast Asian societies that share similar religious and philosophical traditions. It is also useful to note that culture is not fixed but evolves (Runciman, 2005), and that Vietnamese culture has been changing rapidly over the past few decades. The anthropocentrism revealed in this study is therefore likely to change even more as Vietnamese culture is integrated more broadly and deeply into the global community.
CONCLUSIONS

The results indicate that the domestic visitors to a protected area of Viet Nam that provided the sample for this study are indeed 'ecotourists' as defined in the Western sense through the three core criteria of nature-based attractions, learning, and sustainability (Blamey, 1997). Nevertheless, they do display different behaviour due to the idiosyncratic cultural and social context. In particular, a salient anthropocentrism dimension has been identified for the first time in the literature as the factor that most clearly differentiates the Vietnamese and Western ecotourist segments. This newly identified anthropocentrism, in conjunction with the harder-to-softer spectrum, has been critical for explaining the phenomenon of the domestic Vietnamese ecotourist. It can be seen that anthropocentrism contains many cultural implications, and consequently operationalises earlier discussions of cultural contexts that shape distinctive patterns of Asian ecotourism. For example, human manipulation of the environment that other authors (Lee et al., 2013; Sofield & Li, 2007; Weaver, 2002a) pointed out from observations in Asian national parks is arguably not solely for aesthetic appeal but also a response to the fear of emptiness and danger in wilderness areas. For this and other reasons, anthropocentrism also entails an embedded collectivism that underpins high crowding thresholds among Vietnamese ecotourists (Cochrane, 2006; Weaver, 2002a).

Morover, despite such conformities to the broader East Asian cultural context, idiosyncracies have been identified in Vietnamese domestic ecotourism that are not consistent with the otherwise ubiquitous 'blossom and waterfall' ecotourism model of the Buddhist/ Confucianist cultural realm

identified by Weaver (2002). This includes a paucity of introduced cultural artefacts, such as temples, cemeteries and gardens, in Vietnamese protected areas, and a preference for interacting with charismatic megafauna rather than with micro-fauna or microflora. The extent to which the Vietnamese model can be extrapolated to other East Asian contexts, therefore, is a matter for further investigation.

In terms of practical implication, a new regime of learning facilitation for domestic visitors should take into account the broader regional impulses of collectivism (i.e., cooperative group learning) as well as the proclivities to touch and otherwise interact closely with desirable flora and fauna. The complex learning context of Vietnamese visitors, moreover, should accommodate opportunities, perhaps through sensory botanical gardens and wildlife rehabilitation facilities, to satisfy those who seek sensory impressions (Ballantyne et al., 2011). This could foster a model of what might be described as 'complementary' or 'green' anthropocentrism that seeks deliberately and simultaneously to satisfy and enrich visitors without compromising parallel mandates to protect and restore the environment. It is perhaps even possible that interactions that attract feelings of awe and delight may further stimulate the sensitivities that are apparent in some of the Vietnamese visitors through 'enhancement sustainability', and inspire their participation in different kinds of site enhancement activities. In the longer term, the same effect may pertain to non- ecotourist nature-based domestic visitor segments exposed to the same opportunities (Coghlan, Buckley, & Weaver, 2012; Weaver, 2013). It may be suggested further that Western visitors are also exposed to these opportunities in order to achieve a better understanding of the Vietnamese culture and to meet Vietnamese people, thereby   potentially enhancing the visitor experience for both groups. These managerial implications suggest for the question about how Vietnamese strictly protected areas be managed to best accommodate both domestic and Western ecotourists whilst achieving optimal benefits for the natural environment.

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# INNOVATIVE FARM TOURISM: REFLECTION FROM PRACTITIONERS IN THAILAND

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## ABSTRACT

Farm tourism has received increasing attention among international markets due to the growing awareness of sustainability and the need for rural authenticity on holidays. Many farmers and local communities consider tourism as a potential means for socio-economic development, although they are confronted by several entrepreneurial obstacles to competitiveness. This paper examines an innovative business concept of Sirila Farm which successfully attracts European markets searching for responsible tourism products and services. In-depth interviews with the farmstay entrepreneurs along with on-site observations were conducted in a rural village of Wang Saphung, Loei province, in Thailand. Specific questions include: What are the success factors in running a farm tourism enterprise in Thailand? To what extent does the Sirila Farm provide a distinctive point of innovation and make it different from other farmstays/homestays in Thailand? How to offer authentic tourism experiences to customers with special needs and fulfill their requirements profitably? Voluntary simplicity is the business concept of this farmstay. The farm entrepreneurs have adopted an idea of simple living without electricity in combination with high standards of accommodation and quality of food. All tents are equipped with small solar lamps, candles and a private bathroom. Agriculture activities in the rice field and community involvement significantly enhance visitor experiences. The systematic work process is set to retain quality standards provided to the guests. Working collaboratively with travel agencies in Europe, particular in the Netherlands, is the main channel to access the market. Furthermore, social media and Internet have been used to deliver massages and facilitate bookings. The lesson from this case would give some insights for other farmstay practitioners aiming to attract and create rural tourism experiences to European markets.

Key words: Farm tourism, rural tourism, farmstay, voluntary simplicity, sustainability, marketing strategies

## INTRODUCTION

Rural tourism throughout the world has been considered as a driving force for socio-economic regeneration and poverty alleviation in rural settings (Su, 2011). Given a key role in the development of rural areas that were economically and socially depressed, rural tourism significantly provides a supplementary income and new employment opportunities through family enterprises and contributes to value creation of crafts and arts of rural communities (Perales, 2002; Su, 2011). According to Bramwell and Lane (1994), rural tourism is a broad concept which involves a wide range of activities related to farms, nature, adventure, sports, health, education, culture, and arts taking place in non-urban settings as a multi-faceted activity rather than farm-based tourism only. Therefore, farm tourism or agritourism which generally refers to activities predominantly relate to the farm or agriculture in a village or small town is seen as a subset of rural tourism (Nilsson, 2002). Both farm tourism and

agri/agro-tourism are terms which are frequently employed interchangeably in this academic field.

Due to the challenges facing agriculture which subsequently erode small farm incomes, many farmers in Europe, New Zealand, and North America have sought for a new source of income and for the diversification of the agricultural base (Busby and Rendle, 2000; Siemens, 2007). Recently, farm diversification into tourism has been increasingly considered as an engine for additional income, community engagement, and rural area revitalisation (Sharpley and Vass, 2006). Collectively, countryside is also viewed as a set of commodity which is attached to rural resources, in particular farming environment, connection with farmers and local residents, local ways of life, agricultural products and gastronomy, arts and crafts (Kneafsey, 2001).

As an agricultural country with rich biodiversity, Thailand has also sought for socio-economic regeneration in rural areas through the promotion of farm tourism which has received increasing attention among Western visitors. This is due to the growing awareness of sustainability and the need for a memorable experience on holidays. Given an alternative form of commercial home which allows guests to stay in farms and participate in agriculture activities, farmstay and homestay accommodations are an integral component of rural tourism in Thailand. Farmstays appeal both domestic and international travelers because they feature opportunities for guests to search for novelty, authentic experiences, and social interaction with host communities (Wang, 2007). The development of rural tourism in Thailand has made some achievements, in terms of regulation of homestay standards, management, and promotion of homestays as an alternative tourism product for sustainable rural community development (Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen, and Duangsaeng, 2013). Despite the initial achievements of Thailand's rural tourism development, most farm entrepreneurs in less- developed remote areas are still confronted by multiple challenges in running an efficient enterprise, namely, geographical remoteness, insufficient capacity in business strategies, limited funds to invest in technical improvements, marketing and managerial skills, language barriers, access to international markets, and maintaining quality standards to satisfy customers' requirements (Choibamroong, 2011; Kontogeorgopoulos, Churyen, and Duangsaeng, 2014; Srikatanyoo and Campiranon, 2008). Such obstacles to entrepreneurship have been previously identified by Su (2011) in the case of rural tourism in China that most farm business operators lack knowledge, expertise and training in the tourism field as required for sustainable business development in future. In other words, native mode of farming and standards of living make it impractical for them to provide and maintain high standards of accommodation, and rural tourism activities and services along with increased demand for quality and competence (Blekesaune, Brandth and Haugen, 2008).

Innovation, as a key attribute of entrepreneurship, is the process of translating a novel idea into products or services which potentially provides a distinct point of differentiation and creates value to customers (Drucker, 1985). Innovation is not about best practice or benchmarking, but rather a novel concept which is purposefully designed to radical change from the norm (Joppe and Brooker, 2013). Despite the multiple challenges in conducting business in rural areas, a visionary entrepreneur can create something new which nobody has done or offered the same thing before in Thailand. Such leadership may start to do small plantations, but with more fruit tree varieties which have never been planted in an area followed by doing a farm tourism business in a primitive and inaccessible village. The global concept on sustainability may be introduced to appeal international tourists who seek for rural authenticity of cultural exchange and the adventure of staying in a safe and comfortable farmstay. A variety of cultural activities, which provide an opportunity for interaction and engagement with locals and environment, can be co-created and delivered through visiting the farmer village, learning local gastronomy, arts and crafts, as well as having the first-hand experience in working in the rice field. It is noted that visionary entrepreneurs can create a meaningful ways in designing, adapting, implementing, and leading the farm tourism business towards long term success by making an application of creativity and providing products and services compatible with the potential customer demands.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The purpose of this study is to examine an innovative concept of farm tourism enterprise in the northeast region of Thailand by examining a case study of Sirila Farm, a small family farm enterprise located in a remote and rural village of Wang Saphung, Loei province. Despite its geographic isolation where has not yet been discovered by mass tourism, Sirila Farm serves as an example of successfully effort in conducting a farm tourism enterprise by practicing a concept of voluntary simplicity. Such concept had been discussed in Burch's (2012) paper as a cultivation of the production of leisure activities and well-being provisioned by sufficiency of necessities. In 2007, Wilai Sirila and her Dutch husband, Peter de Ruiter, started their farm business from scratch by themselves. They seek ways of integrating meeting customer needs with the magnificence of 'ordinary' by cultivating a slower-paced life with more appreciation of rurality. The success of Sirila Farm reveals a remarkable combination between global efficiency and local adaptation by developing an innovative farm tourism model which purposefully attracts European markets searching for sustainable tourism products and enriches their visitor experiences.

Sirila Farm has adopted a mindful way of life in pursuit of material sufficiency which is aligned with sustainable development in rural settings to attract international visitors. In order to create exciting and challenging experiences, Sirila Farm provides 4 safari tents and 6 small tents without electricity as accommodation on farms. Tourists stay on the tent, in annex of the domestic premise of owner, participate in a variety of rural activities including working in the rice fields or organic farms of tropical fruits, doing a biking tour throughout the village and learning to cook local foods with local residents. For the reasons discussed above, this innovative project potentially attracts more customers and achieves a high level of customer satisfaction. It should be noted that Sirila Farm has been selected in this study although it is not meant to be representative of the general population of farmstays/homestays in Thailand.

Specific questions are posed as a basis for the necessary inquiries, including: To what extent does the Sirila Farm provide a distinctive point of innovation and make it different from other farmstays/homestays in Thailand? How to create a rural tourism enterprise in a remote area which has not yet been discovered by mass tourism? How to deliver rural tourism experiences to European visitors with increased demand for quality and fulfill their requirements profitably? What are the success factors in running a farm tourism enterprise in Thailand? How to access the potential markets for sustainability?

Some lessons learned from this case, especially a business concept and marketing strategies for rural tourism, would provide guidance to other farm tourism entrepreneurs, inbound tour operators, and associations for rural development which seek for a supplementary source of income and raise responsible tourism products and standards for European markets. Meanwhile, the study results may also give some insights and further develop as a handbook for various organisations that provide to support communities in rural areas.

METHODOLOGY

This case study begins to understand how the farm tourism business could start up, survive, and thrive in the remote location of Wang Saphung, an unknown destination by both domestic and international tourists. A case study methodology was selected in this study in order to understand farm tourism entrepreneurs' perception on their business concept, marketing strategies, and challenges in running a farmstay enterprise in a remote location (Curran and Blackburn, 2001; Yin, 2003). Being a farm-based tourism enterprise which successfully provides innovative products and memorable visitor experiences to international markets, Sirila Farm has initiated an innovative project which potentially creates great possibilities of higher sales.

In-depth interviews were conducted with Wilai, Peter, and family members at their farm site on December 6, 2014 to allow for on-site observations of the farm tourism products and location. This

approach, which is often used by other researchers working with small businesses in rural locations, allows the researcher to deeply gain appreciate for the context and data (Chetty, 1996; Siemens, 2007). Data were transcribed from the interview recordings. The collected and transcribed data then underwent a thematic analysis to answer the research questions related to a business concept, product innovation, market accessibility, and quality service.

SUCCESS FACTORS AT SIRILA FARM

*Geographic Location*

Located in the northeastern region in Thailand, Sirila Farm is approximately 7 kilometres away from Wang Saphuang district in Loei province. Loei is commonly known as the land of the sea of mountains and the coolest in Siam. This province features spectacular mountain landscapes and cool-temperate climates. The route going to Loei is beautiful and the road is one of the best locations for cycling or motor cycling because it is lined on both sides with either trees or lakes. Apart from the unique geographical location and climate, Loei is also rich in natural resources and cultural heritage, especially monasteries, religious ceremony, and festive events. In addition, Loei is the land of unique characters, wooden buildings and dusty roads. Meanwhile, the cost of living and travelling expenses are relatively low in this province, if compared to other regions. However, the charms of this province and this region are not clearly projected to both domestic and international tourists because tourist attractions are quite far away from each other. Therefore, it will take quite some time to get from one destination to another, even though this region has newly developed routes of traveling between the regions both from the south and the north.

Geographically, Sirila Farm is surrounded by green mountains and far away from the bursting world, due to its remoteness. It can be said that green mountain scenery and cool-temperate climates in Wang Saphung are more ideal for the westerners, especially Dutch tourists who seek for new and distinct landscapes. Wilai and Peter started their farm tourism business in a remote village which is far away from the bustling world, but still untouched, pure, and primitive. The farm entrepreneurs understand and appreciate the 'charms' of geographic location in Loei and nearby provinces as well, notably exotic traditional cultures, hospitality of the farmers, the beauty and quietness of rural environment without air pollution. They saw a great opportunity in creating an innovative project that would support socio-environmental sustainability and promote the upper northeast region to international markets.

Initially, the farm owners cleaned up approximately 35,000 square meter of land that looked like a jungle and pumped up their own water and with the farmer family they have built everything by themselves. It can be said that they are fully self-supporting. The first plantation was of 1203 agar trees which oil extraction is used as a perfume; however, the carrots of the trees went rotten with the massive flood in 2011. Instead of one big plantation as a lesson learned, they went on the new plantation which does not require for considerable investment. Smaller plantations but with more variety and with fruit trees which had never been planted yet were introduced in the farm such as mango, pineapple, cashew nuts, macadamia nuts, Arabica coffee, coconuts, chilli, papaya, corn, iron wood, and dragon fruits. Until now the plantation project has become successful. As Peter stated: "We try to put things that never exist in this province….we bought seeds of red dragon fruits in the south and tried to grow here. So far, they are excellent…very sweet".

*Voluntary Simplicity Concept*

Voluntary simplicity, which is aligned with socio-environmental sustainability in a local destination, is the main business concept of this farm. Sirila Farm has special and distinctive characteristics by integrating an idea of simple living by keeping the lifestyle simple and easy going in combination with high standards of accommodation and quality of campfire barbecue dinner provided by candlelight. Being committed to biodiversity-friendly agriculture management, the farm tourism entrepreneurs built a restaurant, toilet and kitchen from naturally and manmade materials. In

addition, they offer safe, hygienic, comfortable safari tents without electricity. All tents are equipped with small solar lamps, torches, candles and a private bathroom with hot water shower and an open rain shower.

Wilai and Peter's lifestyle motivations focus more on the showcase of their farm plantations to those who visit them and a lessen concern on the accumulation of their personal wealth. Similarly, the lifestyle motivation has been identified by Goulding, Baum, and Morrison (2005) in the study of small tourism businesses in Scotland. It is noted that their motivations are aligned with the concept of voluntary simplicity aiming to maximum of well- being achievable through the minimum of material consumption (Burch, 2012). They also value leisure activities, relationships, and community involvement more than profit. As Peter explained:

"If you have an idea, you will be successful. Think about the passion you have for yourself. Do something different and challenging. Then, you will have satisfaction on yourself and the money will come. No need to be rich in life. If you have a nice life, have food, and can go for holidays some time. You are rich already. Why you need many millions in the bank! Be rich in yourself….It's not only about electricity, but we make people think about the Earth as well. This is challenging for us. We want to show other people we can do it".

He also added:
"You can do a biking tour through the village of Wang Saphung as well as through the rice fields. You will meet friendly people everywhere! As there are not many tourists in this area, the local people are really happy to greet you in their beautiful province".

In the practice of mindfulness and material sufficiency, the farm entrepreneurs value spiritual development and ecological integrity of the Earth. Peter stated:

"What do you really need in life? Here, we have everything – foods, vegetable. We can have meats by ourselves if we want to, but that would cause the problem with my wife because she cannot kill her own animals. No way! This is very sensitive".

Wilai also elaborated this matter:
"We don't use pesticides. We don't want to kill any earthworms because they benefit the soil ecosystem. If used [the pesticides], all insects would die. Instead, we grow lemongrass to repel mosquitoes. That's why there are plenty of fireflies here".

MARKETING STRATEGIES

*Understanding Customers and Anticipating Their Needs*

Peter's leadership and extensive professional experiences in handling European visitors, especially the Dutch market to Thailand, allow him to understand the needs, characteristics, and custom of European travelers who give a greater attention to the global tourism trends of socio-environmental sustainability, rural authenticity, high standards of accommodation, and quality of co-creation rural tourism experiences. The demand trends of rural tourism have been discussed by several researchers (Blekesaune, Brandth and Haugen, 2008; Chambers, 2009; Kastenholz and Lima, 2013; Lane, 2009; OECS, 1994; Tucker, 2003) as the increasing demand for visitor experiences in different settings and with distinct themes and activities. Apparently, they nowadays are more concern about local culture, rural authenticity, health and environment of the places visited. Furthermore, personalised interaction between locals and visitors, standards of accommodation, and quality of service provision are of great importance (Kastenholz and Lima, 2013 and Tucker, 2003).

At Sirila Farm, a number of 'authentic' rural activities in the village, which allow a host-guest interaction through a cultural intermediary of tour guide as well as high standards of accommodation, have been created to satisfy international markets with special needs of socio-environmental

sustainability. Meanwhile, what is new is the scope and variety of rural tourism activities and the increased demands for co-creation experiences, professionalism and flexibility of the services offered, along with increased demand for quality and competence (Blekesaune, Brandth and Haugen, 2008).

*Agriculture Activities at Sirila Farm*

Sirila Farm attracts the international markets mainly from the Netherlands, Belgium, and Germany. The markets are composed of three segments with special interest: young adults who interpret their own lives and search for fun and adventure, rural authenticity in the rice fields, and community development; seniors who are interested in visiting a rural village, livelihood, social customs of local communities, and histories; and families with children who share special time and learn how to make an original work of arts from local artisans. Visitors are contact with the farming world, the search for new experiences for their children, contact with nature, rice fields, tropical fruit orchards and plantations, and the opportunity for their children to play in the countryside. A link with rural space is established through agriculture as a tourist attraction. Visitors are keen to experience life in the countryside and traditional farming, although they also express an interest in the attractions offered by the surrounding countryside, especially "Monkey Mountain" where hundreds of monkeys running down from the mountain to welcome visitors. Ria en Ton Ory (Feedback from our clients, n.d.), shared her past experiences on tourism activities at the farm:

"We had a wonderful day, both biking and the BBQ at the farm. The bike tour brought us past many sites of interest, including harvesting the rice fields, splitting the rice corns from the shaw, grinding their rice in their mill. Next we stopped at the latex trees, the temple and the house of the old man and wife preparing the food for the market. We finished this morning with a wonderful lunch. In the evening on the way to the farm, we stopped at the small local brick factory. The BBQ was just gorgeous and finished with a super dessert. After dinner we let up a hot air balloon to thank the gods for a wonderful day".

It is noted that agriculture remains the principal link between tourism and the rural space. Wilai and Peter make considerable efforts to provide a wide range of tourist activities on their farms, such as doing a biking tour around the village, visiting a local kindergarten, interacting with locals and learning their everyday life and culture through sharing knowledge and creativity, learning to cook local foods and working in rice fields and organic fruit orchards. Activities and accommodation are clearly defined and attractive to the visitors. The leisure activities in the evening, especially a barbecue dinner and floating lantern (white air balloon) represent a platform providing visitors with the opportunity to establish contact with the farmer family and farm entrepreneurs and other visitors staying on the farm. The host-guest interaction while having the barbecues is a feature frequently sought by those interested in getting to know more about the rural way of life which leads to sharing knowledge and social exchange, and thereby fostering important dimensions of rural tourism experiences (Tucker and Lynch, 2004: Kastenholz and Sparrer, 2009).

*Package and Programme*

All inclusive package tours are designed and applied to Sirila Farm. The package tour offers lunch in the village, biking tour in the village, visiting Monkey Mountain, western barbecue, beverage, and evening leisure activities on the farm. Complete information on price, child special discount, reservations, payment, and cancellation policy has been clearly identified in the package. It is noted that the package tour may create value to visitors, help them in trip planning and identify the total cost of the trip, although there is a tendency for declining group travel. This is because of the rapid change in information technology facilitating communication directly with travel suppliers. In order to adapt to consumer travel trends, Sirila Farm potentially makes arrangements for small group travellers with family and friends to suit their needs. Bundling several attractions with similar meanings helps to create a special theme for a destination which results in a stronger sense of place for visitors. Accordingly, alternative route programmes with complete information on

transportations, attractions, and excursions with licensed tour guide in Wang Saphung and renowned tourist destinations in Loei province have been provided for individual visitors who take either package tours or self-driving car.

*Distribution and Promotion*

Being innovative and introducing new products in particular biking and motor cycle tours, Peter created the travel programme in the northeast region in Thailand for the Dutch group tour of Khiri Travel. As the charm of the northeastern region has not been clearly projected to both domestic and international visitors, he has played a significant role in crafting outstanding experiences and promoting Loei and nearby provinces to the travel wholesalers in the Netherlands. Interestingly, he took a lead in conducting a familiarisation trip aiming to familiarise international press and leading travel wholesalers in the Netherland to beautiful landscapes and renowned tourist destinations of Loei, in particular Chiang Khan and Phu Ruea National Park.

In order to attract international markets to Sirila Farm, Peter made considerable efforts to promote beautiful landscapes, natural attractions, unspoilt environments, and the hospitality of local residents in Loei, followed by promoting agriculture activities in the village, and a safe, spacious and comfortable safari tent without electricity in Wang Saphung. In other words, it is suggested that the marketing strategies for farmstays/homestays or commercial homes in rural setting, it is important to focus more on the destination attractions and leisure activities around the farmstay accommodation (see Chan and Baum, 2007).

Peter has learned, through years of experiences in the travel industry, to sell lifestyle and rural landscapes to his markets. Working collaboratively with travel agencies in Europe, particular in the Netherlands, is the main channel to access the markets searching for socio-environmental sustainability. Until now, the farm entrepreneurs have travelled to do marketing in the Netherland a few times per year. In addition, social media and Internet have been used as a key medium to disseminate travel information to individual visitors and facilitate their bookings.

*Community Partnership*

Running a farm tourism enterprise predominantly values visitor experiences in rural settings as a core tourism product, which requires collaboration with farmers and communities in a local village to create memorable experiences. Apart from business operators and visitors themselves who co-create tourism experience, farmers and locals also are the key players who help make a memorable experience. Meanwhile, successful rural tourism business requires tourism and community development skills. Therefore, it is crucial to build trust, support and work together with community members as a team towards the successful partnership. In order to create visitor memorable experiences, the farm entrepreneurs value leisure activities, relationships, and community involvement more than profit. As Wilai added: "When we do a plantation project, Peter would also think of other farmers. How can we support other people? How will it [the plantation project] link and share benefits to them? …for creating a biking route in the village, we would inspect where local people weave cotton or make crafts in case that the customers want to buy some".

Agricultural activities in the rice fields and cultural exchange in the village certainly require community involvement as well as the host-guest interaction providing the visitors to co-create tourism experiences. For the biking route, visitors can stop by a local kindergarten to visit young students and teach them English for daily life. This cultural exchange allows the students to familiarise themselves with European travelers, enhance visitor and local resident relationships, and broaden their exposure to internationalisation. In addition, the visitors can share their money to buy television for the school including making donations to orphanage in the village.

*Quality Service*

The farm entrepreneurs' personal values are important in determining the farm rules of conduct and are highly influential on visitor experiences (Tucker and Lynch 2004). Meanwhile, personalised customer service is an essential part of the business and fundamental to building customer loyalty. Being a family business, both Wilai and Peter are involved in operating the business, although each partner takes on different roles in the operations. Wilai is responsible for preparing meals, whereas Peter takes a role in standardising and monitoring the quality of products and services delivered to visitors. As Peter stated: "I'd like to make the contrast. Back to basic ways without electricity, but the room and foods should be excellent…Potato should be hot. We should take care. After the barbecue, take the plate away. Don't leave it on table before serving dessert."

As hosts, the farm entrepreneurs play a key role providing a personalised 'rural home experience', simultaneously acting as intermediaries between the local culture, the community members and tourists. They serve dinner and breakfast and arrange a biking tour to visit the farmer village reflecting a stronger focus on culture and rural authenticity (Haugen and Vik, 2008). Visitors can experience the farm ambience and participate in various types of agriculture activities with farmer involvement such as harvesting, cooking, and making crafts in the village. It is noted that all excursions in the village are carried out by licensed tour guide as required by Department of Tourism, Ministry of Tourism and Sports in Thailand.

Local residents are hired by the farm to build their capacity with clear roles, especially on the occasion of setting up the barbecue dinner. The systematic work process is set to retain quality standards provided to the guests. Staff have been trained, monitored, and advised by an experienced entrepreneur who understands customers' needs and expectations well. David and Marie-Jose Cobben (Feedback from our clients, n.d.), revealed their memorable experiences while staying at the farm:

> "This is a small paradise in the middle of nowhere. Beautiful surroundings, stars, flowers, very tasty food cooked and served by very very friendly people. It was a romantic surprise, our own floating lantern. Thank you for this unique and romantic experience!"

CONCLUSION

This paper discussed an innovative business concept of farm-based tourism in Thailand which has turned out to be successful and gain high levels of customer satisfaction. With respect to the farm entrepreneurs' personal values and motivation, a concept of voluntary simplicity is adopted to the farmstay by pursuing simple living contrasting the deluxe and comfortable safari tent without electricity. This makes it exciting and challenging to visitors who are increasingly searching for new travel experiences in different settings and with distinct themes and activities. The farm entrepreneur has learned and anticipated customers' needs and lifestyle through years of experiences in the travel industry. Appreciating geographic landscapes and rural resources in Loei province inspires him to creating new products appealing the niche tourism markets and promoting the northeastern region through the familiarisation trip.

According to Kastenholiz (2004), the potentials of rural tourism depend on the quality of a region's attractions, services and facilities, as well as on the way these resources are managed, integrated into a holistic rural tourism experience and the way this product is promoted and made available to the most interested market segments. It seems that Sirila has also been through multiple important factors, namely the geographic location in Loei and its surrounding environments, a clear vision, creativity, marketing strategies, community partnership, and the importance of quality services regarding safety and hygiene.

However, there are two challenges facing the sustainable development of farm-based tourism at Sirila Farm. For instance, Sirila Farm and Loei are currently more easily accessible by airplane and electricity. It is certain that the lack of accessibility and electricity is part of the charm that attracts

visitors. Therefore, how would the infrastructure improvement affect the business concept for Sirila Farm? Another challenge is that Sirila Farm predominantly attracts the Dutch and Belgian markets. This means that the farm will significantly depend on the economic performance in such countries only. Therefore, it is suggested that Sirila Farm expand to other markets, in particular the domestic market in Thailand as well as some potential markets from Germany, France, England, and Sweden.

It is undeniable that personalised relationships and the feeling of being a 'real guest' of 'authentic hosts' are the key strategy to a memorable visitor experience through participating in traditional activities, integrating into a unique rural landscape, and consuming organic products from the working farm. Therefore, collaboration with local communities is required for sustainable development for farm-based tourism.

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# SUSTAINING RESPONSIBLE TOURISM: THE CASE OF KERALA, INDIA

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## INTRODUCTION

Responsible tourism is a concept that overlaps significantly with concepts of sustainable tourism, ethical tourism, pro-poor tourism and integrated tourism. Sustainable tourism is defined by Middleton, (1998, ix, cited in George and Frey, 2010, 13) as 'achieving a particular combination of numbers and types of visitors, the cumulative effect of whose activities at a given destination together with the actions of the servicing businesses, can continue into the foreseeable future, without damaging the quality of the environment on which the activities are based'. While ethical tourism can be thought of as emphasising the ethical dimension of sustainable tourism, pro-poor tourism can be thought of as emphasising the re-distributive dimensions of sustainable tourism. The concept of integrated tourism brings geography into the equation and emphasises the locality and place based cross–linkages in tourism that allows it to become sustainable. Responsible tourism emphasises the role of businesses in achieving sustainability and can be seen as yet another concept within this genre.

The genesis of the concept is squarely within the corporate social responsibility (CSR) and corporate social investment (CSI) practices of business concerns (George and Frey, 2010). CSR and CSI practices grew as a response to pressures arising from changing ethical values of consumers and increasing awareness of environmental and social impacts of business operations. A raft of initiatives fall within their scope as for instance ethical sourcing, waste reduction and non-exploitative disposal, equitable employment, honest advertisement, fair pricing, community partnerships, responsible resource management etc. In general, responsible tourism encapsulates the import of such CSR and CSI practices into the business of tourism. George and Frey, (2010, 12) for instance defines responsible tourism management as 'managing the business in a way that benefits its local community, natural and business environment and itself". A slightly more expanded definition is used by the South African Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT). They define responsible tourism as 'tourism that promotes responsibility to the environment through its sustainable use, responsibility to involve local communities in the tourism industry; responsibility for the safety and security of visitors and responsible government, employees, employers, unions and local communities' (DEAT, 1996,4 cited in Merwe and Wocke, 2007, 1). Despite its increasing appeal in many countries, there has also been concerns about its viability as a distinct type of tourism. For example, Torres, King and Torres (2013) argue that the market for responsible tourism experiences has been overestimated and suggest that its emergence is more due to the support from governments and tourism industry as part of a sustainable tourism agenda and not because of any perceptible customer demand.

Responsible tourism as a motto has now been officially adopted by many important

tourism destinations. The concept has been actively promoted by academic centres of study such as the International Centre for Responsible Tourism (www.irctourism.org); International Conferences (such as the five 'International Conferences on Responsible Tourism in Destinations' held at Cape Town, South Africa; Cochin, Kerala, India; Belmopan, Belize, Central America; Muscat, Oman; and Alberta, Canada) and country specific declarations (such as the Cape Town Declaration, Kerala Declaration, Alberta Declaration, etc) . Though perhaps not yet a 'movement', the concept is increasingly being pushed by states and city governments on normative grounds. The international appeal of the concept could also be partly explained by the centrality given to the involvement and engagement of the private sector in managing impacts of tourism. Thus, besides offering a normative appeal, 'responsible tourism' also offers a pragmatic appeal in managing tourism in the increasingly neo-liberal world of today. After all, the private sector is the major provider of tourism experiences and services in most destinations worldwide and is a fast growing presence in this sector.

The aim of this paper is to discuss the processes involved in operationalising the concept of 'responsible tourism' within the state of Kerala, India, and analyse some of the projects. Finally, we highlight and emphasise the central role of what we terms as 'hands off' planning realised through empowerment, engagement and proactive facilitation in sustaining responsible tourism.

Data for this paper have been collected from secondary sources and key informant interviews. Secondary sources include Government publications (state and local levels), newspaper reports, and publications of activist groups such as EQUATIONS engaged in lobbying against environmental and social fall outs from tourism. Key informant interviews were conducted with private sector business operators in the aforementioned four tourist destinations and government tourism officials in Kerala. The analysis presented in this paper brings together information from different tourism related secondary sources and key informant interviews organised and evaluated from within a planning/governance related conceptual framework.

The next section describes the context of Kerala including relevant governance structures and tourism history. The second section describes the implementation of responsible tourism in Kerala. The third section introduces conceptual frameworks from planning and discusses the experiences in 'responsible tourism' in Kerala to argue for the importance of 'hands –off' planning. The final section advances key conclusions.

KERALA: AN INTRODUCTION

Kerala is located on the East coast of the Arabian Sea and has a population of about 33.4 million (provisional figures, 2011 census). It is well known for its scenic beauty and is a popular tourist destination. The state is also known as a forerunner in developmental intervention being host to a number of redistributive programmes such as land reforms, public distribution, etc, all of which has resulted in relatively broad based social development. As a consequence of this broad based development, Kerala has enjoyed more social equity, high levels of literacy and political activism (Franke and Chasin, 1997).

Kerala has built on its strengths to advance the People's Planning Campaign for bottom-up planning and the Kudumbashree programme for poverty alleviation. Both of these programmes are by now rather well known (Chetttiparamb, 2006). The former is a bottom-up planning process involving participatory budgeting and community empowerment launched in 1996 and firmly institutionalised since. Communities are empowered to plan local projects, prioritise the projects against a budget, and partake in implementation and monitoring of the same. Through an annual process, around 25% of plan funds are devolved to the local governments in Kerala, which are used for wide-ranging developmental programmes at the local community level (Chettiparamb and Kokkranikal, 2012). The People's Planning Campaign been by and large successful, particularly in rural areas, where local communities were given the freedom  to prioritise diverse kinds of economic, social and infrastructure schemes that suit the specific requirements of their places (Issac and Frank, 2000; Chettiparamb and Kokkranikal, 2012).

The Kudumbashree programme is a state sponsored poverty alleviation programme with broader goals of women's empowerment (realised through the working of women's collectives) and local economic development (realised through close integration with local government). The programme as a whole takes self-help as a strategy for poverty alleviation. Its mission is to:

"eradicate absolute poverty in ten years through concerted community action under the leadership of local governments, by facilitating organization of the poor for combining self-help with demand-led convergence of available services and resources to tackle the multiple dimensions and manifestations of poverty, holistically" (Kudumbashree, 2009).

In keeping with many similar programmes worldwide the Kudumbashree programme has four general objectives 1) empowerment of women through community based organizations, 2) thrift and credit operations and informal banking, 3) decision making by the poor, 4) micro enterprises and income generations activities (Kudumbashree, n.d, a). The structure that delivers these objectives is closely linked to the local government system (which as mentioned earlier, in Kerala, holds considerable funds and powers). They work with the Grama Panchayats (the lowest tier of a three tier system of local governance in rural areas) and the Municipalities and Corporations (Urban Local Self Governments). Overall coordination is done by the State Poverty Eradication Mission through its District offices. The organisational structure for the programme is depicted in Figure 1. The programme has won many awards and is generally known as an 'exemplar' within poverty alleviation policy circles in India (Kudumbashree, n.d, b).

Figure 1. Organisational structure of the Kudumbashree Programme. Source: Author.
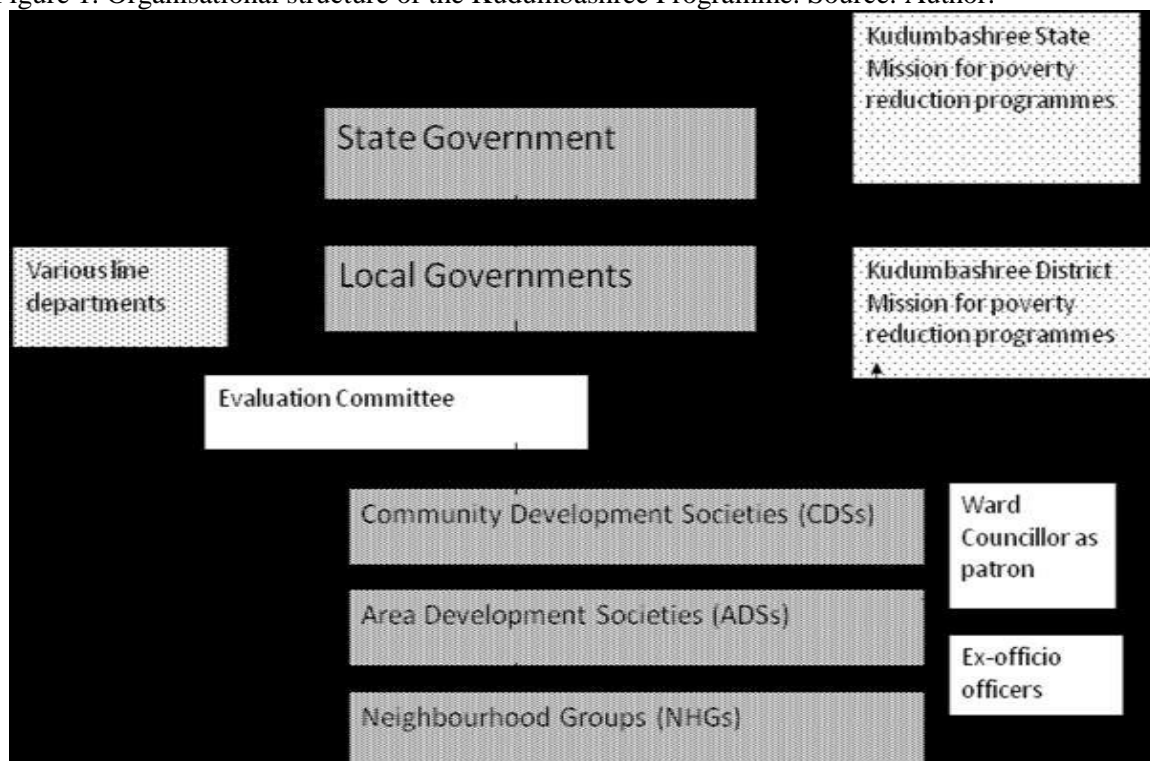


Some of the key features of the Kudumbashree programme are as follows:

*Development of federated system of community organisation based on representation*: A neighbourhood Group (NHG) is made up of 10-20 families (potentially including the poor and non-poor). The NHGs are federated at ward level (by election of office –bearers once in three years) to form Area Development Societies (ADS) which are in turn federated at city/village level to form a Community Development Society (CDS). A multi-level system of largely self-governing entities is thus institutionalised.

*Bottom-up Planning*: Planning for poverty alleviation in the Kudumbashree programme starts from below. Needs identified through dialogue and discussion at the NHG level are shaped into micro plans. These micro plans in turn are integrated into mini plans at ADS level. At the CDS level, these mini plans are integrated with projects from various government agencies and local government departments into action plans.

*Convergence*: Kudumbashree seeks to promote convergence with local government institutions as well as other programmes relevant to poverty alleviation operating in the area. This is achieved institutionally by the integration and participation of office-bearers from local government departments in the various governance spaces associated with the Kudumbashree.

*Local Area Development*: The Kudumbashree programme is organised on an area basis and therefore programme components are dove tailed to specific needs determined on a spatial basis. These needs can also be the impetus for change and new programme development. Further, volunteers of the governing body of the bottom-most level of Kudumbashree – the NHG – are charged to discern as well as monitor programme components to ensure health and education; basic needs provision and income generation for its members.

The programme has been particularly successful in empowering women (in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes in social, economic and political spheres), promoting thrift and credit operations and effectively targeting poverty alleviation efforts. Success in micro-enterprises has been varied. While very significant numbers of successful stories are abundant, stories of business failures, and struggles are also abundant (Oommen, 2008).

TOURISM IN KERALA

Geographically, Kerala has often been described as an 'extended village' (though the villages are comparatively speaking fairly urbanised in terms of infrastructure and service provision) and is blessed with outstanding natural beauty. Almost 50% of the state's population was once dependent on agriculture with the main crops being paddy, coconut, rubber, spices, coffee, tea and tropical fruits (George, 1997). However, in recent years the agriculture sector has been experiencing decline, with farming becoming increasingly unprofitable. Industrial activities in the state are limited, and with a militant trade union movement the state has not been very successful in attracting and maintaining industrial investment (Tharamangalam, 1998). Sustainability-oriented tourism development has been one of the major economic alternatives that emerged for Kerala. This recognition triggered a series of tourism development and promotional activities in the late 1980s.

In terms of natural and cultural assets for tourism, Kerala has a varied portfolio of attractions such as beaches, backwaters, hill stations, festivals, ayurveda (the traditional Indian medical practice), wildlife, traditional cuisines, classical and folk art and dance forms, unique artefacts and a distinctive style of architecture (Kelly and Kokkranikal, 2010). Though a late starter in tourism, the second half of the 1980s saw the Kerala Government introduce a raft of initiatives to tap the tourism potential of the state. First, in 1986, tourism was given an industry status thus making the sector eligible for all public sector incentives and concessions that were extended to other industries. This was followed by the announcement of significant investment, particularly in tourism infrastructure, and the announcement of a number of performance incentives to the tourism industry. Some of the public sector interventions taken during this time include the establishment of a new tourism training institute in 1988; formation of District Tourism Promotion Councils in…. to decentralise tourism efforts and make it more broad based; a year-long campaigning for tourism awareness in 1992 to increase public awareness of tourism related issues; organisation of familiarisation tours for overseas travel trade and media and the development of international airport at Kochi to name a few. Strategically these programmes, projects and interventions served to elevate and proclaim tourism as a high profile sector for private investment.

Figure 2. Institutional structure for the implementation of tourism in Kerala
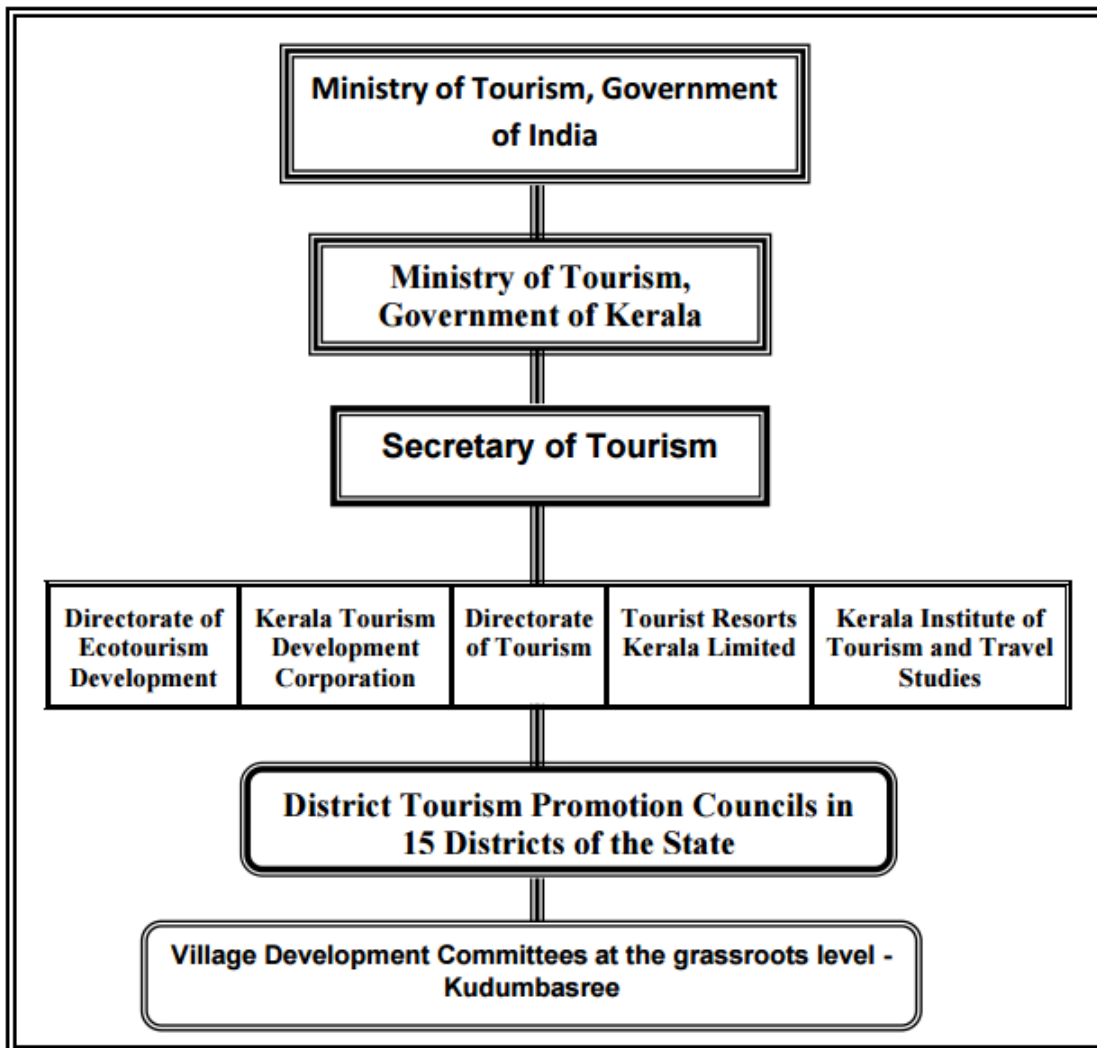


The nineties saw Kerala significantly benefitting from private sector investment in tourism. Public-private joint ventures with leading hotel chains in the country such as the Taj Group were launched. The state also participated in major international tourism trade fairs and organised a trade fair of its own in 2000. The period also saw the identification and promotion of a specialised niche market in health (Ayurveda) tourism.

The declining fortune of Kashmir as a major tourist destination in the 1990s also helped Kerala (Kokkranikal and Morrison, 2002). Kerala could present itself as an attractive and viable alternate tourist location thus attracting national government budgetary support. As a result of all the factors above, Kerala tourism is now widely acclaimed as one of the successful marketing stories in Indian tourism (Chakravarty, 2001). The state has won the national award for the 'best performing state in the tourism sector' several times and has been hailed as 'the undisputed tourism hotspot of India' (Charkavarti, 2001). Tourism statistics of Kerala from the mid-80s onwards has seen a quadrupling of arrivals, an indication of the impact of concerted development and marketing efforts.

Kerala has not been free from some of the environmental and socio-cultural problems attributed to tourism however (Kokkranikal, 1993). Kovalam, a major beach resort destination, has become a case study of negative impacts of tourism, with problems such as littering and pollution; drug trafficking; commercial sex activities involving men, women, and children (White, 2007); displacement of local inhabitants; and competition between tourism industry and locals for resources and infrastructure. Indigenous cultural attractions such as Kathakali (a form of dance drama), theyyam (a religious

festival celebrated in north Kerala temples), and other similar temple festivals in the state have been packaged as tourist products, leading to concerns about commodification of traditional cultures. Pristine and beautiful natural attractions (e.g. Athirapilli waterfalls in Trichur) have been subject to adverse environmental impacts. Resentment has thus grown amongst the general public with increasing concerns about the pressure exerted by tourists, on the already over-stretched infrastructure and resources in the state (Kokkranikal, 1993). With the development of new destinations and consequent increase in marketing activities, the number of tourists to the state is only likely to increase.

The above pressures and public discontent has now induced the Government to adopt the concept of 'responsible tourism' as a way forward. The implementation of the concept in Kerala has however taken on a character and tone that is specific to Kerala and its development history. In the next section we detail this particular initiative in Kerala.

RESPONSIBLE TOURISM IN KERALA

An initiative to implement responsible tourism began in the state with a state level consultation on organised by the Department of Tourism, Government of Kerala in association with the International Centre for Responsible Tourism and EQUATIONS (a non-government activist organisation and 'hard' campaigner on tourism related issues) in 2007. Discussions were held in sub-groups consisting of 1) Local self governments and civil society organisations; 2) Tourism industry and 3) State Government Departments and organisation, which led to the identification of a series of economic, socio-cultural and environmental issues. These were documented and included in a framework for the implementation of responsible tourism. Also a 'State Level Responsible Tourism Committee (SLRTC) was formed with 40 representatives from different groups of stakeholders (Chettiparamb and Kokkranikal, 2012).

The SLRTC meeting identified four destinations to pilot responsible tourism initiatives. These destinations were chosen for their importance as tourism destinations, differing on tourist volumes and the ecological sensitivity of the destination. These were Kovalam (a coastal destination), Kumarakom (a backwaters destination), Wayanad (hill resort destination) and Thekkady ( a wildlife reserve with contained settlements). Further three state level multi-stakeholder Working Groups were constituted for steering economic, environmental and socio-cultural aspects of tourism management in the state. Three Implementation Cells in each destination supported each of the above three working groups. Further, multi-stakeholder Destination Level Coordination Committees and local working groups were to be formed for each destination to coordinate local action. The state level committees worked on preparation of guidelines for responsible tourism at destinations, and local committees worked on the specificities of implementing the guidelines in locations. Please see Figure 3 for the organizational structure for responsible tourism.

Destination management committees (DMCs) constituted at destinations have representatives from state government departments, local self governments, tourism industry, NGOs, civil society organizations, academia and media. Additionally, organizations and individuals professing expertise in a range of subject areas of relevance to the management of tourism were also members. The local self governments came forward to lead and facilitate local destination level planning, implementation and monitoring.

A major impetus for the responsible tourism initiative came with the incorporation of Kudumbashree and the State Poverty Eradication Mission as partners. As mentioned earlier, eradication of poverty through facilitation and development of entrepreneurial skills amongst women while contributing to local economic development through programme 'convergence' is a strong mandate of the Kudumbashree programme. The federated Kudumbashree units are also by and large, a politically and socially forceful presence in all local government endeavours throughout the state.

Figure 3. Organisational layout for the implementation of Responsible Tourism in Kerala (adapted from www.keralatourism.org/rt-impactsocial.php accessed 22nd October, 2011).



Responsible tourism held a major opportunity to the Kudumbashree programmes to create a new market for their goods and services. A symbiotic link between responsible tourism and Kudumbashree programmes soon emerged, engendering local entrepreneurship development and thereby poverty alleviation. A major drawback of the Kudumbashree programme was its inability to market their goods and services and responsible tourism programme opened up a market to the Kudumbashree units operating in the four destinations (Venu, 2008).

Supply and demand though co-existing locally had not, until then, automatically found each other in the destinations. The tourism sector had identified a series of issues in the workshop conducted at the start of the launch of responsible tourism. This was further detailed through a demand survey of issues in local food procurement amongst hotels in the four destinations conducted by the Kerala Institute of Tourism and Travel Studies. It emerged that hoteliers though in principle willing to procure food locally, had a number of concerns that would have to be addressed if local procurement was to become a reality (Chettiparamd and Kokkranikal, 2012). These were:
•        Produce requirements were in practice not steady (and averaged) throughout the year and supply chains would need to cater to this variability. Sudden spurts in demand were not uncommon and timeliness of supply would be needed.
•        Acceptable prices had to be negotiated. In some instance, local procurement could be more expensive with prices lower outside the locality. Therefore supply chains to hotels could end up procuring non-local food produce.
•        Quality control of food produce was of prime importance.
•        Local food producers often were very small entities and hoteliers could not engage in one to one transactions with each producer (Venu, 2008).

The Kudumbashree units now had to devise a strategy to address these concerns of hoteliers. The

local governments took a lead on facilitating strategy formulation and other coordination mechanisms between the Kudumbashree and the hoteliers leading to the execution of a formal agreement between the two parties. Some of the key elements of such a strategy involved:
•       Selected ranges of food produce to be targeted at first.
•       Food production beyond tourism to be targeted by including the local population both in order to ensure spare production for hotels at all times and to ensure enough demand for excess capacity in supply (especially given that only selected food produces were targeted).
•       Dedicated brokering units facilitated by the local government to be set up to address timeliness, quality control, fair price guarantees and access to resources (finance, land and skills).

The range of specific projects that were adopted is perhaps best illustrated through the experiences in the destinations. The responsible tourism initiatives and projects in two out of four destinations have been relatively successful and are thus fairly widely documented. Initiatives in these two destinations are summarised below. Accounts of the two less successful responsible tourism initiatives are more hard to find and though anecdotal speculative accounts for their failure exists, these need to be researched further for conclusive findings. Information for the accounts below is drawn from the government website of the Department of Tourism.

Kumarakom: This was the most successful of the four locations in which the pilot project was implemented. An agricultural calendar in response to timeliness of demand of food produce by hotels was prepared by the local responsible tourism cell (RT cell). Kudumbashree units of 5 members were then constituted for the cultivation of food produces chosen. 180 such groups involving 900 women were formed with land for cultivation earmarked and fertilizers and seeds supplied by the local government. Fallow land for cultivation was found through a household survey and physical reconnaissance survey. It is reported that paddy cultivation in 55 acres of and vegetable cultivation in 30 acres resulted. Further, 612 homestead farmers were motivated to take up vegetable cultivation. Organic farming practices were encouraged. The resource mapping exercise also identified 26 un-used ponds, 20 of which were restored as fish farms and 6 were restored for lotus cultivation. Initially (in 2008) 11 produces from the units were supplied to the hotels, which in 2010 has grown to 45 produces. It is estimated that around one third of the population of the village is involved in the production and sale of agricultural produce.

Other initiatives that were started under the responsible tourism initiative is the development of microenterprises in souvenir units and the formation of art and culture groups by women and children in a number of traditional art forms. The RT cell also developed calendars of local festivals and celebrations that could be used for marketing and promotion by industry partners. Other ancillary initiatives include the development of tour packages of village life and experiences, enhanced environmental protection through promotion of eco-bags instead of plastic bags, mangrove regeneration and control of backwater pollution. Energy saving initiatives through the development of local green certification and use of energy efficient street lighting is under way. Further, a grass root level community generated multifaceted resource mapping (containing information on different kinds of resources including that of art and culture), and a destination labour directory has been completed to help with planning.

Michot (2010) lists following achievement of the Kumarakom responsible tourism initiative:
•       "Significant increase in local agricultural production
•       Creation of a cultivation calendar
•       Creation of systems for steady prices to avoid inflation and market fluctuations
•       Creation of 10 Karshakasamity (farmers groups), with a total of 460 people
•       Creation of 20 Kudumbashree units, with a total of 250 women
•       Creation of 5 Micro Enterprises focused on women
o       1 women fish processing unit
o       1 women chicken processing unit
o       1 women Chappathy (local bread) processing unit
o       2 coconut supply units" (p.10)

The responsible tourism initiative has also led to the involvement of 760 women in the cultivation of local produce, 35 in retail activities, 30 in art and cultural groups, and 45 in the village tours, significantly contributing to the overall social agenda for women's empowerment (Michot, 2010).

Wayanad: The dispersed tourism settlement of Wayanad proved to be difficult to coordinate and manage. This quickly led to the decision to focus responsible tourism initiatives to the more limited area of Vythiri in Wayanad. The experience in supply of local food produces to hotels more or less follow the same pattern as Kumarakom. The RT initiative started with 12 items supplied to 2 units which later expanded to 43 products to 10 units. Further in Wayanad, two ethnic food corners show-casing tribal and indigenous food were opened. Festival calendars, destination resource directories, labour directories, development of souvenir markets, village tours, energy efficiency in street lighting, etc follow the same pattern as that of Kumarakom. As in Kumarakom, energy management practices of industry partners were studied and mass awareness of plastic pollution including cleaning initiatives were organised. Further, in Wayanad, major social issues related to tourism were studied by the RT cell to help with planning as were the unique sacred groves in the District. A Visitor Management Plan was also prepared for one of the busiest attractions in Wayanad - the Edakkal caves.

Thekkady: Projects that were started at Thekkady included the opening of a snack bar by tribal communities, design of a village life experience pack operated by the tribal community and a solid waste initiative. A Destination level Directory including festival calendar, information on local cuisines, ethnic life and culture was prepared. An awareness campaign, 'Clean Kumiliy, Green Kumily' was also organised to improve the overall cleanliness of the area...

Kovalam: Initiatives at Kovalam included a zero-tolerance campaign against child sex abuse planned after an appraisal of the situation on the ground including the sources and causes of the problem. A full day tour, 'Beyond Beach' and a half day village experience tour 'Lake and Life' were introduced. A local labour directory was prepared to boost local employment in the tourism sector. Further, a Karthika festival of lights was organised, and a destination development plan was prepared to manage some of the environmental problems in Kovalam.

It is clear from the above account that though some activities were organised in all four destinations, the uptake of the same was very variable. Responsible tourism activities at Kumarakom are generally acknowledged as a success, with useful and productive cross-sectoral synergies forged leading to a considerable enhancement of local economic productivity. On the other hand, initiatives at Kovalam are generally regarded as a non-starter. Of the remaining two destinations, Wayanad has been more of a success than Thekkady. A systematically conducted empirical research will be needed to conclusively unpack the reasons for this variability. However, in the next section, we advance four possible explanations that might account for the differences. Besides information collected on the cases discussed, this explanation also draws upon theoretical understandings from both the tourism and planning literature.

POTENTIAL LIMITING FACTORS TO RESILIENCE OF TOURIST DESTINATIONS

It is widely acknowledged that while tourism development has the potential to spur local economic development, often this development is accompanied by unwelcome social impacts on the destination. It is important then to enquire if localities can be resilient in harnessing the economic potential of tourism while dealing with the negative impacts and what might be the limitations to such an approach. In particular we are interested in how planning can intervene in and contribute to the resilience of tourism destinations. Resilience is defined as the 'ability to experience positive economic success that is socially inclusive, works within environmental limits and which can ride global economic punches' (Bristow, 2010, 153 citing Ashby et al 2009). Below we suggest four factors that could explain the variations in success of responsible tourism in the locations discussed above.

*Relative 'maturity' of tourist destination*

Butler's (1980) Tourist Area Life Cycle (TALC) traces the evolution of a tourist destination from its inception onwards. Accordingly, beginning with the 'discovery' stage a destination goes through 'involvement', 'development', 'consolidation', 'stagnation' and 'decline', which may be followed by 'rejuvenation' or 'further decline'. In general destinations experience healthy growth up to the consolidation stage. However, destinations in stagnation and decline stages often see a reversal in this growth leading to deterioration of the offer to tourists, negative impacts from tourism, loss of economic competitiveness and community antagonism to tourism. Butler's (1980) TALC is mirrored in the Irritation Index developed by Doxey (1975), who traced changes in community attitudes towards tourism at destinations in four stages, viz. 'euphoria', 'apathy', 'annoyance', and 'antagonism'. Tourist destinations typically would see the development of a full-fledged tourism industry in the development and consolidation stages, leading to the establishment of various types of supply chains (including illegal chains). In the saturation and decline stages, communities show annoyance and antagonism. Typically, the local economy will also have been transformed completely during these stages with most agrarian or rural economies turning into a tourism economy. Destinations that are in earlier stages of development may not have a critical mass of tourism businesses while those in the post saturation stages will have an oversupply. Thus responsible tourism initiatives that seek to develop local supply chains may find it difficult not only to break the prevailing supply chain relationships but also to prepare a hostile and relatively gentrified destination community with a fast disappearing agrarian economy to form an effective supply chain to service the tourism industry. Destinations that are in stages between involvement and development can however find an enthusiastic host community and a healthy tourism industry reciprocating the enthusiasm shown by the host community.

Also, destinations that have benefitted from a planned approach to their development will have a supply of tourism businesses that are more attuned to the demand conditions, while unplanned destinations will have wider, but not necessarily healthy, array of tourism businesses and ownership patterns, ranging from illegal shacks and self-employed vendors to luxurious resorts. Also, unplanned destinations often have an oversupply of tourism businesses. A significant number of businesses also may not be engaged in legal business concerns thus rendering their participation in community and government led businesses participation problematic.

The difficulties encountered at Kovalam is a good example of a destination that is in the post saturation stage (Jacob...). Tourism became the dominant economic activity in Kovalam, ever since the mass arrival of hippies in the 1970s. The absence of any systematic tourism planning has led to a trajectory of growth, not all of which are desirable (Department of Tourism, 2011). This has led to a disconnect and considerable hostility between industry providers and local populations with little faith and considerable hostility to any venture steaped in a CSR agenda (http://www.tourism-watch.de/en/node/1394). The relative 'maturity' of the tourism industry can also explain the prioritisation of the zero tolerance campaign against child sex abuse rather than re-forging of food supply chains taken up under the responsible tourism initiative.

On the other hand, tourism became a significant economic sector in Kumarakom in the early 1990s. The potential for broad based economic leveraging has not yet been forged in the community (Kerala Tourism Watch, 2011). Kumarakom therefore has a host community willing and able to work together with the tourism industry in a mutually beneficial way, making the re-configuration of comparatively less entrenched supply chains a distinct possibility under responsible tourism efforts. Further, tourism in Kumarakom was developed with the knowledge of adverse experiences in tourism development elsewhere in the state (such as Kovalam) and at a time when concepts such as sustainability and ethical tourism were becoming increasingly popular. In Kumarakom, therefore the demand for reconfigured supply chains could be significant both from the supply and demand side.

*Place characteristics*

Place characteristics play a major role in determining the nature and structure of a community, its economy, capabilities and attitudes. In this paper we discuss two features of places - the relative urbanisation and the nature of community – as being potentially influential on structuring local economic possibilities.  It is generally agreed that an urbanised community would have a relatively diversified and developed economy in the service sector. Urban dwellers typically have access to a wide range of livelihood opportunities and primary sector activities such as agriculture may not occupy a prominent position. Community interaction also tends to be less direct, with group feelings and opportunities for mutual cooperation less prevalent than in rural communities. Rural communities on the other hand tend to have an agrarian economy, follow primary group behaviour and interaction, and work together to solve social and economic problems (Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997). Tribal societies are still more different in that social relationships are primarily based on family and kinship ties. They reside mainly in forests and hills, and follow a subsistence economy. There is little desire or incentive to amass wealth or resources for the future and they are generally preoccupied with meeting day to day survival needs. Moreover, there has been a history of exploitation of tribals by outsiders with many instances of land grabbing and sexual abuse by settlers and feudal landlords making them very suspicious of government programmes to bring development to their communities.

Kovalam has until recently been an urban suburb of Thiruvananthapuram city (the capital of Kerala) with the characteristics of an urban Indian society. Consequently since 2010, it has become an electoral ward of the Corporation of Thiruvananthapuram with urban status. This then means that there are little opportunities for primary sector engagement and consequent localisation of supply chains within the locality. Anecdotal evidence indicates that though attempts were made to reconfigure the supply chain to local produce, a regular and reliable supply of farm products could not be orchestrated. The urbanised character, could have made it difficult to stimulate enough volunteerism and dialogue which are so essential for such broad based community initiatives. Kumarakom on the other hand, is largely a rural society with an agrarian economy. With a declining agriculture sector, the opportunities to form a Kudumbashree supply chain for the tourism sector was welcome initiative for the people of Kumarakom. Further, being a rural society, their sense of kinship, group feeling and mutual cooperation facilitated the social dynamics necessary for the responsible tourism projects. Thekkady and Wayanad are places with a substantial tribal population. As discussed earlier, tribal societies follow a subsistence economy and their world view has no place for wealth creation or entrepreneurship. An absence of local entrepreneurship is not very conducive to developing the local economic resilience of locations thus potentially leading to very little local uptake of the projects. Commodification of tribal life and culture through activities such as meetings with the tribal chief observing tribal handicrafts-making are generally not well received. The structure of land holdings in Thekkady and Wayanad are also significantly different. Large tracts of land are reserved forests in both locations, but in Thekkady, the tourism spot is next to a heavily protected Tiger Reserve, which has major restrictions on human activities thus rendering accessibility to tribal communities all the more difficult here. Land holdings that are free from restrictions, are mainly large and held by generally affluent planters more interested in the cultivation of cash crops and spices that can generate more income. Therefore land available to the economically marginal groups is limited and more so in Thekkady than in Wayanad. The presence of a critical mass of producers to guarantee a tourism supply chain is therefore questionable in these locations and especially so in Thekkady.

*Capacity of local governments*

The lead for the planning and implementation of local government initiatives have come from local actors – mainly volunteers – acting for and under the goodwill of the local government. The responsible tourism cell constituted at local level liaises with Kudumbashree members (an established organisation of gendered collective action and a history of pro-poor small and medium business entrepreneurship of women) and industry partners to match demand and supply in quantity,

quality and timeliness. This broad based, multifaceted pro-active facilitative intervention requires local knowledge, dialogue and local leadership. It also requires a creative local level convergence of funds from a variety of sources, programmes and sectors which can only be garnered under the auspices of an empowered and active local government. In Kerala, especially in the rural areas, such engagement and innovation have been generally forthcoming under the various initiatives forged under the People's Planning Campaign. This has resulted in rather high levels of local social capital especially in the spheres of local level activism, community mobilisation, inter sectoral and inter-departmental dialogue, resource mobilisation and project based convergence of resources, labour and expertise. However, there can be great variability in levels of social capital formation. In general, rural areas have shown more engagement with such local level initiatives and some sectors such as education and infrastructure provision have benefited more from such engagement. Within this overall pattern, local government capacity related factors such as local level politics, leadership, ability to attract volunteers, efficiency in bureaucratic processing etc can vary with consequent impacts on local government efficacy for designing and implementing innovative projects.

Initiatives taken by the Kumarakom Panchayath (the local government) are detailed by the website of Kerala Tourism Watch (an organisation that pools together civil society activists and local communities that protest against exploitation arising from tourism related activities). According to this website, fall outs from unsustainable tourism were creating local level problems with little benefits and these were increasingly voiced at Kudumba Yogams (family meetings). This led to the Panchayat in 1997 agreeing to conduct periodic surveys that could lead to the formulation of a democratically forged tourism development plan. Accordingly GIS mapping, socio-economic surveys, assets mapping, attitudinal surveys and surveys of problems and issues in tourism was done in 2000. These were then complied into a Status Report on Kumarakom in July 2002.

The need for regulation of tourism soon became apparent from these surveys. Accordingly a technical session was conducted in order to explore the powers and functions of the panchayaths under the devolved regime of local self governance. A people's Charter and Draft Guidelines on Sustainable Tourism for Kumarakom followed. This Charter proposed regulations on new constructions and utilisation of common resources, insisted on direct and indirect local employment and enhancement of local well being. A 'functional' committee on tourism was constituted under the Kerala Panchayat Raj Act to plan, implement and monitor tourism development was also constituted. The Chairperson (leader of elected council) and Secretary (overall bureaucratic chief) were the President and the Secretary of the functional committee. Other members included all Panchayath elected representatives, local tourism experts, local environmentalists, local economists, local NGOs, the District Town Planning Officer and representatives of the tourism industry. This was followed by the creation of a sustainable tourism forum outside the functional committee framework. Part of the work of the forum was to lobby on issues and decisions made by the Panchayath. Thus the forum protested against the panchayats move to reclaim the backwaters for providing parking space to the tourists and lobbied for the declaration of the bird sanctuary as a community reserve. They have been able to halt the former and initiate action on the latter. Also political parties have lobbied on a range of issues such as local job reservations, closing down of illegal massage parlours and increased environmental awareness.

As discussed earlier, the social characteristics of Kovalam, is different from that of Kumarakom. Kovalam is now a new ward within urban Thiruvananthapuram Corporation with little self governing powers. Protests of political  and official marginalisation within  the Corporation apparatus have already been advanced from Kovalam and the fact that two different political parties lead the present Corporation and the former Panchayat does not help matters. (http://ibnlive.in.com/news/new-corporation-wards-yet-to-feel-welcomed/158150-60-123.html). In Wayanad and Thekkady are remote locations with a sparse population. Further a substantial part of this population is tribal.

CONCLUSIONS

Sin (2010) argues that the drive for responsible tourism originated from tourist's demand for ethical and authentic holiday experiences and that campaign materials on responsible tourism encourage critical and reflexive thinking on part of the consumer, who then would put pressure on the tourism industry to be more responsible tourism practices. Sin (2010) then goes on to suggest that the impetus for responsible tourism comes from ethical sensitivities of the consumers from the developed world and provides a care discourse to explain responsible tourism. We argue that this discourse of care and suggestions of exogenous origins for responsible tourism is in itself rather patronising. What is de-emphasised in this view are the rights and interests of local residents at tourism destinations and the democratic ways and means that may or may not be available to them to demand and enforce responsible tourism. The case studies discussed here problematise Sin's rather simplistic understanding of the factors that lead to the uptake of responsible tourism. An engagement with the whys and hows of successful responsible tourism operations at destinations suggest instead a rights based discourse of environmental awareness and justice.

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# INBOUND, EXPAT AND DOMESTIC CLIMBERS: A SEGMENT-BASED EXPENDITURE ANALYSIS OF MOUNT FUJI'S SUMMER SEASON

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## ABSTRACT

This segment-based expenditure analysis of Mount Fuji's 2008 summer season investigated inbound tourists, expatriates and domestic climbers via an intercept survey of 927 descending climbers. Domestic climbers, who preferred package tour or car access, had the highest total expenditure (¥17,190), followed by expats (¥13,500), composed predominantly of young males who were less likely to stay in a mountain hut. Inbound climbers spent the least (¥9,818), tending to use public transport as Fuji represents one destination on their Japanese itinerary. Following Fuji's UNESCO World Heritage listing in 2013, this paper provides a retrospective benchmark for expenditure research within Fuji's diversifying climber segments.

Key words: market segmentation; expenditure; inbound; Mount Fuji; mountain climbers; ethnic diversity

Market segmentation involves dividing a market into homogeneous subsets of consumers based on motivation, activities and expenditure. Examples of the latter are scarce (Mok & Iverson, 2000), although such economic analysis is fundamental to management, underpinning effective marketing strategies and policy-making. One practical constraint is the tendency for economic benchmarks to rely on aggregated data based on total arrivals, tourist receipts or overnight stays. Few studies drill down into the micro-level socio-demographic and economic factors that affect individual expenditure behaviour (Fredman, 2008; Wang & Davidson, 2010), especially in non-Western tourists. Yet prior research has found significant differences between Caucasian and Asian visitors (Lee, 2000). The values, expectations and expenditure of international tourists differ from those of domestic visitors, posing new challenges for destination managers and marketers. This makes micro-level monitoring of their consumer behaviour indispensable, particularly at iconic, honeypot destinations such as Mount Fuji. Japan's tallest peak at 3776m, Fuji has long been revered as a sacred site and its rich climbing heritage, including organized pilgrimages to the summit, was a core component of its inscription as a UNESCO World Heritage Site (WHS) in 2013. Despite requests for an updated management strategy from ICOMOS[1], climber expenditure has not been monitored. To address this gap in the practitioner and academic research, this research draws on primary data collected from descending

climbers via an intercept survey conducted in 2008. An a posteriori segmentation was determined based on empirical evidence showing significantly different behaviour in domestic and international climbers. Inbound tourists to Japan also displayed different traits from expatriates, so 'inbound,' 'expat' and 'domestic' climber segments were purposively sampled. Chi-squared was used to analyse variation among the three segments viz-a-viz demographic profile, climbing behaviour and transport modes, and the F-test in the case of expenditure. This segment-based approach sheds light on diversity in consumer behaviour among domestic and international climbers at Fuji, providing pointers for marketing and management strategies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Market segmentation is a technique that involves dividing a heterogeneous market into homogenous subsets of consumers to design and implement strategies targeting their needs and desires. Specific channels are used to target segments constructed along behavioural and geographic boundaries, or by occasion or benefits. Initially investigated as a means of maximising efficient use of marketing and promotional budgets (Kotler & McDougall, 1983), the concept crossed over to tourism management via planning techniques such as the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (Manning, 1985) and social marketing (Takahashi, 2009). Segments have also been analysed according to different activities such as camping or skiing (Mok & Iverson, 2000), or by different motivational and behavioural profiles (Oh et al, 1995; Perera et al, 2012). There have also been extensive applications to international tourism (Chang & Chiang, 2006; Yan et al, 2007; Liu, 2014) which underscores the relevance of a segment-based approach to this research given Fuji's recent visitor diversification and the reported increase in international climbers. As a newly- inscribed WHS comparison between domestic and international was paramount. Of the a priori and a posteriori types of segmentation noted by Mazanec (1994), most prior research has followed the former, seeking to retrofit segments based on expenditure (Spotts & Mahoney, 1991; Kim et al, 2006). The segments employed in this paper were instead determined in an a posteriori fashion using empirical studies which found significantly different behaviour between domestic and foreign climbers (Jones et al, 2013b). Furthermore, international tourists making short term visits to Japan displayed different traits from expatriates living and working in Japan for a longer period of time. Hence three segments were purposively sampled; 'inbound tourists' (defined as foreign visitors staying for up to 90 days[2]); foreign residents staying in Japan for over 90 days, registered with authorities as 'resident aliens;' and 'domestic climbers' of Japanese citizenship. The segments were abbreviated to 'inbound,' 'expat' and 'domestic' respectively.

METHODOLOGY

The site selected for this research is among the world's pre-eminent tourism destinations with colossal annual footfall – over 100 million visits to the national park; 30 million to Fuji's northern face in Yamanashi, and 3 million to the Fuji-Yoshida trailhead at the 5th station[4]. The number of climbers – which exceeded 300,000[5] in 2008 – appears comparatively few until the brevity of the season is noted[6]. Climbers cluster on weekends and public holidays and time their ascent to see sunrise from the peak, resulting in over 90% of summit attempts occurring between 02:00am and 07:59am (Jones et al, 2013a). The cumulative impact of these variables results in intense spatial and temporal congestion at peak times. Recent seasons have seen a diverse mix of first time, female, and foreigners. International climber data is not recorded, but interviews with park managers and tourism operators suggest a rapid recent rise in line with a twofold national increase in inbound visitors to Japan from five in 2003 to ten million in 2013[7].

The research instrument employed was a questionnaire randomly distributed to descending climbers on the Yoshida route in the summer of 2008. Yoshida is the busiest of the four main Fuji trails with a 56% market share in 2008 (Fig.2.). An estimated 172,369 climbers ascended using the Yoshida trail during the 62 day season (from July 1 to August 31). The total 927 valid questionnaires collected thus represents a sample of 8.3% of the total climbers during this period, while recall bias that can affect expenditure surveys was minimized by using self-administered questionnaires filled in on the spot.

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After a pilot test, the main survey was conducted from 09:00 to 13:00 hours on four days in the peak climbing month of August, including both weekdays and weekends. Questionnaires were provided in English and Japanese with a combination of open and closed questions designed in line with the four research questions to capture the climbers' demographic profile; climbing behaviour; means of transport; and expenditure over the course of the Fuji climb respectively. The response rate was raised by use of an incentive; a bottle of locally-sourced mineral water was passed to respondents upon completion. The location of the survey site at Izumigataki junction near the end of the descent also enabled climbers to stop for a rest under a canopy providing shade and shelter from the elements. The results were coded and entered into SPSS (v. 21.0) software before cross tab analysis was employed as the basis for the cross-cultural comparison of the three market segments. Finally, distribution was tested using chi-square, with the F-test added in the case of expenditure median scores.
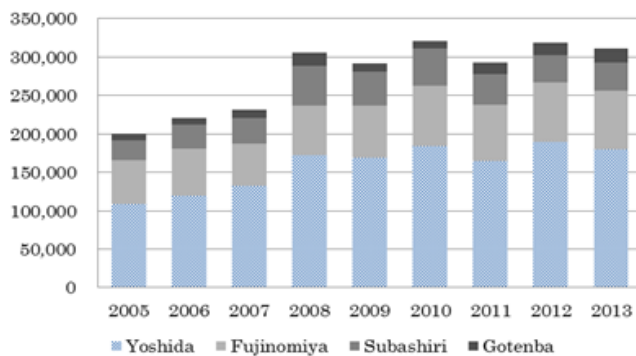


Fig. 1. Number of Fuji climbers 2005-13
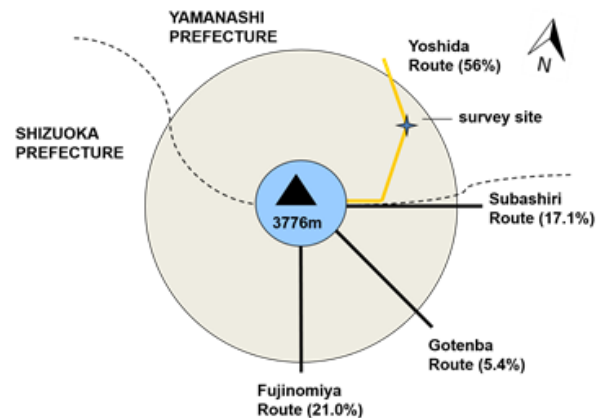


Fig. 2. Birds-eye view of Fuji's four trails[3]

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

All three segments consisted chiefly of young, male climbers (Table 1). Expats had the biggest gender imbalance, with almost two-thirds male, and the youngest median (28 years) with 75% aged 30 years or less. Conversely, domestic climbers showed the closest gender parity (46% female), and the oldest profile (46% aged over 30). The significance of the age difference was confirmed by F-test analysis of the climbers' mean age of domestic (Table 4). Domestic climbers tended to tackle Fuji in pairs (41%), while expats climbed in groups of 3 to 5 (42%) and 75% of inbounds climbed in groups of up to 5 persons. The most frequent overall category of climbing companion was 'friends' (59%), and no significant differences were observed among the three segments results. The highest rate of repeat Fuji climbers was domestic (29%), who were still significantly more likely to employ a guide (33%) and stay in a mountain hut (71%). Among international climbers, expats (20%) were more likely than inbounds (14%) to use a guide, and their repeater rate was higher (11%). Inbounds were more likely to pay to 'stay' in a hut (31%), while expats tended to merely take a 'rest' (35%)[8]. Almost half of the international climbers did not use the huts at all. Domestic climbers had the highest frequency of package tour (43%) and car (30%) users, and the lowest taking public transport (34%)[9]. Conversely, inbounds were the most likely to use public transport (76%) and the least likely to use a package tour (15%) or car (7%). The expat segment was positioned between the two extremes; their usage of cars (12%), and package tours (20%) was less than domestic climbers but public transport (66%) was greater.

Table 1. Results of demographic profile, climbing behaviour and transport by segment

| Variable | | Sample size | Market segments | | | Chi square | Cramer's V |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Domestic | Expat | Inbound | | |
| Gender | Male | 927 | 54.5% | 65.1% | 59.4% | 7.5504* | 0.09 |
| | Female | | 45.5% | 34.9% | 40.6% | | |
| Age | <30 years | 918 | 54.3% | 75.3% | 64.2% | - | 0.147 |
| | 30 to 49 years | | 34.6% | 23.8% | 26.0% | | |
| | >50 years | | 11.1% | 0.9% | 9.8% | | |
| Group number | <3 people | 896 | 41.4% | 25.1% | 39.4% | 27.0379*** | 0.123 |
| | 3 to 5 people | | 38.5% | 41.6% | 35.9% | | |
| | 6 to 9 people | | 12.6% | 17.8% | 11.2% | | |
| | 10 or more | | 7.5% | 15.5% | 13.5% | | |
| First Fuji climb | First time | 929 | 71.3% | 89.0% | 97.2% | 70.4929*** | 0.275 |
| | Repeater | | 28.7% | 11.0% | 2.8% | | |
| Guide | With guide | 910 | 32.7% | 20.3% | 13.7% | 29.5063*** | 0.123 |
| | Without guide | | 67.3% | 79.7% | 86.3% | | |
| Mountain hut | Stay | 903 | 70.5% | 16.8% | 31.3% | 233.7651*** | 0.36 |
| | Rest | | 5.7% | 34.9% | 19.3% | | |
| | Didn't use | | 23.8% | 48.3% | 49.4% | | |
| Car | Yes | 921 | 29.8% | 11.8% | 6.8% | 57.4659*** | 0.25 |
| | No | | 70.2% | 88.2% | 93.2% | | |
| Public transport | Yes | 922 | 33.5% | 65.9% | 76.1% | 127.887*** | 0.372 |
| | No | | 66.5% | 34.1% | 23.9% | | |
| Package tour | Yes | 921 | 43.2% | 19.7% | 14.8% | 69.9784*** | 0.276 |
| | No | | 56.8% | 80.3% | 85.2% | | |

*** significant to 0.1%; ** significant to 1%; * significant to 5%; † significant to 10%

Finally, the total expenditures were examined[10] (Table 2). Overall, the total expenditure of domestic climbers (¥17,190) was the highest, followed by expats (¥13,500) and inbounds (¥9,818). Domestic climbers had the highest expenditure in all categories except food and drink. Expats outspent inbounds except in mountain huts, where the inbounds were more likely to stay as described above. Transport and accommodation categories had the greatest intra-segment expenditure spread, with the tendency for domestic climbers to use a package tour or car resulting in significantly greater transport costs (¥9,605) than for their international counterparts, particularly inbounds whose equivalent expenditure was around half that of domestic climbers. The higher rate of mountain hut stays among was also an important factor in total expenditure, but transport was the largest single cost category for domestic and expat climbers, accounting for an average 39% of total trip expenditure. However, for inbounds, the mountain hut was the biggest outlay (38%). Domestic climbers spent proportionally more (15%) on souvenirs, and less (9%) on food or drink than internationals, partly because the cost of two meals is already included within the price of a hut stay[11]. Thus expats, who were least likely to stay in a hut, consequently spent the most on food and drink (¥2,201). In the souvenirs category, domestic climbers (median ¥3,558) outscored expats (¥2,773) and inbound segments (¥2,277). Purchasing patterns also differed – among domestic climbers, mementoes[12] were the most common purchase (34%), outscoring internationals (12%), who preferred to buy a climbing staff[13] (43%, compared to 20% of Japanese).

Table 2. Median expenditure and age by segment

| Variable | Sample size | Market segments | | | F-value | η2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Domestic | Expat | Inbound | | |
| *Transport* | 715 | ¥9,605 | ¥8,175 | ¥5,500 | 14.59*** | 0.04 |
| *Mountain hut* | 339 | ¥7,919 | ¥5,827 | ¥6,040 | 5.459** | 0.03 |
| *Food/drink* | 616 | ¥2,016 | ¥2,201 | ¥1,746 | 1.837 | 0.01 |
| *Souvenir/others* | 432 | ¥3,870 | ¥2,587 | ¥2,277 | 4.329* | 0.01 |
| *Total* | 858 | ¥17,190 | ¥13,500 | ¥9,818 | 27.23*** | 0.06 |
| *Age* | 918 | 32.31 | 27.52 | 29.99 | 17.54*** | 0.04 |

*** significant to 0.1%; ** significant to 1%; * significant to 5%

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This preliminary expenditure study of Mount Fuji's 2008 summer season investigated three a posteriori segments. Variation in demographic profiles, climbing behaviour and transport resulted in significant differences in expenditure. First, in terms of demography, inbounds and expat profiles were younger and more male. Among expats, this reflects the small groups of international students and interns who tackle Fuji while living and working in Japan. Cultural taboos combined with the perceived physical exertion has dissuaded elderly and female domestic climbers in the past, but these gender and age gaps appear to be narrowing (Yamamoto et al, 2012). Next, in terms of climbing behaviour, inbounds had the most first-time, and domestic the most repeat climbers. The 28% repeat rate of domestic climbers may appear low given the reverence with which Fuji is held by the local population, but it should be viewed in the context of a mountain habitually climbed as a unique experience, as depicted in the Japanese proverb: 'only a fool never climbs Fuji, but only a fool climbs more than once.' The tendency for domestic climbers to use a guide, join a tour and stay in a mountain hut was also significantly higher than for their international counterparts. A degree of correlation between use rates of guides, mountain huts and package tours was expected, since many of the guides are employed directly by the huts, or receive commissions from tour agencies. Domestic climber behaviour may also reflect the recent rise in numbers and WHS media attention which has heightened competition to book berths in huts, creating a captive market which necessitates joining a tour as a de facto requirement to ensure accommodation[14]. Also, the domestic climbers' older profile may have influenced their tendency to use a guide and stay in a mountain hut as worthwhile investments in safety and comfort, echoing prior findings that among Japanese outbound travellers, expenditure increases with age (Jang et al, 2001). There are also historical factors that should be considered, since domestic climbing behaviour may follow in the footsteps of Fuji- kō pilgrims who sought the summit in the pre- modern era. En route, the pilgrims paid a range of tolls including bōiri [board], yamayakusen [entrance], enzasen [rest stops], and misogiryō [spiritual purification] (Iwashina, 1983). Pilgrims were also accompanied by local sendatsu [guides], while their travel arrangements were made by oshi [priests] who functioned much like modern-day tour operators (Kikuchi, 2001). This legacy helped convince the ICOMOS inspectors of the site's WH credentials, imbuing recognition in the current crop of climbers of a costly, and therefore meaningful, undertaking.

More research is needed to find whether the differences observed in foreign and domestic consumption are due to willingness to pay or fundamental variation in underlying values as found by Lee (2000). Exogenous barriers such as insufficient multi-lingual information at the trip planning stage also play a role. In terms of logistics, inbounds' tendency to use public transport reflects a lower rate of car ownership, but also their widespread use of multi-stop passes, notably the Japan Rail (JR) Pass[15], which is only available for purchase by tourists. For young inbound travellers, Fuji is one destination on a wider circuit across Japan, so this segment seeks to minimize climbing

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expenses to conserve money for the rest of the itinerary. 62% of international climbers came from Western countries in Europe, Oceania or North America, and the greatest single citizenship was USA (n=72). Having travelled long-distances to visit Japan on summer holiday, inbounds might be more content to check the Fuji climb off a long 'to-do' list on their 'once-in-a-lifetime' trip to Japan which may last several weeks. Conversely, the second most profligate segment, expats (total spending ¥13,500) have more time available to focus on their Fuji climb in detail, so it is puzzling that inbounds were more likely to 'stay' at mountain huts while expats merely took a 'rest.' Are expats 'coping' with high living costs by spending less on a mountain hut stay, or are they trying to offset the higher cost of transport given their ineligibility for the JR Pass? Also, although explanations of variance in modes of transport seem plausible it remains unclear if the varying proportions of package tours and repeat climbers were due to different levels of preparation prior to climbing, or cultural and linguistic barriers after reaching Fuji.

Overall, the findings support the a posteriori division into three purposively sampled segments, with significant differences observed in demography, climbing behaviour and access as well as expenditure. Although preliminary in nature, they can thus be said to have several implications for managers and marketers. First, domestic climbers had the highest total expenditure and thus the largest direct impact on the regional economy, both per capita and in absolute terms since they account for the majority of all climbers[16]. This contravenes previous findings that nature- based tourism in Japan is at a crossroads as the predominantly domestic market shrinks, ages and splinters, yet concerted efforts to attract replacement inbound segments remain at a nascent stage (Jones, 2014). However, unlike other destinations, Fuji still attracts stable or increasing numbers of domestic visitors, so there is less incentive for Japanese marketers to branch out to younger, less wealthy inbound segments as domestic demand remains buoyant after the WHS listing. Apart from package tours, huts and guides, domestic climbers (median \3,558) also outspent expats (\2,773) and inbound segments (\2,277) in souvenirs, partly due to different tastes, with Japanese climbers preferring mementoes while foreigners opted for a climbing staff. Nonetheless, international tourism is becoming a key source of foreign exchange for regional economies such as Yamanashi, so more research on inbound expenditure trends is vital as part of the nationwide push to attract 20 million inbound visitors by the Tokyo Olympics in 2020.

The findings also have more immediate ramifications for management of Fuji's cultural and natural resources. Many of the negative impacts universally associated with mountain tourism can be found in abundance at Fuji. If anything, they are exacerbated by Fuji's colossal footfall and unique climber behaviour, including the aforementioned spatial and temporal congestion. After criticism from an ICOMOS report, the bordering prefectures of Yamanashi and Shizuoka piloted a new conservation donation system in the 2013 season. Climbers were encouraged to donate \1000 each to support a range of environmental and cultural conservation initiatives, initially on a ten day trial basis. The fee was collected via the set-up of voluntary pay-stations on all four trails and the scheme was extended across the entire 2014 season prior to the creation of a revised management plan by 2015. The new donations represent a regalvanised determination on the part of management to mitigate visitor impacts such as trail and toilet congestion. Yet it also raises some thorny issues related to charging for access to amenities. Conservation of intangible cultural heritage is a multi-layered endeavour complicated by large numbers of seasonal visits. Given the lack of prior investigation into climber expenditure, the new donation system risks being misunderstood as knee-jerk reactionism. It may exemplify the paradigm shift in policy-making that seeks to use market mechanisms as a tool for conservation in protected areas such as national parks (Pascual & Perrings, 2007). But based on Fuji's experience, considerable hurdles remain and there would be an irony if the new donation linked to Fuji's inscription as a WHS were to deter inbound climbers who have been shown by this research to spend the least money on the mountain. However, if conservation is perceived as a service provided for the benefit of domestic tax-payers, local management agencies may be loath to be seen subsidizing global heritage such as UNESCO WHSs that are designated on account of their 'outstanding universal value' but host a complex mesh of contested use and non-use values (Frey, 1997). In order to untangle such disputes, follow-up studies to this retroactive research into climbers' consumer behaviour are needed to clearly benchmark economic benefits that outweigh negative

impacts and help plan for unfolding changes in the managerial environment, including the new donation system. More specifically, research on expenditure and consumer behaviour is important for strategic planning of facilities and amenities (Mok & Iverson, 2000). As in prior studies that recognized ethnicity as a "major factor influencing recreation site use and behaviour" (Baas et al, 1993), so the relatively recent internationalization process occurring at Fuji and other destinations across Japan requires management intervention tailored to meet the needs of these of the newly-emerging segments. Although preliminary, this paper has shown international climber profiles and behaviour to differ from those of domestic visitors which could create confusion or conflict as social boundaries are breached. Specific directions for future research are threefold. First, more detailed analysis of each segment, such as comparing Asian inbounds with Western ones. Next, reassessing climbers' motivational factors viz-a-viz risk management discussions and the 'novelty-seeking' debate (Chang & Chiang, 2006). Finally, updated studies are needed to compare post-WHS inscription climber expenditure.

This paper also faced certain limitations. Firstly, with regards to sampling, the choice of Yoshida route – although justified in terms of market share – could be extended to include all of the four major trails. Next, the accuracy of self-stated expenditure surveys have been questioned, and the use of a bi-lingual questionnaire survey available only in English as well as Japanese could have resulted in an underestimation of non-English speaking foreign climbers. For example, although the numbers of East Asian visitors from countries such as Taiwan, mainland China and South Korea have increased rapidly in recent years their presence in the survey seems likely to have been underreported.

CONCLUSIONS

Findings revealed homogenous trends such as a market dominated by young, male, first-time climbers. However, the segment-based approach was validated by the significant differences which emerged, with domestic climbers more likely to employ a guide (33%), climb using a package tour (43%) and stay in a mountain hut (71%). Overall, the aggregate expenditure of Japanese climbers (¥17,190) was the highest, followed by expats (¥13,500) and then inbounds (¥9,818). The influences of history, demography and media are discussed along with segment-specific factors such as the JR Pass that encourage inbounds to use public transport (76%). Since economic impact studies provide a benchmark of the direct use values and some externalities of heritage sites, this paper has implications for cross-cultural research into diversifying visitor use as well as applied ramifications for marketers and managers seeking to understand consumer behaviour at Fuji in light of the new conservation donation system.

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NOTES

[1] The International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS), a professional association founded in 1965 that works for the conservation of global cultural heritage sites and advises UNESCO on the nomination and upkeep of cultural World Heritage sites.

[2] Short-term stays are defined as a visit of "up to 90 days for tourism, business, visiting friends or relatives, etc. that does not include paid activities" Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 'Guide to Japanese Visas,' accessed at http://www.mofa.go.jp/j_info/visit/visa/ on 11/7/2013.

[3] Figures in parenthesis represent the percentage of climbers using each trail according to infrared trail counters (MOE-J, 2008).

[4] Figures in parenthesis represent the percentage of climbers using each trail according to infrared trail counters (MOE-J, 2008).

[5] According to infrared trail counters located on the 8th step at an altitude of around 3000m (MOE-J, 2008).

[6] The official summer climbing season is during July and August, and was extended in 2014 to the middle of September.

[7] Inbound data provided by JTM (2014) "Historical figures of the number of foreign tourists to Japan since 1964."

[8] Prices vary by hut and day of the week, but a typical 'stay' (costing \8000, with two meals) exceeds a 'rest' (\5000 (without meals).

[9] Multiple answers permitted. Also, a seasonal 'park and ride' scheme prevented private cars from reaching the 5th station on 9-18 August 2008, which coincided with the survey. Car drivers sampled on those days parked at the base and transferred via shuttle bus.

[10] Calculated from self-stated individual totals after anomalous outliers had been identified using box plot charts and removed.

[11] Including dinner and a take-away breakfast Bento box. For an example see http://www.fuji-toyokan.jp/english/index.htm.

[12] Including religious items such as amulets and charms and souvenirs such as key chains, towels, flags and bandanas.

[13] A pilgrim's wooden climbing stick. Stamped for an additional fee at various check-points during the ascent to the summit.

[14] Based on an interview conducted with mountain hut owner on 9/6/2014.

[15] A rail pass sold by the Japan Railways Group exclusively for overseas tourists with the entry status of 'temporary visitor.' It was originally designed to promote and facilitate international tourism and is valid on most forms of transport provided by the JR Group.

[16] International climber numbers are not collected, but it is estimated to account for less than 10 % of the total (Jones et al., 2013b).

# BRANDING

# ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES OF BRAND-DECISION INVOLVEMENT

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## ABSTRACT

With the increased competition in the service brands, it is critical to investigate what makes customers become involved with the brand. Based on the involvement theory as a theoretical background, this study empirically tests the brand-decision involvement model. The model investigates key attributes that affect their brand-decision involvement in the context of the hedonic consumption. Results identify customer brand identification, self- congruity, and service value influence customers' brand-decision involvement, brand satisfaction, and their switching intention.

Key words: involvement, brand identification, self-congruity, and service value

## INTRODUCTION

Armed with the understanding of the customer switching behavior, this study explores key attributes that sustain customers' relationships with the brand. This study investigates the brand-decision involvement and antecedents of brand-decision involvement that influence customers' responses (i.e., brand satisfaction and switching behaviors) in the hedonic consumption context. Hedonic consumption refers to "those facets of consumer behavior that relate to the multisensory, fantasy, and emotive aspects of one's experience with products" (Alba & Williams, 2012, p. 2), such as coffee shop industry. When customers consume products/services in the hedonic consumption, their psychological needs, as well as value perceptions, should be satisfied (Alba & Williams, 2012). Moreover, customers' involvement with products, services, and/or brands is critical to have maximized pleasure from the consumption process.

Understanding what makes customers become involved with a brand or a product has been an interest to many scholars and companies because customer involvement serves as a key predictor of customer behavior (Thomsen et al., 1995). Defined as "a person's perceived relevance of (an) object based on inherent needs, values, and interests," (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342), results of customer involvement are related to service loyalty (Pitchard et al., 1999; Varki & Wong, 2003), behavior intention (Mittal & Lee, 1989), and purchase satisfaction (Russell-Bennett et al., 2007). Previous research on customer involvement has been mainly focused on product involvement (Kim et al., 2009); however, Aaker (1997) advocates a brand can be involving customers. Product involvement is related to a product itself; whereas, brand-decision involvement is related to a purchase decision, focusing on how customers choose the brand and engage with the brand (Mittal & Lee, 1989).

There is ample evidence of customer involvement with a product in the customer behavior

literature (Olsen, 2007); however, few studies have identified the role of brand-decision involvement in customer behavior. Although previous studies (Olsen, 2007) have supported positive outcomes of customer involvement, what actually attributes to customers' brand-decision involvement in the hedonic consumption context has not been examined. To fill this gap, the objectives of this study are to explore (1) antecedents of the brand-decision involvement and (2) outcomes of brand involvement in the hedonic consumption context, based on involvement theory (Zaichowsky, 1984, 1985) as a fundamental theoretical background.


LITERATURE REVIEW

*Antecedents of the brand-decision involvement*

Explaining the psychological tie between an individual and an object, customer-brand identification reflects the cognitive-based attribute of customer involvement. Customer-brand identification refers to a customer's psychological tie of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a brand (Olsen, 2007). Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) supports the idea of customer-brand relationships, explaining people define their self-concepts by their connections with organizations. Scholars recognize customer-brand identification has a significant impact on customers' buying-related decisions (Kuenzel & Halliday, 2008), loyalty (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; So et al., 2013), and brand satisfaction (Tuškej et al., 2013). For instance, So et al.'s (2013) study identifies the role of customer brand identification to customer brand loyalty in the hotel industry. Tuškej et al.'s (2013) study identifies the role of customer brand identification on brand commitment, including both affective and compliance brand commitment. Thus, the following hypothesis is derived:

H1: Customer-brand identification influences (a) brand-related involvement, (b) brand satisfaction, and (c) switching intentions.

Self-congruity denotes the individual-state of customer involvement. Individual-state of customer involvement explains the inherent potential of a situation associated with the part of individuals to represent their behavior in the situation. Self-congruity explains customers are more likely to purchase products congruent with their own self- image (Sirgy, 1986). Self-congruity influences customers' affective, attitudinal, and behavioral responses (Aaker, 1999; Grohmann, 2009). When coffee shop brands are more related to each customer's (actual and/or ideal) self- congruity, they are more likely to become involved with the coffee shop brand and positive responses (i.e., enhanced brand satisfaction and lower switching behavior). For instance, Sirgy et al.'s (2008) study investigates the role of self-congruity on customer involvement and brand loyalty. Their study identifies self-congruity has a positive influence on brand loyalty and the relationship is moderated by customer involvement. Thus, this study proposes the following hypothesis.

H2: Self-congruity influences (a) brand-related involvement, (b) brand satisfaction, and (c) switching intentions.

A response-based attribute explains how customers process and evaluate external information during service delivery. Representing the response-based attribute, service value explains the various service components in shaping customers' perceptions of value-a trade-off between what customers receive and what they give up (Zeithaml, 1988). Customer value has been a key strategy that leads to customer loyalty (Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000) and competitive advantage (Woodruff, 1997). For instance, Cronin et al. (2000) indicate service value influences customers' satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Service value influences (a) brand-related involvement, (b) brand satisfaction, and (c) switching intentions.

*Brand-decision involvement*

Involvement represents the level of interest or importance of an object to an individual (Zaichowsky, 1984). Mittal and Lee (1989) first suggested the idea of separating brand choice from product involvement, proposing brand- decision involvement. Brand-decision involvement refers "customers' interest taken in making the brand selection" (Mittal & Lee, 1989, p. 365). Involvement and satisfaction are well-identified relationships (Mudie et al., 2003; Richins & Bloch, 1991). Customers with high involvement are more likely to experience higher satisfaction because they tend to hold more knowledge about the brand, leading to a better purchase decision and a level of satisfaction (Oliver & Bearden, 1983). Customers' levels of involvement also influence their switching behaviors, since switching behaviors are reflected by different factors, such as personal influence, service failures, pricing, and/or competitors (Keaveney, 1995). Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H4: Brand-related involvement influences consumers' brand satisfaction.
H5: Brand-related involvement negatively influences customers' switching intentions.

Outcomes of brand-decision involvement
Brand satisfaction refers to a customer's overall evaluation of satisfaction and pleasure with a category brand (Olsen, 2007). The relationship between involvement and satisfaction has been identified in previous literature (Ganesh et al., 2000; Russell-Bennett et al., 2007). Brand satisfaction has served as an antecedent of switching intentions (Bansal & Taylor, 1999). Customer switching intention explains the possibility of transferring their existing transactions with a company to a competitor (Dekimpe et al., 1997). Oliver (1981) identifies the negative relationship between customer satisfaction and switching intent, emphasizing the negative relationship between customer satisfaction and switching intentions. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6: Brand satisfaction negatively influences consumers' switching intentions.

Customers' switching behavior explains changing from the current service provider to another (Keaveney, 1995). Viewed as the opposite of consumer loyalty, switching intentions refers to the possibility of transferring existing transactions with a company to a competitor (Bolton et al., 2004; Dekimpe et al., 1997).

METHOD

Each construct is based on previous studies to ensure validity and reliability issues. All items are measured with a 7- point Likert-type scale, 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree). Independent variables include constructs for customer brand identification, self-congruity, and service value selectively adopted from studies by Mael and Ashforth (1992), Mazodier et al. (2012), and Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002), respectively. Dependent variables, brand- decision involvement, brand satisfaction, and switching intentions are selectively adopted from studies by Mittal and Lee (1998), Mano and Oliver (1993), and Antón et al., (2007), respectively.

The LISREL 8.80 structural equation analysis package is utilized to examine the theoretical framework proposed in this study. Based on Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) are applied to empirically examine the proposed research hypotheses.

RESULTS

Almost 67% (male=247; female=496) of the respondents are female. In terms of age, almost 40% of the respondents are between 25 and 34, followed by between 35 and 44, and between 18 and 24 years old. For education, almost 67% of the respondents have a 2- or 4-year college degree for their highest.

Results from the fit indices are $\chi^2$= 135.70, degree of freedom= 62, RMSEA= 0.04, NFI= 0.99, CFI= 0.99, and IFI= 0.97, showing the proposed model fits the data reasonably. Results from the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) show each item contributes to the respective dimension with high significant loadings in this study. Values of $\alpha$ ranged from 0.78 to 0.91, supporting good internal reliability (Cronbach, 1951) and the value of composite reliabilities ranges from 0.78 to 0.91, indicating a good convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The constructs of the measurement model also show discriminant validity because each construct extracts variance greater than the highest variance shared with any other construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Proposed hypotheses are tested with structural equation modeling (SEM) using LISREL. Results of SEM yield acceptable fit statistics—$\chi^2$= 135.70, degree of freedom= 62, RMSEA= 0.04, NFI= 0.99, CFI= 0.99, and IFI= 0.97. Representing the contrive-based approach, customer brand identification positively influences customers' brand- decision involvement ($\beta$=. 63, $p$<0.000) and brand satisfaction ($\beta$=. 14, $p$<0.01), but not their switching intentions ($\beta$= -0.02, not significant). As an individual-state attribute, customers' self-congruity positively influences their brand-decision involvement ($\beta$=. 17, $p$<0.000) and negatively influences switching intentions ($\beta$= -0.39, $p$<0.000), but not their brand satisfaction ($\beta$=. 01, not significant).

As a response-based factor, service value positively influences customers' brand-decision involvement ($\beta$=. 12, $p$<0.000), brand satisfaction ($\beta$=. 20, $p$<0.000), and negatively influences switching intentions ($\beta$=-0.11, $p$<0.000). Brand-decision involvement positively influences brand satisfaction ($\beta$=. 22, $p$<0.000) and negatively influences switching intentions ($\beta$=-0.26, $p$<0.000). Brand satisfaction negatively influences customers' switching intentions ($\beta$=-0.25, $p$<0.000). Of the proposed hypotheses, hypotheses 1c (customer brand identification →switching intentions) and 2b (self-congruity → brand satisfaction) are not supported.

CONCLUSIONS

The main purpose of this study was to explore the role of brand-decision involvement in the hedonic consumption context, evidenced from the coffee shop industry. The conceptual framework proposed three different aspects that influenced customers' brand-decision involvement. These included cognitive-based, individual-based, and response-based factors that influenced brand-decision involvement, brand satisfaction, and switching intentions. Investigating ways to enhance the relationship with customers, this study contributed to the current literature as well as provided guidelines to industry practitioners.

First, this study developed and tested a conceptual model that accounted for key attributes of customers' brand- decision involvement. Derived from the involvement theory, this study proposed different cues of hedonic consumption that enabled customers to become involved with their purchase decisions. Second, different from previous research, this study related customers' involvement to the hedonic consumption context. Investigating the role of brand-decision involvement in the hedonic consumption context was critical, due to the unique characteristics of consumption and industry itself (Merz et al., 2009). Third, this study contributed to the current literature on customer involvement, since it validated the applicability of customer involvement with different aspects of customer responses, such as brand satisfaction and switching intentions.

From industry's perspective, this study provided implications for management of service organizations on what kinds of attributes customers were seeking when they visited the hedonic consumption context, suggesting the importance of cognitive-based, individual-based, and response-based approaches during the consumption stages.

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# WHAT MATTERS TO TOURISTS? A MULTI-GROUP ANALYSIS TO ASSESS DESTINATION BRAND EQUITY

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## ABSTRACT

The five-dimensional approach to brand equity, borrowed by corporate marketing studies, has only recently been discussed from a destination branding point of view. Within these lines, the present study adds the fifth, often overlooked and omitted, dimension of brand assets, next to the usually explored dimensions of awareness, image, quality and loyalty. In order to integrate the brand assets dimension into the brand equity model, the study focuses on cultural brand assets. The research was addressed to international tourists visiting three major cultural destinations, namely Athens, Istanbul and Rome. Findings indicate that all five dimensions are important for the customers' evaluation of a cultural destination, particularly in the case of specific customer segments. Conclusions imply that the five dimensions model stands for different destinations. The study assists practitioners towards getting a better understanding of which brand elements they should focus, in order to achieve favourable brand evaluations.

Keywords: destination brand equity, culture, model, multi-group analysis, invariance test, segments

## INTRODUCTION

Brand equity (BE) appears to be a term of growing popularity within the destination branding literature, with most works building upon the studies of Konecnik and Gartner (2007) and Boo, Busser and Baloglu (2009). Amongst them, Kladou and Kehagias (2014) have adapted the previously proposed 5-dimensional framework and enriched it by adding and verifying the relevance of the fifth BE dimension of cultural brand assets. Such an approach is closer to Aaker's (1991) original model which includes brand assets, awareness, associations, quality and loyalty. Along the same lines, this paper seeks to build on a multi-group approach and suggest a 5-dimensional model which will be applicable across various cultural destinations. Furthermore, the study goes one step forward and recognises the importance of each BE dimension across different tourist segments.

The present study argues that a marketing perspective, which focuses on what consumers perceive as cultural brand assets, could be useful for Destination Management Organisations (DMOs). This is because specific cultural brand assets have a direct impact on image and

quality and an indirect one on loyalty, thus influencing return visits and recommendation. The proposed model is tested through the use of a questionnaire that captures the perspectives of international tourists. The research took place in three major cultural destinations, namely Athens, Istanbul and Rome. The findings indicate that the five dimensions are interrelated and important for the customers' evaluation of a cultural destination. Multi-group analysis and invariance tests imply that the model stands adequately for different destinations, although some items are destination-specific. The study assists practitioners to form a better understanding of city-brand elements which are important in order to achieve favourable brand evaluations. This study is expected to contribute to the tourism marketing theory regarding destination BE. The findings will spur additional research which will help destination stakeholders to comprehend and apply destination BE.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Aaker (1991, 1996) and Keller's (1993, 2003) approach to BE offers destination marketers a potential performance measure of the extent to which brand identity has successfully been applied in the market (Pike et al., 2010). Yet, there does not appear to be a general agreement on the number and content of consumer-based BE dimensions, although several studies focus on a 4-dimensional approach (e.g. Boo et. al., 2009; Konecnik and Gartner, 2007). The important aspects concerning the five dimensions (Aaker, 1991), on which the study focuses, have been analyzed in detail by Kladou and Kehagias (2014).

The present paper argues that, in the case of cultural urban destinations, various representations of the city culture, such as festivals (Evans, 2003), may contribute to the creation of a competitive advantage (Aaker, 1991). Specific cultural assets (AST) have been investigated in terms of their impact on the level of BE (Kladou and Kehagias, 2014) as well as in terms of their contribution to at least one BE dimension (e.g. Dimanche, 2002). Brand awareness (AWA) is considered to be a main BE dimension in the field of tourism and hospitality (e.g. Kim and Kim, 2005). Brand associations (ASS) have been identified as an important BE dimension (Aaker, 1991) that reflects consumers' perceptions (Keller, 1993). From the consumer's side, the concept of brand image is central, incorporating perceptions of quality and values as well as brand association and feelings (de Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998). Other associations taken into account are those seen as important for cultural destinations, such as authenticity, hospitality, exoticness (e.g. Boo et al., 2009; Buhalis, 2000). Brand quality (QUA) is a BE dimension (e.g. Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003) which has been used interchangeably with perceived quality (Aaker, 1991). Organization of the city's cultural aspects, overall atmosphere and quality cultural experiences can be put in the scope as well (Aaker, 1991; Boo et al., 2009). Finally, brand loyalty (LOY) is often considered as the core of BE and has been defined as the attachment a customer has to a brand (Aaker, 1991). This study concentrates on two elements of loyalty, the attitudinal and behavioural (e.g.Boo et al., 2009).

Despite their different approach on the image dimension, Konecnik and Ruzzier's (2008) findings provide significant input in determining the role of the four dimensions for BE. According to their study *"the level of BE is positively related to the extent to which the BE dimensions are perceived by tourists"* (Konecnik and Ruzzier, 2008, p.175). However, in line with Aaker's (1991) definition of brand assets, a closer examination of destination branding literature revealed that cultural assets could contribute to the creation of a competitive advantage for cultural destinations (i.e. be cultural brand assets) by enhancing destination BE.

Various studies have tried to segment the travel market and investigate the varying importance of one or more of the four BE dimensions for each recognised segment (e.g. Camarero, Garrido, Vicente, 2010; Hankinson, 2005). Yet, once again, research on the importance of cultural brand assets appears to be rarely investigated. Thus, this study attempts a more complete approach by including the aforementioned five BE dimensions investigating three different destination segments.

METHODOLOGY

Each construct in the destination BE model requires the use of a scale that includes items that are destination-specific (Boo et al., 2009). Following Boo's et al. (2009) example, multiple items were used to measure each dimension. Aaker's (1991) BE scale together with a literature review in the field of destination BE led to an initial set of items. Wherever possible, these items were adjusted in order to describe the perceptions towards the cultural aspects of the destination (Kladou and Kehagias, 2014).

Cultural destination brands have been chosen because of their popularity among tourism practitioners and academics (e.g. Buhalis, 2000) and the emphasis on their behalf on heritage and cultural attractions, which can be developed into a niche in the industry (Apostolakis, 2003). According to Leuthesser et al. (1995), it is preferable to choose to analyze brands that are sufficiently well known to the consumer. Therefore, we chose Athens, Istanbul and Rome as the destination brands for our study. Furthermore, as Crimmins (2000) suggests, BE is a concept that can be measured for brands belonging in the same brand category.

The subjects of the study were international tourists. Respective tourism authorities were contacted in each city and, with their contribution, a pool of tour guides and hotels was formed. In Rome, the support of a major airline carrier and the Vatican City facilitated the process further. Respondents were approached randomly through all the aforementioned networks and they were handed out the self-completing form. In total, 450 questionnaires were distributed in each city. Subsequent analysis regarding normality finally led to 399 usable questionnaires in Athens, 377 in Istanbul and 382 in Rome.

RESULTS

Respondents' profiles in the three samples were similar. Respondents' nationalities were also in line with the actual visitors' demographics. To be exact, in the Athens sample, the respondents were U.S., French, German and British citizens (14.3%, 13.3%, 8.5%, 6.8% respectively). In the Istanbul sample, the respondents were German, U.S., British, and French (10.6%, 10.1%, 9.5%, 5.8% respectively); finally, in the Rome sample, the respondents were U.S., German and British citizens (16.9%, 10.7%, 10.5% respectively).

Satisfactory indicators for normality indicated normal distribution and multivariate normality (Hair et al., 2010). Model testing was estimated using a multi-step approach. The first step involved a model-fit assessment of the compiled data set of the three cities (Koufteros and Marcoulides, 2006). The next step was to form 3 groups, one for each city. Then, separate estimation and re-specification of the measurement of each city model followed (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). An exploratory factor analysis was performed for the overall sample and each one of the three sub-samples. Following established methodology (Hair et al., 2010), several variables did not exceed the cut-off factor loading score of 0.4 used to screen out weak indicators. During subsequent Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and in order to develop a baseline model for the three groups (i.e. cities), only variables with high, positive and significant coefficients in all samples were retained (Konecnik and Ruzzier, 2008). Composite construct reliability and Cronbach's alpha values were satisfactory, thus indicating reliable samples. For each set of indicators, the standardized factor loadings were high, indicating convergent validity. Overall, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) exceeds the Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV) as well.

According to the fit indices, the first-order model is acceptable (Model 1 in Table 1). The CFA of the overall sample reveals significant positive correlations among the BE dimensions indicating the presence of a second-order general factor (i.e. BE). The fit indices of the second-order factor analysis are presented in Table 1. The results suggest that all five BE dimensions hereby put in the scope, were statistically significant measures of BE at the 0.001 probability- level. The appropriateness of the posited model structure depends on the overall or aggregate model fit, which is also presented in Table 1 (Model 2). In fact, dropping the AST dimension and focusing on the remaining four dimensions

(Model 3 in Table 1) has a negative impact on all fit indices. Finally, a closer look at the standardized regression weights of the two 4-dimensional models and the 5-dimensional model suggest that a higher percentage of BE variance can be explained when following the 5-dimensional modelling approach (Table 2).

The best-fitting model described above was put forward for testing. Initially, invariance of a single measurement instrument across all three groups is hypothesized. As a preliminary step, we test for validity and this set of fit statistics for overall model fit provides the baseline value (Model 2a in Table 1) against which all subsequent specified models are compared (Byrne, 2001). The CFI and RMSEA values of 0.957 and 0.033, respectively, indicate that the hypothesized model of BE structure is well-fitting. Having established the good fit of this model, the next step was to test for invariance of factorial measurement and structure across groups. The fully constrained model (Step 4 in Table 1) specifies that all variables are constrained equally across the three cities. The comparison between the initial and the fully constrained model yields a $\chi^2$ difference value ($\Delta\chi^2$=163.075), which is statistically significant at the 0.05 probability level. Consequently, some equality constraints do not hold across the three city respondent groups. In order to pinpoint the location of this invariance given that three distinct groups are recognised, we first had to determine whether the constrained model is invariant across two of the three groups (Byrne, 2001). Therefore, the hypothesised model (with no equality constraints) was once again estimated with relation to each pair of cities and the abovementioned four-step analysis was repeated. The comparison among the Rome and Istanbul models was statistically significant only in the last step (in which measurement residuals are constrained). Given this finding, we conclude that all measurement weights, structural weights and structural residuals are invariant across Rome and Istanbul sample. As a consequence, any inequality of the abovementioned parameters across the three groups must logically lie between Athens and Rome/ Istanbul models (Byrne, 2001). This was also suggested in the first tests for invariance. This is not the case, however, for measurement residuals in the case of Rome and Istanbul, since the comparison of their respective models was statistically significant when measurement residuals were constrained to be equal.

Table 1 Fit statistics for the first- and second-order models - summary of the results of the multi-sample variance testing across cultural destinations

| | χ² (df) | χ²/df | CFI | TLI | GFI | RMSEA | Δχ2 | Δdf |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model 1 | 398.558 (109)* | 3.657 | .971 | .964 | .959 | .049 (.043-.054) | - | - |
| Model 2 | 436.140 (114)* | 3.826 | .968 | .961 | .956 | .050 (.045-.055) | - | - |
| Model 3 | 472.306 (73)* | 6.470 | .957 | .946 | .943 | .069 (.063-.075) | | |
| Model 2a | 768.523 (342)* | 2.247 | .957 | .948 | .926 | .033 (.030-.037) | - | - |
| Step 1 | 816.652 (366) | 2.231 | .954 | .948 | .921 | .033 (.030-.036) | 48.129** | 24 |
| Step 2 | 850.796 (376) | 2.263 | .952 | .947 | .918 | .034 (.031-.037) | 34.144** | 10 |
| Step 3 | 881.037 (386) | 2.282 | .950 | .946 | .915 | .034 (.031-.037) | 30.241** | 10 |
| Step 4 | 1044.112 (420) | 2.486 | .937 | .939 | .901 | .036 (.033-.039) | 163.075** | 34 |
| Model 4 | 839.906 (394) | 2.132 | .955 | .953 | .920 | .032 (.029-.035) | 9.08 | 8 |

*,** denote statistical significance at the 95%, 99% level respectively
Note: Degress of freedom (df), comparative fix index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI) and root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)

Step 1: equal measurement weights, Step 2: Step 1+ equal structural weights, Step 3: Step 2+equal structural residuals, Step 4: Step 3+equal measurement residuals

Having established the equality in three out of four steps between Istanbul and Rome, the next step involves step-by- step testing for the equivalence of each variable. Multi-sample Structural Equation Model (SEM) testing revealed that the hypothesized model was largely invariant for Athens, Istanbul, and Rome. More specifically, assets, associations, quality and loyalty are invariant. The items constrained among samples referred to: Cultural festivals making the city unique, both the city and its characteristics coming to mind immediately when thinking about culture, the city-culture being

interesting and the city offering a fulfilling cultural experience, the city providing quality cultural experiences, and, finally, the city being one's preferred choice for cultural holidays. Fit indices connected to the model with variables equal across the samples are presented in Table 1 (Model 4).

Table 2 Standardized regression weights

| Model 2 | | | | Model 3 (no AST) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| QUA | <--- | BE | 0.914 | QUA | <--- | BE | 0.909 |
| LOY | <--- | BE | 0.872 | LOY | <--- | BE | 0.869 |
| ASS | <--- | BE | 0.918 | ASS | <--- | BE | 0.923 |
| AWA | <--- | BE | 0.824 | AWA | <--- | BE | 0.827 |
| AST | <--- | BE | 0.311 | | | | |

Finally, a two-step cluster analysis can now be performed, using demographics as variables and adding the BE dimensions in the evaluation fields. In line with the recognized significance and reliability of demographic segmentation criteria (Lin, 2002), four clusters have been identified based on age and income levels. One-way Anova confirms that the four clusters, as summarized in Table 3, differ to the evaluation of BE dimensions (i.e. $p < 0.05$ in all cases).

The first segment accounts for 22.7% of the total sample and consists of young adults. For this segment, loyalty, associations and awareness are the most important BE dimensions, while cultural brand assets the least significant one. Cultural brand assets is the least important BE dimension for the fourth segment, which accounts for 24.7% of the sample. On the other hand, mature cultural tourists (i.e. segment 3 in Table 3), who account for 17.8% of the total sample, recognize the particular significance of cultural brand assets. In fact, the significance of this dimension proves to be by far the most important when compared to the other four BE dimensions. However, what seems even more promising - but also challenging - for cultural destinations, is the fact that younger travelers who come from a prosperous socio-economical background (i.e. segment 2 in Table 3) consider all BE dimensions of almost equal significance.

Table 3 Tourist segments *(N=1158)*

| | 1. Growing Leisure Tourists | 2. Growing Cultural Tourists | 3. Mature Cultural Tourists | 4. Mature Leisure Tourists |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age group | Generation Y, Z *(mean: 2.11)* | Generation Z *(mean: 1.72)* | Baby Boomers/ Generation X *(mean: 5.40)* | Generation X *(mean: 3.58)* |
| Average Income | around 15.000 *(mean: 1.48)* | around 55.000 *(mean: 5.43)* | around 45.000 *(mean 4.74)* | more than 60.000 *(mean: 6.83)* |
| Cluster size | 22.7% | 34.9% | 17.8% | 24.6% |

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Building on previous studies, the present research proceeded with examining measurement and structural invariance. A multi-sample invariance test was employed as a method to ensure construct validation of the enriched model. Following the assumptions developed for this research, the BE model was tested in a cultural destination context. SEM was utilized in order to depict the proposed five dimensions into one BE model. Overall, the model fit indices indicate that all proposed dimensions are important factors with respect to all three cities' BE, exactly as theoretically predicted. The study concludes that in order to be able to evaluate destination brands, all five dimensions should be taken into consideration. Yet, the lower factor loading of the AST dimension indicates that more effort is necessary in order to include in brand assets those cultural assets that really matter for the tourists. Moreover, awareness is positively evaluated, when both the name of the city as well as the city characteristics are easily recalled by the tourists, when they are thinking of cultural destinations. Interestingly, quality and fulfilling cultural experiences are the items connected to the associations and image dimension, which remain invariant when tourists evaluate a destination as their preferred

alternative for a cultural holiday. Finally, the effect of cultural festivals on the assets dimension can be constrained as well as the significance of assets, associations, quality, and loyalty dimensions on BE.

Focusing on the travelers' characteristics, it seems that almost half of them can be identified as cultural tourists, who recognize the significance of cultural brand assets, while the rest of them are leisure tourists who value BE dimensions other than cultural brand assets. Discussing the findings from another perspective reveals that younger travelers (i.e. born after the 80s) who have a higher family income recognize the significance of all BE dimensions. As a result, cultural destinations can be successful in the long-term only once they start implementing appropriate destination branding strategies and include actions particularly related to their cultural brand assets.

Inevitably, the present study has certain limitations that need to be taken into account. Specifically, destination branding should be assessed in a country context (Nadeau et al., 2008). Besides, country destination image is potentially developed differently for every tourist type (Kladou et al., 2014). Moreover, destination branding is incomplete when disregarding the contentious arena in which place-branding activities exist (Morgan et al., 2004). Given that, destination BE should simultaneously be approached in relation to its city and country brand equity and according to the tourism type. Despite the limitations of this study, findings provide an interesting output for scholars and practitioners. These findings and the information they entail can be used to examine the nature and dynamics of destination branding. In this way, the paper paves the way for further research, which will confirm, expand and validate its findings.

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# DESTINATION IMAGE OF JAPAN IN CHINESE MARKET: EXPLORING THE ROLE OF JAPANESE PRODUCTS AND SINO-JAPAN POLITICS

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## INTRODUCTION

Sino-Japan economic and political relation has been long a spotlight of East Asian affairs. Tourism study between China and Japan is also very interesting due to the market significance and delicate and complex emotional relationship between their citizens that derived from a long history of war. For example, tourism arrivals from China to Japan experienced a drastic drop in 2012 thanks to the anti-Japanese emotion that arose from the intense controversy of Diaoyu (Senkaku) Island. But it soon rebounded significantly to a record high despite that this controversy is still unsolved (Nippon.com, 2014). In addition, China has become an important inbound market of Japan and ranked number 2 in terms of tourist arrivals in 2013 (Japan National Tourism Organization, 2014). These interesting phenomena are inspirational for scholars to investigate factors that particularly influence Chinese tourists' perception of Japan and their travel intention.

The main purpose of this exploratory study is to investigate Chinese Social Reform Generation's destination image of Japan as well as destination choice. The influences of Japanese cultural and commercial products and Sino-Japan political incidents on destination image formation and destination choice are explored. The probable image change after real trip to Japan is also investigated. Semi-structured in-depth interviews will be conducted to achieve the objectives due to lack of relevant studies in this field and the exploratory nature of current research.

Chinese Social Reform Generation refers to those who were born after China's reform and open up and grew around the beginning of new millennium (Egri & Ralston, 2004). The significance of attracting tourist of Chinese Social Reform Generation has two folds. First, this market segment has economic significance to Japan tourism. This generation represents a significant segment of China outbound tourists as well as the future trend of China outbound tourism. Compared with older generations, this population is better educated, more sophisticated in tourism consumption and more curious about the foreign world. Additionally, previous studies indicated that they are more willing to spend on outbound travel than their parents (Lu, 2005; Yang, 2008).

Second, this generation is the key to future political relation between China and Japan. These two nations had gone through a hostile relationship in early 20th century. And the political relation between them becomes intense recently due to some sensitive political events.

Tourism is considered as a peace enhancement tool by facilitating mutual understanding and building emotional connections (e.g. Kim, Prideaux & Prideaux, 2007; Qiu et al., in press). Because Chinese Social Reform Generation represents the future political power of China, promoting tourism to this segment can be a remedy to current problems and improve the future relation through the change of young people's perception of Japan. This is particularly reasonable considering that younger people's perception is easier to modify. Conclusively, it is inevitable for Japanese government to understand the destination image formation of this segment to fulfill a strategy that maximizes the long-term benefit, economically and politically, from China tourist market. Otherwise, Japan will lose the market share very soon under fierce competition. And it may miss a critical opportunity to improve the future relationship with China via citizen communication.

Despite the importance of China market to Japan tourism industry and the complex economic and political relations between the two countries, studies pertaining to Chinese tourist behavior toward Japan are seriously lacking, particularly in the field of Social Reform Generation tourists. This study will fill in this gap by exploring the formation of Social Reform Generation's destination image of Japan and destination choice from the perspectives of Japanese products and political events.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Formation of Destination Image*

The model of destination image has been broadly studied and this concept is relatively mature in tourism area. It is commonly agreed that destination image has two components: perceptual/cognitive and affective. In terms of phases of formation, it can be divided into organic, induced and complex images (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Baloglu and McClearys' (1999) destination image formation model claimed that there are two categories of influential factors: personal attributes (e.g. values, motivations, demographics) and external stimulus (e.g. information sources, previous experience, distribution). Many studies have explored the specific factors that influence the image formation based on this general framework (e.g. Beerli & Martin, 2004; Frias, Rodriguez, & Castañeda, 2008). However, there is a lack of study on the influence of cultural or commercial products that come from the destination. And the historical political relation is also an unexplored area. Previous literature implied that consumer products and politics can shape the image of a tourism destination (Alvarez & Campo, 2014).

In addition to factors that influence pre-visit destination image, a real trip to the destination has considerable impact on the overall picture of the destination because people tend to trust their own experience. The destination image becomes complete during the trip when tourists organize and compare their pre-visit images and real experiences (Beerli & Martin, 2004). The image formed after the trip is named complex image which affects repeat visit decision.

*Influence of Cultural and Commercial Products on Destination Image*

Many studies in brand image or product image claimed that consumers' perception of a brand or a product is influenced by the image of the country of origin (Erickson, Johansson, & Chao, 1984; Koubaa, 2008), implying that there is deep correlation between the image of products and the image of places. Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that tourists' perception and feeling toward a place can be associated with their perception and feeling on the products from that place. This relation may be particularly obvious before real trip. For example, Chinese tourists may perceive Japan as a destination where they can buy lots of high quality cosmetic products if they believe that Japanese cosmetic brands are reliable. Or the tourists can have a positive emotion toward a country if they feel good when using the products from that country, assuming that they don't have other information about that country.

Unlike older generations in China, the Social Reform Generation grows in a better international relationship with Japan and more open environment in which numerous commercial products and

cultural products are imported from Japan. Japanese animation can be said as the main childhood entertainment of many people in this generation. And Japanese digital products and cosmetics are popular among youth in China. According to historic generation cohort theory, the exposure to information in childhood and teenage is very influential for value formation (Egri & Ralston, 2004) while the cultural products could be even more influential than commercial products. Therefore, it is very interesting to study the possible impact of Japanese commercial and cultural products on Chinese Social Reform Generation's image of Japan as tourism destination. Industrial report also implied that purchasing Japanese commodity is a critical travel motivation of Chinese tourists. According to a survey of Japan Tourism Agency, Chinese visitors are the biggest shoppers among 19 countries studied, dropping ¥130,293 (USD 1,225) per person, against an overall average of ¥54,900 (USD 516) (Nippon.com, 2014).

*The Influence of Sino-Japan Animosity*

Political conflict can negatively impact the affective image of a country as tourism destination (Alvarez & Campo, 2014). The historical and contemporary political relation between China and Japan may influence Chinese people's destination image of Japan. There has long been a hostile emotion between people in these two countries since War-World 2. Although China and Japan nowadays are not hostile countries anymore and their boarders are open to each other officially, there is still an intangible wall in people's mind. Recognizing the brutal history of Japanese invasion, Chinese people believe they have experienced serious injury so they hold strong animosity toward Japan. Recent political frictions between these countries seem to tense the nerve of Chinese people (Kang, 2013). This negative emotion may affect Chinese people's perception and attitude toward Japan. Because Chinese Social Reform Generation represents the future tourism market, Japanese government needs to understand whether the negative emotion exists in the generation and how does it influence their destination image as well as destination choice.

Few studies have ever been conducted to investigate the influence of hostile history on tourism destination image, particularly for the generation that live far from the historical influence. There is lack of literature that compare this influence with that of the sensitive events the generation personally experienced in peaceful time. In order to address above mentioned problems and fill in the research gaps, this study will investigate and compare the relative impact of historical knowledge and contemporary political events on Chinese young generation's image of Japan and their travel decision.

METHODOLOGY

The framework of this study will be applied to guide the research design but should not limit our research due to the exploratory nature of this study. The findings and conclusions will be text driven which means that the relationships described in the framework are not hypothetical and subject to change based on the texts.

In-depth interview with Chinese citizens born after 1980s will be conducted. There is no preset sample size but interviews will continue until no new insight appears. Therefore, content analysis will be conducted along with the progress of interview. Semi-structured interview method will be used but several steps are followed. First we ask interviewees their cognitive and affective images of Japan as tourism destination. Second, we ask about cognitive and affective images of Japanese products and their influence on interviewees' tourism behavior and destination image. Third, we ask interviewees to mention any Sino-Japan political incidents that they know and their cognitive and affective image of these incidents. Then the influence of these incidents on tourism destination image and tourism behavior will be asked.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

The authors have conducted two interviews and obtained some parts of the whole picture. The first two interviews showed that Japan as a tourism destination is characterized as peaceful, civilized,

tranquil, tidy, clean, convenient, sophisticated and conscientious. Interviews also showed that Japan tourism destination image can be influenced by Japanese commercial and cultural products. Interviewee's cognition of attractions and hospitality services in Japan is largely based on their experience of using Japanese cultural goods such as animations, novels, and TV series. For example, the impression on spring resorts, Fuji Mountain, Sakura and seaside is mainly based on the imagery in animation and novels. In addition, the features of cultural goods can influence the image in the way that the sophistication of entertainment products is perceived as a manifestation of this country's characteristics. Experience of using Japanese commercial products such as cosmetics and electronic devices makes Japan a favorite place for shopping. One interviewee even mentioned that many tourists in north China just travel to Japan for shopping.

Sino-Japan incidents in the mind of interviewees are dominantly negative and irritating. Most of the incidents mentioned by interviewees are related to invasion wars and cruel activities conducted by Japanese military. Recent dispute on Diaoyu Island and denial of history by Japanese politicians are also frequently mentioned by interviewees. At the same time, interviewees expressed very negative feelings (e.g., anger, hatred) towards Sino-Japan incidents that they are familiar with. However, the negative feeling has little impact on travel intention and tourism destination image is hardly affected by the knowledge of these incidents. After all, interviewees did not express any negative cognition and feeling toward tourism in Japan. One interviewee said "Although the history makes me angry, it is past and present is different. Politics is politics, folks is folks, we can't mix them together. Tourism is not related to politics, it is something folk"

These are some preliminary findings based on the first two interviews. A series of formal interviews are on the phase to achieve more comprehensive and informative results.

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# POLARIZING BRANDS: AN INVESTIGATION IN TOURISM CONTEXT

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## ABSTRACT

The current study attempts to explore the phenomenon of Polarizing brands and brand dispersion in the context of destination brands. The study attempts to understand the parameters that shape the perceptions of consumer towards a particular destination. Brand knowledge determined by the existing brand image and brand awareness is proposed to be responsible for extreme consumer perceptions regarding destinations. But at the same time we also propose that the polarization of a particular brand also depends on the motivation for tourism and thus may vary depending on the motivation. Thus the relationship between brand knowledge and polarization is moderated by tourism motivation.

The study is divided into 2 studies, study 1 follows a survey and interview approach. Study 2 is a scenario based experiment to test the moderating effect of travel motivation on polarization.

This study is one of the few studies exploring the issue of polarizing brands and also to the best of our knowledge it is the first one to explore polarizing brands in the context of tourism. Marketers (Destination Marketing Organizations (DMO)) can utilize the findings of this study to understand polarization and exploit this consumers' perception by using measures to polarize the destination brand in a positive manner.

Key words: Polarizing brands, Brand dispersion, Destination branding, Tourism, scenario based experiments.

## INTRODUCTION

Variance in the brand evaluation by the consumers is termed as the brand dispersion (Luo, Raithel, & Wiles 2013). Brands commanding strong "likes" or "dislikes" by consumers are known as Polarizing Brands. In other words brands for those consumers have widely dispersed attitude (bad/excellent, love/hate) are polarizing brands (Luo, Wiles, & Raithel 2013). The brand ratings for such brands suggest a love or a hate perception in the minds of consumers.

The power of branding has been well acknowledged and empirically proved in the field of tourism (Blain, Levy & Ritchie 2005). As most popular tourist destinations across the globe try to package their resources into attractive tourism products and the consumers may hold strong perceptions about the brand or destination. In case of tourist destinations the polarization may depend on the purpose of the visit. Thus the same destination depending on the purpose of visit may be at the either extremity of the love or hate of the perception of same tourist.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

There is scarcity of literature available on polarizing brands and to the best of our knowledge this will be the first study trying to understand phenomenon of polarization in destination brands.

Similar to Keller's (1993) conceptualization, for destination brands also we are considering brand knowledge as an important determinant of customer based brand equity. Thus the existing perception about a destination may be determined by the existing Brand Image and Brand awareness. Thus the associations and information which a tourist is currently have regarding a destination may shape the extreme perceptions. Thus we posit.

H1: Tourists have extreme perceptions regarding destinations based on the destination brand knowledge.

Gnoth (1997, pp.283) "tourism is the response to felt need and acquired value within temporal, spatial, social, and economic parameters". Tourists based on the purpose of visit are often classified as leisure or official travelers (Hankinson, G. 2007). Whereas attitude towards destination is a mix of emotion and cognition (Gnoth, 1997). Thus motivation which is object specific (Gnoth, 1997) is more likely to influence the extreme or polarized perception of the tourist towards a destination. Thus we propose.

H2: Relationship between Brand knowledge and Polarization is moderated by the tourism motivations.

Following is the proposed framework.

Figure 1 Proposed framework
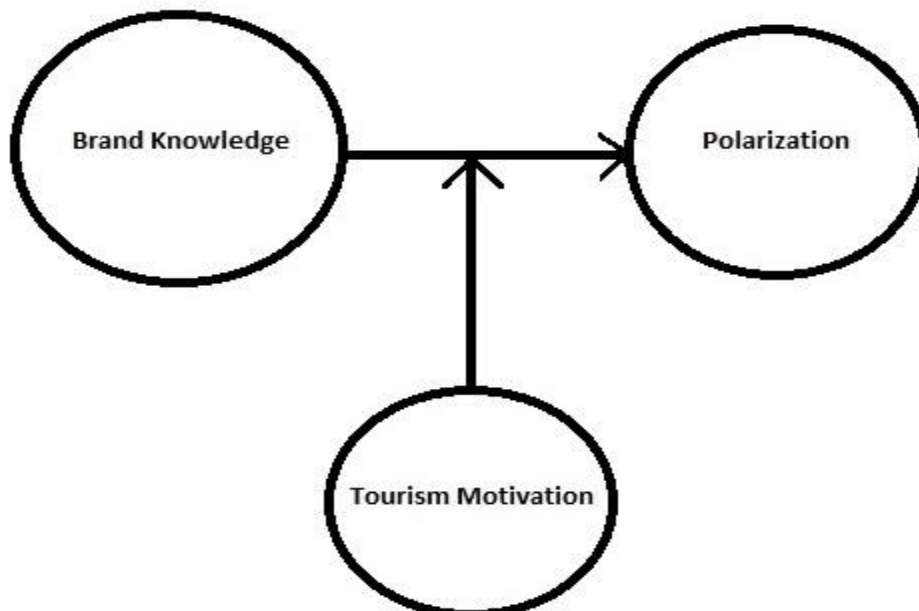
METHODOLGY

*Pretest*

To identify the destinations with more likelihood of extreme consumer love or hate a pretest was conducted. A pool of destinations National and International was generated. This pool consisted of destinations featuring in the top/most popular destinations rated by The Guardian (Source: www.theguardian.com) and Trip advisor International and India (Source: www.tripadvisor.com). Also in order to include some controversial locations some destinations featuring in the article "Lust resorts: Top 10 saucy holiday destinations revealed" (Source: www.dailystar.uk). A simple questionnaire featuring unique destinations was administered A simpleroup of 127 adult population. The questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their "Hate" and "Love" for destinations on a 7 point interval scale. The questionnaire also had items related to the awareness of respondent regarding the destination and also the respondents were asked to write "top of mind" adjectives associated with the destination. Thus 10 destinations were shortlisted based on the extreme responses.

*Study 1*

Study 1 was similar to the pretest. But this time the respondents providing extreme responses were requested to participate in unstructured interview. Hypothesis 1 was supported by the study1 results.

*Study 2*

Study 2 involved scenario based experiment in which different scenarios were presented to the respondents. These scenarios depicted situations with different travel-motivations, e.g. Official travel, Family Holiday, Trip with friends etc.

The results of study 2 support hypothesis 2.

RESULTS

The findings of the study will provide valuable insights into the attributes which make highly polarizing destination brands. Also these findings will help the marketer to better utilize the polarizing attributes in positive direction.

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# THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PERCEIVED ACTUAL SELF-CONGRUENCE, PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT, AND EMOTIONAL BRAND ATTACHMENT

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of consumers' actual self-congruence on emotional brand attachment, understand the impact of consumers' product involvement on emotional brand attachment, and examine the consumers' product involvement as moderators of the relationship between actual self-congruence and emotional brand attachment. A total of 254 valid questionnaires of consumers in Wu Poa Chun were collected. The results showed that consumers' actual self-congruence and product involvement had a significant positive impact on emotional brand attachment and consumers' product involvement also moderated the relationship between consumers' actual self-congruence and emotional brand attachment.

Key words: consumers' actual self-congruence, consumers' product involvement, emotional brand attachment

## INTRODUCTION

Companies are searching for ways to create strong emotional brand connections with consumers. This is motivated by the finding that such connections lead to higher levels of consumer loyalty, which increases company financial performance (Park et al., 2010). For example, Unilever's Dove line has used models who are more average in appearance, presumably corresponding more closely to how the majority of consumers actually see themselves (an "actual self"). This approach hit a nerve with many consumers, causing them to form a strong emotional connection with the brand. Thus, the "actual self" seems to be growing in importance to consumers looking for reality and authenticity in marketing messages (Gilmore & Pine, 2007), and many marketing managers seem to increasingly favor an authentic approach to branding. A key concept to strengthen emotional brand attachment is the concept of "self-congruence" (i.e., a fit between the consumer's self and the brand's personality or image; Aaker, 1999; Sirgy, 1982). It has been suggested that self-congruence can enhance affective, attitudinal, and behavioral consumer responses to the brand (e.g., Aaker, 1999; Grohmann, 2009). In particular, because the consumer's self-concept must be involved for an emotional brand attachment to occur (Chaplin & John, 2005; Park et al., 2010), self-congruence should play an especially prominent role in creating emotional brand attachment.

Product involvement has important implications for consumer information processing and has been shown to be an important contingency variable for the success of various marketing strategies and activities (e.g., MacInnis & Park 1991; Petty & Cacioppo 1986). According to Celsi and Olson (1988, p. 211), "a consumer's level of involvement with an object, situation, or action is determined by the degree to which s/he perceives that concept to be personally relevant" (see also Zaichkowsky 1985), and this may have impact on emotional brand attachment. Accordingly, this study has three research objectives: (1) to understand the implications and the relative impact of consumers' actual self-congruence on

emotional brand attachment, (2) to understand the implications and the relative impact of consumers' product involvement on emotional brand attachment, and (3) to examine the consumers' product involvement as moderators of the relationship between actual self-congruence and emotional brand attachment.

## LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

*Main Effects of Actual l Self-Congruence on Emotional Brand Attachment*

This study can state that the brand's personality (which is the point of reference for self-congruence) provides the basis for the consumer's affection toward the brand by animating and humanizing the underlying brand (Fournier 1998). Some basic theoretical arguments support the impact of actual and ideal self-congruence on emotional brand attachment. First, self-congruence belongs to a broader class of cognitive-consistency theories (Festinger, 1957; Heider, 1946) that suggest that people strive for consistency in their beliefs and behaviors because inconsistency produces feelings of unpleasantness and tension. Applying these theories to the current context, consumers are motivated to hold a set of beliefs about themselves (self-concept) that motivate them to act in ways (e.g., prefer, purchase, and use brands with a matching brand personality) that reinforce their self-concept.

Furthermore, self-expansion theory (Aron et al. 2005) posits that people possess an inherent motivation to incorporate others (in our context, brands) into their conception of self. The more an entity (brand) is part of a person's self-definition, the closer is the emotional bond. In the consumer behavior literature, emotional attachment has been inherently tied to the consumers' self-concept (Kleine, Kleine, & Kernan, 1993). Some scholars have argued that brand attachment depends on the degree to which consumers view the brand as being part of themselves and reflecting who they are (e.g., Park et al. 2010). The more the brand reflects the consumer's self (i.e., self-congruence) and the greater the personal connection the consumer feels between the self and the brand, the stronger his or her brand attachment becomes. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

H1: Actual self-congruence has a positive effect on emotional brand attachment.

*Main Effects of Consumers' Product Involvement on Emotional Brand Attachment*

Because previous research has indicated that brand relationships often take on the characteristics of interpersonal relationships (Fournier, 1998), consumers will be more likely to prefer self-verifying brands (i.e., with a high actual self-congruence) when involvement is high. In addition, the increased cognitive effort leads to a greater incorporation of the brand into the consumer's self-concept. As we mentioned previously, when this occurs the consumer feels a greater personal connection between the self and the brand, resulting in a stronger emotional brand attachment. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

H2: Consumers' product involvement has a positive effect on emotional brand attachment.

*The Moderating Effect of Consumers' Product Involvement*

The hypothesized moderator of the relationship between self-congruence and emotional brand attachment is product involvement. As this study outlined in the context of H1, actual self-congruence increases emotional brand attachment because it supports a consumer in his or her aim for self-verification. According to research in psychology, self-verification requires substantial cognitive effort and is more likely to occur when people are motivated to process deeply (Swann et al., 1990). Thus, consumers with high product involvement will be more motivated to invest the cognitive effort required for self-verification (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

Furthermore, motivation for self-verification tends to be more important among consumers with

high product involvement. For example, in the context of interpersonal relationships, Hixon and Swann (1993) find that people tend to prefer self-verifying partners when they perceive the consequences of choosing an interaction partner to be important. Choosing self-verifying partners requires a certain amount of self-reflection and thus more cognitive effort because the person must access his or her own self for a comparison process (Hixon and Swann 1993).

When involvement is low, consumers may not be willing to process deeply and therefore do not engage in the cognitive elaboration required to engage in self-verification. In this case, the product is not important enough for consumers to invest the effort of choosing the brand as a self-verifying brand relationship partner. As a result, these consumers are less likely to make the connection between the brand and their actual self and therefore are less likely to form an emotional brand attachment, which leads to the following hypothesis:

H3: Product involvement strengthens the relationship between actual self-congruence and emotional brand attachment

METHODOLOGY

*Conceptual Framework*

The structural framework for this analysis is presented in Figure 1. The direct relationship between actual self-congruence and emotional brand attachment is captured by hypothesis H1, the direct relationship between consumers' product involvement and on emotional brand attachment is captured by hypothesis H2. In addition, H3 is used to test the moderating effect of consumers' product involvement on the relationship between actual self-congruence and emotional brand attachment.
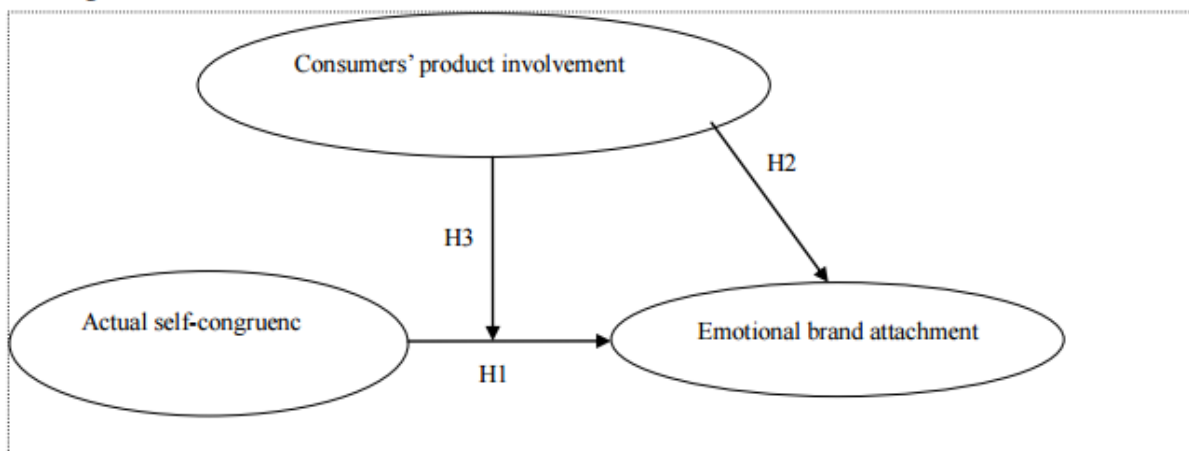


**Figure 1.** Conceptual Structure Framework

*Sample selection and data collection*

This research studied the relationship between actual self-congruence, consumers' product involvement, and emotional brand attachment from the point of view of consumers in Wu Poa Chun, a famous local bread brand in Taiwan. A total of 380 questionnaires were distributed, and 305 were returned between October 1, 2014 and December 31, 2014, with 278 valid questionnaires collected for a response rate of 73.2 %.

*Measurement*

This study collected data from questionnaires with four sections: actual self-congruence, consumers' product involvement, emotional brand attachment, and basic respondent demographic

data. The survey used five-point Likert scale, ranging from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree) for each scale. Three-item scale in the actual self-congruence section is based on Sirgy et al. (1991) and Malär et al. (2011). Five-item scale in the consumers' product involvement section was adopted from Park et al. (2010). The emotional brand attachment scale was adopted from Malär et al. (2011) with six items. The valve of Mean, SD, factor loading, and $R^2$ of each item, and Cronbach's α, AVE , and Composite reliability of each dimension were showed in table 1, table 2, and table 3. It was found that all dimensions are reasonably reliable with Cronbach's α values greater than 0.70, convergent validity with AVE values greater than 0.50.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis of actual self-congruence

| Dimension/Items | Mean | SD | Cronbach's α | Factor loading | AVE | Composite reliability $R^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Actual self-congruence | 3.38 | | 0.86 | | **0.69** | **0.87** |
| 1.The personality of brand x is consistent with how I see myself (my actual self). | 3.39 | 0.80 | | 0.81 | | 0.65 |
| 2.The personality of brand x is a mirror image of me(my actual self). | 3.43 | 0.90 | | 0.91 | | 0.82 |
| 3.The kind of person who typically wears this brand is very much like me(my actual self). | 3.36 | 0.90 | | 0.76 | | 0.57 |

Table 2. Descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis of consumers' product involvement

| Dimension/Items | Mean | SD | Cronbach's α | Factor loading | AVE | Composite reliability $R^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Consumers' product involvement | 3.48 | | 0.86 | | **0.70** | **0.92** |
| 1.Because of my personal attitudes, I feel that this is a product that ought to be important to | 3.41 | 0.84 | | 0.84 | | 0.65 |
| 2.Because of my personal values, I feel that this is a product that ought to be important to | 3.46 | 0.90 | | 0.91 | | 0.82 |
| 3.This product is very important to me personally | 3.33 | 0.96 | | 0.77 | | 0.57 |
| 4. Compared with other products, this product is important to me | 3.45 | 0.88 | | 0.88 | | 0.82 |
| 5. I am interested in this product | 3.76 | 0.92 | | 0.76 | | 0.57 |

Table 3. Descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis of emotional brand attachment

| Dimension/Items | Mean | SD | Cronbach's α | Factor loading | AVE | Composite reliability $R^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Emotional brand attachment | 3.38 | | 0.86 | | **0.58** | **0.89** |
| 1. To what extent is (brand name) part of | 3.45 | 0.80 | | 0.81 | | 0.65 |
| 2. To what extent do you feel personally | 3.43 | 1.05 | | 0.85 | | 0.82 |
| 3. To what extent does (brand name) say something to other people about who you are? | 3.13 | 0.96 | | 0.68 | | 0.57 |
| 4. To what extent are your thoughts and feelings toward (brand name) often automatic, coming to mind seemingly on their own? | 3.57 | 0.94 | | 0.69 | | 0.82 |
| 5. To what extent does the word (brand name) automatically evoke many good thoughts about the past, present, and future? | 3.53 | 1.12 | | 0.79 | | 0.57 |
| 6. To what extent to you have many | 3.39 | 0.95 | | 0.73 | | 0.57 |

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

*Sample*

The profile of respondents was shown in Table 4. The respondents comprised 61.8% females with 47.9% of the respondents married. Most respondents (34.1%) were aged from 31 to 40 years, 54.8% were college or university educated, and 60.4% of them had monthly incomes of 20000-40000 NT respectively.

*Statistic Results*

Before the causal relationships of all variables were tested, a correlation analysis was conducted. The correlation matrix presented in Table 5. The significant correlation relationships among all dimensions indicated that the next causal analysis of all variables would be reasonable.

All hypotheses were tested using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. First, emotional brand attachment was regressed on actual self-congruence to test hypothesis H1. It was found that actual self-congruence had a significant positive impact on emotional brand attachment ($\beta$=0.567, p<0.01, $R^2$=0.153, adjusted $R^2$=0.151, and F=45.442). Thus, hypothesis H1 was supported. Second, consumers' product involvement was incorporated in to model 2 and emotional brand attachment regressed on actual self-congruence and consumers' product involvement to test hypothesis H2. It

was found that consumers' product involvement had a significant positive impact on emotional brand attachment ($\beta$=0.412, p<0.01, $R^2$=0.360, adjusted $R^2$=0.358, and F=89.838). Thus, hypothesis H2 was supported. Finally, the product of actual self-congruence and consumers' product involvement was incorporated in to model 3 and emotional brand attachment regressed on actual self-congruence, consumers' product involvement, and the product of actual self-congruence and consumers' product involvement to test hypothesis H3. It was found that the product of actual self-congruence and consumers' product involvement had a significant positive impact on emotional brand attachment ($\beta$=0.423, p<0.01, $R^2$=0.413, adjusted $R^2$=0.409, and F=89.657). The results for the hierarchical multiple regression equation were depicted in Table 6.

Table 4. Respondents' profile

| Variables | Percentage (%) | Variables | | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender | | Tenure | | |
| Male | 38.2 | | 1-2 | 34.7 |
| Female | 61.8 | | 3–5 | 21.5 |
| Marriage | | 6–10 | | 18.8 |
| Singled | 52.1 | 11-15 | | 20.8 |
| Married | 47.9 | 16-20 | | 3.5 |
| Education | | 21-25 | | 0.7 |
| Junior high | 13.9 | Salary (NT/month) | | |
| Senior high | 22.9 | 20000 and below | | 14.6 |
| College | 22.9 | 20000-40000 | | 60.4 |
| University | 31.9 | 40000-60000 | | 13.9 |
| Graduate school | 8.3 | 60000-80000 | | 4.2 |
| Age | | 80000-100000 | | 6.9 |
| 20 and below | 9.7 | 100000-120000 | | |
| 21–30 | 32.7 | 120000 and above | | |
| 31–40 | 34.1 | | | |
| 41–50 | 16.0 | | | |
| 51 and above | 7.6 | | | |

Table 5. Correlations of dimensions

| Dimensions | Actual self-congruence | Consumers' product involvement | Emotional brand attachment |
|---|---|---|---|
| Actual self-congruence | 1 | | |
| Consumers' product involvement | .456** | 1 | |
| Emotional brand attachment | .639** | .717** | 1 |

Note: all correlation coefficients in Table 5 are significant for p<0.01

Table 6. Effect of emotional brand attachment of hierarchical multiple regression analysis

| Independent variable | Model 1 (standard β) | Model 2 (standard β) | Model 3 (standard β) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Actual self-congruence | 0.567** | 0.412** | 0.372* |
| Consumers' product involvement | - | 0.586** | 0.523** |
| Acyual self-congruence * Consumers' product involvement | - | - | 0.423** |
| $R^2$ | 0.153 | 0.360 | 0.413 |
| Adjusted $R^2$ | 0.151 | 0.358 | 0.409 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | - | 0.207 | 0.051 |
| F-value | 45.838 | 58.442 | 89.657 |

DISCUSSSIONS

The findings support the view that self-congruence can increase emotional brand attachment; however, both the type of self-congruence and the context/consumer characteristics must be considered. In general, brands with actual self-congruence generated higher levels of emotional brand attachment. This effect was even more pronounced when consumers were involved with the product. The results indicate that product involvement is an important predictor and moderator of the relationship between self-congruence and emotional brand attachment. When involvement is high, the brand is more personally relevant, and the consumer will elaborate on the connections between the brand and his or her actual self. If these comparisons are congruent, the consumer's actual self is verified, and the consumer feels a stronger connection with the brand, leading to stronger emotional brand attachment. However, when involvement is low, consumers are less willing to engage in self-verification through the brand because the underlying product is not important enough. However, they seem to be willing to emotionally connect with self-enhancing (i.e., ideally self-congruent) brands. By examining the moderating effect of product involvement, we gained a better understanding of why focusing on the actual self works better in some situations, whereas a focus on the ideal self works in others.

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# ESTIMATING A FACET-BASED ADVERTISING RESPONSE MODEL

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ABSTRACT

This study proposed a facet-based advertising response model to estimate the effects of tourism advertising by incorporating key decisions or components (i.e., facets) that comprise a trip as well as consumer information process. The findings of this research reveal the heterogeneous roles of traveler's responses to advertising (i.e., cognition, affect and conation responses) on behavioral intentions to purchase travel products advertised. The implications of this model for tourism advertising are substantial because it provides a much richer foundation for the development of destination marketing strategies.

Key words: travel decision making, facets-based advertising model, advertising response, multi-travel facets

## INTRODUCTION

Advertising is regarded as an important communication method in tourism (Morgan, Hastings, Pritchard, 2012). Destination marketing organizations have invested a large amount of budgets on developing effective advertising materials so that travelers facilitate obtaining useful information (Ruhanen, McLennan, & Moyle, 2013). In this vein, numerous researchers have proposed several approaches to estimating the effect of destination advertising, such as conversion study (Burke & Gitelson, 1990), advertising tracking method (Siegel & Ziff-Levine, 1990), experimental design (Mok, 1990), and econometric modelling (Butterfield, Deal, & Kubursi, 1998). These strategies provided substantial contributions to advertising literatures with pros and cons of each estimation. Importantly, however, those approaches mainly focus on a single type of product which is to decide visiting a destination. A number of tourism researchers stated that travel is a complex process. That is, travel behavior is not singular and defined by the destination decision but rather compose a number of sub-decisions including accommodations, restaurants, activities, and shopping stores and so on, which form overall travel experience (Dellaert, Ettema, & Londh, 1998; Woodside & MacDonald, 1994). Moutinho (1987) argued that "there is more involvement in a travel decision than in purchasing some specific items. There is a range of sub-decisions to be considered in relation to: destination, transportation, accommodation, activities, budget, reservations and so forth" (p.27). In this vein, several studies assessed the sequence in which the elements of travel decision-making are chosen and suggest that the choices of the elements are interrelated and evolve in a decision process over time (e.g., Jeng & Fesenmaierx, 2002; Hyde & Laesser, 2009; Woodside & King, 2001).

With recognizing the importance of travel characteristics, several studies proposed destination advertising model that takes into account multi travel facets. For example, Park,

Nicolau and Fesenmaier (2012) assessed the hierarchical advertising effects on travel decision with analyzing six travel facets (i.e., attraction, restaurant, event, shopping, hotel and outdoor) other than destination. Accordingly, Park and Nicolau (2015) compared the heterogeneous influences of advertising between separate (single item purchase) and joint (bundling purchase) consumptions. The study conducted by Stienmetz, Maxcy and Fesenmaier (2013) evaluated the role of advertising in leading to not only behavioral decisions but also travel budgets with proposing Destination Advertising Response (DAR) model. This research argues that while these recent studies seem to well develop advertising response models coping with the notion of multi-travel facets, the attempt to integrate the psychological understandings of consumer information processing into approach to estimating tourism advertising has not comprehensively accomplished.   With responding to how advertising works, generic advertising literatures indicate that consumers pass through a series of steps including cognition and affection, and conation, which reflects hierarchy-of-effects (Reed & Ewing, 2004). Thus, the aim of this research is to propose a multifaceted advertising response model that embraces foundations of travel decision and consumer information integration behaviors (see Figure 1). Therefore, the first purpose of this study is to develop a tourism advertising response model that includes a range of travel related decisions as well as those factors that reflect cognitive and affective responses, attitude, and intention to purchase a variety of travel products that are advertised by destination marketing organizations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Psychological Sequences of Advertising Response*

The hierarchy-of-effect model (especially Lavidge and Steiner's model) has been considered for more than a centur with little change to its essential AIDA structure (e.g., Barry & Howard, 1990). Vakratas and Ambler (1999) reviewed 250 studies that examined how advertising works and classified these studies according to the model and theory applied. The authors concluded that despite the recognition of the hierarchy-of-effect (cognition ☐ affect ☐ behavior), the concept of hierarchy (temporal sequence) did not always take place from the consumer's mind. Instead, cognition and affect are interactive along with past experiences to the product. Consistently, some researchers conclude that affect may actually precede cognition, and/or that it is intrinsically interwoven with how we think about advertising, rather than a type of linear effect (cognition ☐ affection) (Hall, 2004). The following section briefly discusses the key elements of the general advertising model including cognitive, affective, and conative components.

*Cognitive Response*
Attention
Attention, defined as the amount of cognitive resource being used, has been consistently recognized as a central construct to most advertising response models (Heath & Feldwick, 2008). In particular, the AIDA model postulates that attention is the first step in the persuasion process when advertising is exposed (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). Further, most hierarchy-of-effect models suggest that attention is the initial step to go to a higher level of process. Attention is a cognitive response whereby it can be an equivalent term with thought (MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986). Pieters, Warlop, and Wedel (2002) found that when consumers pay more attention on advertising, they are more likely to improve brand memory. Additionally, Rossiter and Percy (1997) proposed the ALEA model (Attention, Learning, Emotion, and Acceptance), arguing that the advertising process is initiated by attention responses to diverse elements of advertising.

Recall
Recall has also been recognized as one of the most important measures in cognitive advertising response based upon the idea that it generates and sustains product/brand awareness (Willke, 1993). Several researchers describe recall as "the mental reproduction of some target item experienced or learned earlier" (Bagozzi & Silk, 1983). Stapel (1998) concludes that recall provides an objective indication of the level of interest an advertisement can produce. In terms of the cognitive response model, it is argued that advertising effectiveness depends on how much consumers understand

and remember the message, and eventually, purchase the advertised product (Laskey, Fox, & Crask, 1995). Due to the elapsed time between message exposure and purchasing behavior, advertising is required to work through a consumer's memory (Ehrenberg, Barnard, Kennedy, & Bloom, 2002) as memory makes the linkage between advertising inputs (i.e., message) and outputs (i.e., consumer behavior) (Dens & Pelsmacker, 2010). Haley and Baldinger (1991) observe that "[P]ersuasion and recall … are likely to remain primary evaluative measures in the foreseeable future" (p.30). Importantly, however, Krugman (2000) found that recall does not perfectly measure the extent to which people memorize the contents of advertising. He and others (Wells, 2000) suggested that it is important to examine how meaningful the message is and how well the brand name (or item) registers in people's minds. They proposed two different methods to measure recall: aided and unaided recall. In the aided recall, a respondent is asked by showing a picture of the advertisement with the sponsor or brand name blanked out. In contrast, in unaided recall, only the product or service name is provided (Batra, et al., 1996).

Informativeness
Informativeness refers to the ability of advertising to effectively provide relevant information (Oh & Xu, 2003). Marketing professionals view advertising as an informative and persuasive tool for stimulating demand (Crouch, 1994). From the informative perspective of advertising, numerous researchers have shown that advertising informativeness is strongly correlated with the value of advertising to consumers (Ducoffe, 1995; King, et al., 1993), and that the informative content of advertising is the best predictor to form brand attitude (Li, Daugherty, & Biocca, 2002; Mitchell & Olson, 1981), and in turn, this significantly influences consumer behavior (Aaker & Stayman, 1990; Mela, Gupta, & Lehmann, 1997). Klein (1998) argues that products regarded as experience goods (e.g., travel products) can become search goods when the consumer can obtain critical and useful product information prior to the purchase decision making. In particular, consumers can build indirect experience from content and stimulus of diverse advertising information such as text, images, and videos. That is to say, the risk inherent in product choice can be greatly reduced as consumers gain increased knowledge about the available alternatives.

*Affective Response*

Emotion is considered to be one of the well-known responses to advertising stimulus. The influential work by neuroscientists such as LeDoux (1996) indicates that emotion is essential to rational thinking and human behavior. Indeed, they argued that emotion may dominate cognition such that they are the most important factors affecting the advertising process (Poels & Dewitte, 2006). There are two types of emotions where one refers to "lower-order emotions", including uncontrollable and spontaneous emotional reactions (LeDoux, 1996; Zajonc, 1980). These types of emotions primarily engage in pleasure and arousal reactions that do not require cognitive assertion. The second type of emotion depends on deeper cognitive processing of the situation, referred to as "higher-order emotions". These emotions are more complex than lower-order emotions and need to be consciously labelled (Rossiter & Bellman, 2005). Heath, Brandt, and Nairn (2006) examined the effect of emotional and rational contents on brand favourability within the television advertising context and found that emotional content in advertising significantly relates to favourability (or attitude toward brand).

*Conative Response*

Attitudes toward advertising and products
An attitude toward an object can be defined as an individual's internal evaluation of it. Specifically, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p.222) stated that "A person's attitude is a function of these salient beliefs at a given point in time" where salient beliefs are those activated from memory and considered by person in a given situation. Based on this definition, attitude toward advertising can be regarded as an important construct affecting advertising effectiveness, product/brand attitude, and purchase intention (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; Durvasula, Andrews, Lysonski, & Netemeyer, 1993). Lutz (1985) outlined five antecedents of attitude toward advertising: (1) advertising credibility, (2) advertising perceptions, (3) attitude toward the advertiser, (4) attitude toward advertising in general,

and (5) mood. Many advertising researchers have focused on the attitude toward advertising in general, describing "predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion" as a principal notion of current advertising attitude (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989, p.49). This research indicates that attitude plays an important mediating role between exposure to information/message and behavioral change (Petty, Priester, & Brinol, 2010). That is, exposure to an advertising message for a specific brand first affects one's attitude toward the advertising, which then mediates the attitude toward the brand that refers to recipients' affective reactions toward the advertised brand (Lutz, et al., 1983). Subsequently, behavioral intention is formed as a consequence of this attitude formation (Brown & Stayman, 1992).

Purchase Intention

Purchase intention denotes the likelihood of performing an action (Howard & Sheth, 1969). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed the expectancy-value model, arguing that behavioral intention is composed of the relative weighting of attitude toward behavior and subjective norm. From an advertising perspective, it can be argued that a strong attitude and subjective toward a specific item featured in advertising would affect one's intention to purchase the advertised products or service. According to the hierarchy-of-effects model, conative measures are used to predict the behavioral response resulting from advertising or marketing stimulus. The most widely used conative measure in advertising effectiveness research is purchase intention (Beerli & Santana, 1999).

MULTIFACETED ADVERTISING RESPONSE MODEL

The traditional tourism advertising model focuses on the direct relationship between advertising exposure and the decision to visit the destination. However, several studies in tourism suggest that travel differs from many 'products' in that it involves a number of decisions including destination decision, trip members, travel route, attractions to visit, etc. This notion of travel decisions are embedded in the destination advertising response model (see Stienmetz, et al., 2013). Once an individual exposures to destination advertising, two types of reactions (i.e., cognition and affect) to the advertising materials are created, which form attitude toward advertising and destination. Importantly, however, the FAM model suggests estimating the attitudinal and behavioral changes to the segregated travel facets. These trip decisions (i.e., facets) typically follow a strong hierarchical structure whereby travel decisions of higher priority such as destination is determined in the earlier stage of travel planning and then affect following travel decisions (Choi, Lehto, Morrison, & Jang, 2011) (see Figure 1). Thus, destination marketers are important to understand the heterogeneous roles of advertising in specific travel consumptions. This model also takes into account travel characteristics composing demographic variables and travel behaviors as well as advertising channels (Kim, Hwang & Fesenmaier, 2005). In this vein, those individual factors and media channels are used as control variables when testing the FAM model.

METHDOLOGY

*Data Collection*

This study examines American travelers' responses to tourism advertising in their trip planning process using the proposed destination advertising evaluation model; in particular, this research focuses on how American travelers who live in the Midwest United States respond to advertising about Chicago, Illinois as a tourism destination. Chicago as a case study was selected for several reasons including: (1) Chicago is one of the most popular and well- known destinations so that people can easily respond their travel behavior. For example, Chicago Travel Statistics (2010) reported that there are approximately 37 million visitors per year between 1998 and 2010, and (2) Chicago includes a variety of natural and cultural attractions which offers diverse opportunities instead of being dominated by a small number of big attractions, and thus facilitates diversified spatial behaviors.

Figure 1. A Facet-based advertising model
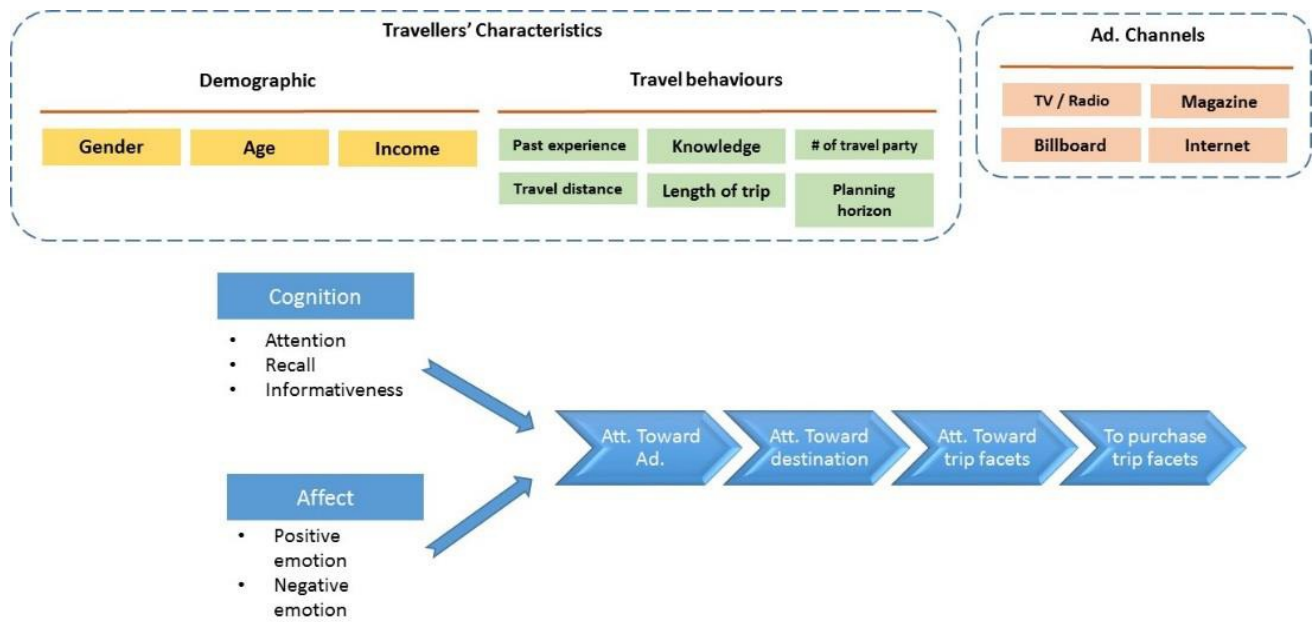


An online survey method was used to collect data from American travelers who have contacted VacationFun.com and/or Chicago destination websites to request travel information. Those individuals have high involvement to plan their trips to Chicago and pay attentions to destination advertising, which meets the suitability of sample characteristics for this current research. Previous studies indicate that travelers who live in the same state sponsoring the advertising campaign are much more likely to respond to the survey which, in turn, leads to response bias (Park & Fesenmaier, 2014). Thus, people who stay in Chicago Metropolitan area was excluded in the sampling framework. Measurement error (i.e., the extent to which the variation of a construct is explained by errors) also has a potential to be embedded in an online survey whereby a poorly designed survey decreases potential respondents' motivation to participate in the survey (Couper, 2000). In order to reduce the measurement error, the assessment of content validity is conducted whereby the researcher invites several experts in travel advertising and survey method to execute the procedure. Once all of the survey questions were developed, the measurement items and the survey instruments were pretested using academic panels through which eleven doctoral students from three different departments of the Eastern American University reviewed the preliminary instrument to check the clarity and clearness (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). As a result, of total 1,482 people responded to the survey (about 3% response rates), 888 (60% of total) number of valid respondents have seen or heard Chicago tourism advertising and completed all of questions used for further data analysis.

Measurements to estimate advertising responses are used five point-likert scales and adopted from previous literatures: for example, attention (Nagar, 2009), recall (Wu, Wei, & Chen, 2008), Informativeness (Ducoffe, 1996), emotion (Machleit & Wilson, 1988), Attitude toward advertising (Van & Song, 2010), Attitude toward travel products (Lee, Gretzel & Law, 2010), and intention to purchase products (Wong & Law 2005). In terms of data analysis, this study used a set of hierarchical regression models to estimate the roles of cognition, affect and conation in explaining intentions to purchase important travel facets. However, due to limited number of words allowed to describe, the results of this study report the final outcomes. The details of variables added on analyzing the regression model is shown at Table 1.

Table 1. Variables used in study

| Control variables | | Estimated variables | Dependent variables |
|---|---|---|---|
| Demographics | Travel behaviors | Cognitive responses | Intention to purchase travel facets advertised |
| Gender | Past travel experience | Attention | Places/attractions |
| Age | Knowledge about destination | Recall | Restaurants |
| Income | Knowledge about travel facets | Informativeness | Accommodation |
| | Travel companion | Affective responses | Shopping stores |
| | Party size | Emotions | |
| | Travel distance | Conative responses | |
| | Planning horizon | Attitude toward destination | |
| | Advertising channels | Attitude toward travel facets | |

RESULTS

Non-response bias was estimated by comparing respondents who answered the survey in different time periods with regard to demographic (i.e., gender, age, annual household income, and number of people in household), travel characteristics (i.e., number of pleasure trips to Midwest and/or Chicago), and advertising exposure (Armstrong & Overton, 1976). Survey subjects were categorized into three groups: early, middle and late respondents. Early respondents (n = 344, 38.7%) are defined as people who participated in the survey after first blast. Middle respondents (n = 288, 32.4%) are those who responded to the survey after second invitation, and the late respondents (n = 256, 28.8%) are persons who answered the online survey after third invitation. The results of a series of Chi- square analysis and post hoc ANOVA tests indicate that there are no significant differences between groups (p > .05), suggesting that the risk of non-response bias is limited.

*Profiles of Respondents*

Approximately 68 percent of respondents in the pilot study are female and over 90.0 percent are 30 years old or above. Annual household income seems to follow normal distribution whereby people who report annual income between $40,000 and $99,999 represent 58.5 percent of the sample; 62.2 percent of respondents report that they have 2 persons (age 18 and over) in their household, and 67.0 percent of them indicate they do not have any children under age 18 in their family. In terms of travel characteristics, 43.6 percent of respondent have taken trips in the Midwest about 2-3times; 81.0 percent of the travelers answered they have visited Chicago at least one time in the past 12 months.

*Factor Analysis*

A series of exploratory data analyses are conducted to estimate the reliability and validity of theoretical constructs that comprise the travel advertising response model. The result of principal component analysis for the attention construct. It shows that attention is a reasonably well defined unidimensional construct with factor loadings over .70; the five items have acceptable eigenvalues (3.16), variance explained (63.13) and the coefficient of reliability (.84). Principal component analysis was also used to assess a unidimentional structure of recall; this effort resulted in an eigenvalue over 1.0 (2.07) for the main factor which accounts for 69.04percent of the overall explained variance; reliability tests using Coefficient alpha confirmed internal consistency with a value of .77. Using a varimax rotation, PCA has extracted a component with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 (4.94) which explain 70percent of the variability in observations and a high value of coefficient reliability, .93. The result of principal component analysis for the emotion construct suggests two separate factors. The fourteen items are classified into two constructs with eigenvalues larger than 1.0 (4.65 and 4.55, respectively). These two factors account for 66.73percent of the total explained variance; 33.21percent for the first factor naming positive emotion and 33.52 percent for a second factor labeling negative emotion. Some of

factor loadings of positive emotion are lower than .70 which indicates the warning of items insufficiently explaining the positive emotion construct, such as Smoothed (.61), Stimulated (.57), and Calm (.56). In spite of the several items including low factor scores, the reliability test using Cronbach alpha confirms the internal consistency with the high enough value of .88. The modification of positive emotion construct is discussed in the confirmatory factor analysis part. In case of negative emotion, all factor loadings are above .84 with a high value of Cronbach reliability (.95), which suggests a cohesive structure of the negative emotion construct. The results of exploratory factor analysis indicate the unidimensional structure of attitude toward advertising; the factor scores of all items are over .80 except for an item, Simple: Complex (factor loading =.15). Despite the low factor loading item, three estimations of PCA indicate satisfactory values including eigenvalues (5.94), variance explained (65.97) and the coefficient of reliability (.92). As the emotion construct, the revision of the advertising attitude construct is discussed in the confirmatory analysis section.

*Estimating A Facet-based Advertising Response Model*

In general, advertising has more influential in higher income travelers, and ones who have less travel experiences to a destination. This finding is consistent with the findings of information seeking behaviors stating that consumers who have restricted level of internal information sources are more likely to seek to external information such as advertising. The negative effect of knowledge about Chicago destination stays in the same line of the argument. With regard to travel companion, travelers with friends are likely to stay in accommodation and visit shopping facilities advertised. As travelers plan longer trip, they tend to undertake activities promoted in the advertisement.
Planning horizon and prior knowledge about specific travel facets positively affect all four travel facets. It can be explained that travelers who spend more time and efforts on planning their trips are highly involved in the trip to Chicago and thus, would be largely engaged in the advertising. Nevertheless, no significant result was identified within .05 in cut-off points.

Looking at results about variables reflecting advertising responses, there is distinctive heterogeneity. For example, while affect responses are significant on leading to purchase advertised restaurants, just recall positively affect shopping decisions. On the other hand, the factors about both cognition (i.e., recall) and affect (i.e., negative emotion) positively influence accommodation decisions. Although cognition and affection are not significant in driving the likelihood to visit the attractions, attitude towards advertising (conation) leads to behavioral intentions. More specifically, attitude toward Chicago destination are influential for attraction and restaurant decisions.

Table 2
Results of multiple regression analysis

| Places/attractions | | | Restaurants | | Accommodation | | Shopping | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | β | VIF | β | VIF | β | VIF | β | VIF |
| Gender: Male | -.001 | 1.163 | -.003 | 1.166 | .022 | 1.163 | .045† | 1.165 |
| Age | .039 | 1.058 | -.004 | 1.035 | -.015 | 1.031 | -.016 | 1.030 |
| Income (Ref: $160,000 and over) | | | | | | | | |
| Less than $19,999 | .036 | 1.536 | .020 | 1.533 | -.005 | 1.537 | -.045 | 1.537 |
| $20,000 to 39,999 | .036 | 2.772 | -.036 | 2.790 | -.073 | 2.777 | -.072† | 2.782 |
| $40,000 to $59,999 | -.050 | 3.605 | -.016 | 3.607 | -.061 | 3.622 | -.031 | 3.622 |
| $60,000 to $79,999 | -.047 | 3.666 | -.023 | 3.682 | .008 | 3.720 | -.039 | 3.726 |
| $80,000 to $99,999 | -.020 | 3.346 | .023 | 3.370 | -.040 | 3.352 | -.030 | 3.355 |
| $100,000 to $129,999 | -.008 | 3.147 | .010 | 3.169 | -.028 | 3.165 | -.021 | 3.161 |
| $130,000 to $159,999 | -.047 | 1.803 | -.093** | 1.802 | -.077* | 1.803 | -.070* | 1.806 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Past experience to Chicago (Ref: None) | | | | | | | | |
| 1 visit | -.040 | 1.911 | -.025 | 1.886 | -.072† | 1.882 | -.044 | 1.888 |
| 2 visits | -.006 | 1.819 | .037 | 1.790 | -.015 | 1.799 | -.043 | 1.825 |
| 3 visits | .021 | 1.733 | .044 | 1.713 | -.009 | 1.721 | .004 | 1.740 |
| 4 visits | -.042 | 1.646 | .002 | 1.614 | -.045 | 1.621 | -.029 | 1.623 |
| 5-10 visits | -.056 | 1.915 | .007 | 1.916 | -.032 | 1.908 | -.032 | 1.930 |
| 11 or more visits | -.090* | 1.764 | -.043 | 1.761 | -.093* | 1.740 | -.128*** | 1.761 |
| Knowledge about Chicago destination | -.047 | 2.375 | -.061† | 1.888 | -.088* | 1.869 | -.092** | 1.840 |
| Travel companion | | | | | | | | |
| Alone | -.005 | 1.269 | .028 | 1.257 | -.035 | 1.256 | -.010 | 1.259 |
| With children | .025 | 1.677 | .030 | 1.646 | .012 | 1.646 | .022 | 1.659 |
| With Spouse/Partners | .022 | 1.379 | .023 | 1.389 | .036 | 1.397 | -.013 | 1.379 |
| With Friends | .015 | 1.389 | .044 | 1.395 | .071* | 1.390 | .060* | 1.404 |
| Party size (Ref: oneself) | | | | | | | | |
| Two | .022 | 7.563 | -.013 | 7.591 | .032 | 7.554 | .080 | 7.580 |
| 3 - 5 people | .072 | 8.820 | .013 | 8.843 | .043 | 8.801 | .108 | 8.828 |
| 6 or more people | .018 | 3.350 | .005 | 3.341 | -.033 | 3.354 | .037 | 3.343 |
| Travel distance | | | | | | | | |
| 1 – 50 miles | .048 | 1.805 | .032 | 1.804 | .011 | 1.819 | .044 | 1.812 |
| 51 – 100 miles | .023 | 3.688 | -.021 | 3.692 | .002 | 3.717 | .007 | 3.694 |
| 101 – 200 miles | -.052 | 7.058 | -.101 | 7.089 | -.085 | 7.070 | -.029 | 7.066 |
| 201 – 300 miles | -.030 | 7.771 | -.042 | 7.796 | -.061 | 7.786 | .035 | 7.782 |
| Over 300 miles | -.039 | 8.170 | -.047 | 8.191 | -.147† | 8.173 | -.020 | 8.208 |
| Length of trip (Ref: 1 day) | | | | | | | | |
| 2 days | .054 | 3.388 | -.010 | 3.377 | .035 | 3.388 | -.037 | 3.378 |
| 3 days | .110* | 4.175 | .050 | 4.167 | .059 | 4.192 | -.025 | 4.168 |
| 4 days | .079 | 3.083 | .009 | 3.087 | .066 | 3.100 | .012 | 3.083 |
| 5 – 10 days | .104** | 1.761 | .040 | 1.761 | .062† | 1.768 | .005 | 1.759 |
| 11 or more days | .013 | 1.167 | -.003 | 1.162 | -.015 | 1.164 | .028 | 1.162 |
| Planning horizon | .122*** | 1.138 | .165*** | 1.222 | .069* | 1.198 | .198*** | 1.278 |
| Prior knowledge about the travel facet | .109* | 2.347 | .183*** | 2.025 | .146*** | 1.889 | .185*** | 2.112 |
| Ad channels | | | | | | | | |
| TV / Radio | -.026 | 1.108 | .000 | 1.105 | -.001 | 1.105 | -.026 | 1.110 |
| Magazine | .030 | 1.104 | .014 | 1.107 | .025 | 1.107 | -.008 | 1.102 |
| Billboard | .034 | 1.128 | .043 | 1.130 | .049† | 1.128 | .017 | 1.140 |
| Internet | .008 | 1.399 | -.057† | 1.399 | -.013 | 1.413 | -.020 | 1.394 |
| Other | .015 | 1.190 | -.016 | 1.181 | -.014 | 1.181 | -.023 | 1.180 |
| Ad responses | | | | | | | | |
| Attention | .025 | 2.570 | -.028 | 2.563 | -.050 | 2.571 | -.032 | 2.565 |
| Recall | .045 | 2.033 | .057 | 2.061 | .192*** | 2.033 | .085* | 2.036 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Informativeness | .048 | 1.891 | .042 | 1.878 | .072* | 1.910 | .025 | 1.881 |
| P_Emotion[1] | .025 | 1.697 | .068* | 1.698 | .032 | 1.702 | -.006 | 1.724 |
| N_Emotion | -.019 | 1.284 | .063* | 1.282 | .068* | 1.308 | -.035 | 1.281 |
| Ad Attitude | .097* | 2.239 | .026 | 2.202 | .043 | 2.191 | .038 | 2.198 |
| Attitude toward Chicago destination | .153*** | 2.936 | .090* | 1.973 | .040 | 1.973 | .010 | 1.830 |
| Attitude toward travel facet | .221*** | 2.917 | .341*** | 1.781 | .333*** | 1.866 | .476*** | 1.742 |
| Adjusted $R^2$ | .312 | | .372 | | .316 | | .488 | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .203*** | | .161*** | | .206*** | | .196*** | |

Note: †p < 0.01, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001;

1 = P_Emotion refers to positive emotion; N_Emotion refers to negative emotion

CONCLUSION

This study proposed a facet-based advertising response model that integrates underpinnings of advertising responses (cognition, affect and conation) and multi-faceted natures of tourism. The findings reveal that according to different travel products to purchase, the influential factors related to advertising are different. Thus, this research suggests importance of analyzing various travel facets rather than relying on a destination decision so as to assess the effectiveness of advertising in a better way. For destination marketing organizations, it is recommended to focus on different set of consumer's mind when developing destination advertising. That is, advertisements for accommodation and shopping stores need to emphasize recalling their brands and quality of information whereas message for restaurants should be emotionally appealing to travelers. When developing attractions/places, the advertisement that enhance attitude toward the destination would be beneficial. Accordingly, several issues are suggested for future research. Testing the facet-based advertising model in different samples is important to generalize the findings. Furthermore, understanding the different characteristics of each travel facet is largely recommended to provide better explanations for the heterogeneity in advertising effects.

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# REBRANDING COMPONENTS TOWARDS DEVELOPING TOURISM DESTINATION: A CASE STUDY OF NEGERI SEMBILAN, MALAYSIA

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## ABSTRACT

Using the quantitative approach the experiences of two hundred sixty nine local tourists were tapped through a series of descriptive and inferential statistical methods. Findings clearly revealed that functional components (physical infrastructure, basic product needs and experience related product) and symbolic components (perceptions and relations) are recognized as contributory factors which positively influenced tourism destination development while stakeholder involvement are seen to moderate this relationship. Among all components, experience related products components were to be the most favorable choices among tourists. This information may help destination marketers to adapt suitable marketing strategies and leading them towards a better control and strategies.

Key words: Branding Strategies, Destination Marketing, Rebranding, Tourism

## INTRODUCTION

Place branding plays a crucial role to bring into contact with various existing specializations that place can offer in terms of brand management strategy and policy development, in particular with a view to create a new building, bringing together visionary strategies with hands on implementation. It helps in developing a new image more interesting and attractive, making it a very important phenomenon in which it involves criteria of products, branding as well as services. It has been the basis for survival in a competitive global market for a destination to create a unique identity in order to uncover niche and distinguish themselves from their competitors (Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott, 2002). It is because higher expenditure lies on the greater place or attachment as well as preference for various kind of high quality product. (Alegre and Juaneda, 2006). Thus the objective of this study is to identify the relationship between branding strategies components from various elements and its implication towards tourism destination development. A descriptive research design by using a quantitative approach will be employed in this study. It will also go through cross sectional study. In this case, it is important to review how various tourism key elements is currently viewed, rooms for improvement and how stakeholders' involvement will affect the tourism destination development in Negeri Sembilan.

## THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A more comprehensive definition of rebranding can be simply defined as an effort of giving a unique identity image of endowing a particular product or service with an added value of the existing brand that may reflect a tourist's perception about the products or

services. While De Chernatory, Christodoules, & Roper (2008) identified that brand image improvement as vital key factors that may encourage firms to undergo rebrand, Miller and Muir (2005) added two motivating factors for re-branding which either as a result of a change of organizational direction or due to image crisis.

On the other hand, the ability of visitors to gather all the information collected will affect their decision process to choosing a particular destination (Kotler and Gertner, 2004). This process will become much easier when places will focus on their own unique set of functional and tangible components (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002). This statement strengthened by Hankinson (2005) that stronger connection with the overall standard of quality and hence place competitiveness is gathered through functional attributes. In addition, based on previous study conducted by Mowle and Merilees (2005) they found that symbolic properties are what the consumer prefers and what gives added value to a destination as well as creating a greater sustainable competitive advantage rather than the functional qualities.

However, for customers who enjoy variety or mix elements of both functional and symbolic components will have even more high level of satisfaction. It is a key driver for the decision making process and though they would not revisit, it will be higher possibility that they will try to recommend to others (Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007). A recommendation can also play as a core for brand loyalty which in turn leads to destination performance (Reichheld, 2003). This is because the quality (Atilgan, Akinci, & Aksoy, 2003), value (Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriguez & Moliner 2006), low risk (Aqueveque, 2006) and perceived attractiveness (Um, Chon & Ro, 2006) of a holiday destination can attract repeat visitors leading to increase the employment opportunities as well as modern infrastructure (Darnell and Johnson, 2001).

However, according to Hatch & Schultz (2003), a corporate brand needs to deal with the requirements of multiple stakeholders especially in developing a successful brand. The importance of stakeholder involvement is to invest in the destination's physical environment, such as buildings, infrastructure (Hankinson, 2009) and the overall tourism product. According to Pike (2005) in a study on Tourism Destination Branding Complexity, he argues that, there is a fine balance to be struck between community consensus and brand theory because a top down approach to destination brand implementation is likely to fail without buy-in from these stakeholders the strategy will fail. The emphasis, therefore, should be on formulating the destination vision through a publicly-driven process based on stakeholder values and consensus, rather than through a more private expert-driven process based solely on market forces (Morgan, Pritchard, & Piggott, 2003). Based on the literature the study framework of this research is shown in Figure 1 below.

As per shown in the study framework, this study aims to determine the components best describe destination branding strategies associated with the tourism development around Negeri Sembilan from both functional and symbolic perspectives. Thus, this study will place major focus in three main objectives:
- To identify the functional attributes best describe rebranding components in tourism destination.
- To examine the key symbolic attributes best describe rebranding components in tourism destination.
- To identify the relationship between rebranding components (functional elements and symbolic elements) and its implication towards tourism destination development.

In order to support the objectives of this study, the following research questions as following:
   Q1-What is the functional attributes best describe rebranding components in tourism destination.
   Q2-What is the key symbolic attributes best describe rebranding components in tourism destination.
   Q3-What is the relationship between rebranding components (functional elements and symbolic elements) and its implication towards tourism destination development?
   Q4-Is stakeholder's involvement will effects rebranding components towards developing a tourism destination?

Figure 1. Study framework
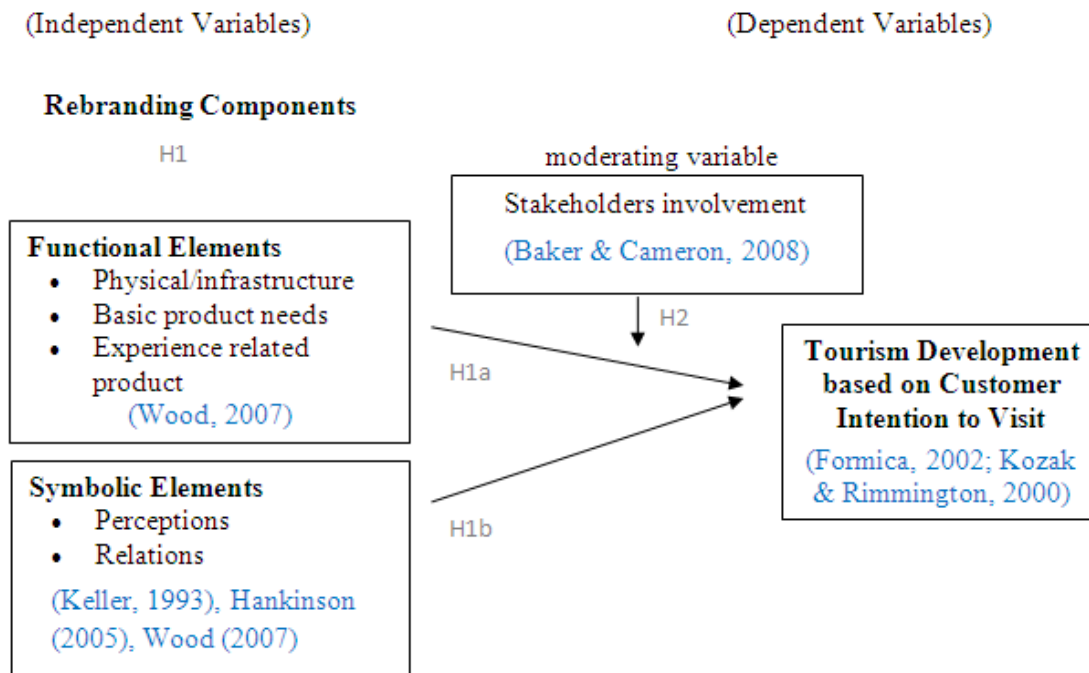


Based on the study framework, three directional hypotheses were formulated in this study

H1:     There is a significant relationship between rebranding components and tourism development.

H1a:    There is a significant relationship between functional elements of rebranding components and tourism development.

H1b:    There is a significant relationship between symbolic elements of rebranding components and tourism development.

H2:     Stakeholders involvement moderates the relationship of rebranding components and tourism development.

METHOD

A descriptive research design by using a quantitative approach were considered the most relevant approach to be employed. It also went through cross sectional study. Thus, information requires were obtained through self-reported and self-administered questionnaire with the tourists in Port Dickson, Pelenggong Homestay and Seri Menanti Royal Museum during four-week period in September and October 2014.. Every local visitor who stopped at the three selected tourism spots was approached to participate in answering the questionnaire in which a random starting number for each day was created. In order to interview respondents, a self-administered questionnaire were used comprising of five sections. Apart from demographic details as the first part (Part A) of the questionnaire, it also include another sections (Part B and Part C) relating to the components of destination branding inclusive of both functional and symbolic elements which are important to customers in finalizing the destination of their wish list. This include all the elements such as the issues and importance of basic physical / infrastructure, basic product needs, experiences (related to product), relationship as well as visitor's perception. Part D of the questionnaire relates on the stakeholder involvement and its importance in rebranding and developing a tourism destination. While last part (Part E) focuses on overall rebranding components and its implication towards

tourism destination development. Approximately 600 domestic tourists were approached during this period, about 300 of them accepted to answer the questionnaires but only two hundred and sixty nine (269) completed questionnaires were returned and collected due to time constraint. The data was then keyed for analysis using a Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS). By using a five-point Likert scale, factors important to the tourists were short-listed, identified and further analyzed. A descriptive like standard deviation, mean and inferential statistics were employed whenever appropriate with the research objectives, questions and hypotheses of the study

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The result of this study contains the analysis of the data that were obtained from the questionnaire. The data analysis were conducted under four research themes as follows:

- Responses for functional branding components: basic physical / infrastructure, basic product need and experiences (related to product) - the magnitude of the mean scores range from 3.84 to 4.30 indicates majority of the local tourists agreed with most of the items in this section analysis. As such, the majority of the tourists agree that experiences related product is the most important in the functional rebranding components compared to others. Out of these three components, it was found that the basic physical infrastructure was the least important functional rebranding components in developing a tourism destination.
- Responses for symbolic rebranding components: perceptions and relationship - the magnitude of the mean scores range from 4.2 to 4.0 indicates majority of the local tourists agreed with most of the items in this section analysis. As such, the majority of the tourists agree that perception on the tourism destination is the most important in the symbolic rebranding components compared to relationship.
- Responses for stakeholder involvement in accelerating tourism destination.

Table 1. Results of multiple regressions of stakeholder involvement moderates the relationship between rebranding components and tourism destination

| Predictors | Model 1 Std. β | Model 2 Std. β |
|---|---|---|
| Step 1: Model Variables Rebranding Components | .42*** | |
| Step 2: Moderating Variables Stakeholder Involvement | | .48*** |
| $R^2$ | .32 | .53 |
| Adj. $R^2$ | .31 | .52 |
| $R^2$ Change | .32 | .21 |
| F-Change | 123.868*** | 118.831*** |

Note: $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$

Results of multiple regressions of stakeholder involvement moderates the relationship between rebranding components and tourism destination (see table 1) able to explain the 32 percent ($R^2$ = .32, F- change = 123.868, p<.001) of the variation on the tourism development. The value of β = .42, p < .001 demonstrated that rebranding components have given a significant impact on the tourism development among the local tourists. In the second step of hierarchical multiple regression, the stakeholder involvement as moderator was entered as another independent

variable to influence the dependent variable. The stakeholder involvement is able explain the additional 21 percent (R2 Change = .21) as a moderator for rebranding components that influence the tourism development. The beta value ($\beta$ = .48, p< .001) of stakeholder involvement moderate relationship between rebranding components and tourism development ($\beta$ = .42, p < .0001).

- Responses for overall tourist intention to visit a particular places

Table 2. Results of multiple regressions of the rebranding components and tourism destination development

| Predictors | Model 1 Std. $\beta$ |
|---|---|
| Step 1: Model Variables Rebranding Components | .56*** |
| R2 | .32 |
| Adj. R2 | .31 |
| R2 Change | .32 |
| F-Change | 123.868*** |

Note: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p <0.001

To be precise, to evaluate the how well the rebranding components influence the tourism development. The independent variable (rebranding components) was entered into the equation at once against the dependent which is the tourism development. Results of multiple regressions of the rebranding components and tourism destination development (see table 2) shows that the rebranding components (functional and symbolic) were able to clarify 32 percent (R2 = .32, F-change = 123.868, p<.001) of the variance in the tourism development. The outcomes demonstrated that the rebranding components significantly contributed to the prediction of its tourism development dimension. In determine the contribution of independent variable, it is essential to use the beta ($\beta$) values with ignoring any negative signs at the front (Pallant, 2005). As the rebranding components were found significantly and positively influence tourism development ($\beta$= .56, p<.001) it can be said that the assumption on the influence rebranding components to its tourism development are apparent and thus the first main hypothesis is strongly supported.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

No doubt that rebranding components for both functional and symbolic are important in developing tourism destination in Negeri Sembilan. Functional rebranding components in destination development are a growing concern as most destination branding is making efforts to remain its competitiveness in recent tourism market. This means the destination need to portray positive images in the mind of tourists especially their domestic visitors. The perception of local tourists can be a benchmark that define the level of destination attractiveness. If it is perceived as unattractive by the locals, this mean the destination is not competitive enough to attract international tourists in recent market. To be competitive, brands must be able to consider and adapt to tourists changing needs and trends to do way better than only static brands (Jacobson & Mizik, 2008). Any destination marketing organizations (DMOs) must communicate to customers that different place has its own unique value. In this study, Negeri Sembilan should portray themselves as a destination that offers a lot of experiences related to their tourism product such as sport and adventure activities, entertainment, recreational services as well as their delicious local foods since it was found that these components are the most favorable products that were chosen and explored by their local tourists. Low frequency of repeat visitation among tourists also indicated that tourists are still not aware of the tourism products in Negeri Sembilan although this destination has a lot of potential to be one of the top destination in Malaysia.

When it is not an easy task to promote a destination, it takes a lot of preparation and cooperation from various bodies as well as agencies such as travel agency, tour operator, government authority and many others. High involvement from various stakeholders play vital role in enhancing the tourism development. It is pre-requisite for marketer to focus not only the experience with one particular product or service at the destination, but also on the visitor experience as a whole. Similarly, the brand offers should not only be unique, but it must also be valuable to visitors as consumers.

According to Usakli (2011) explained that marketers should put into effect programs that highlight their place's unique personality. However, one common mistakes to avoid is combining too many features simultaneously in a promotional campaign. The existence of various elements being marketed may weakening the maximum degree of execution of the brand's core identity (Qu, 2011). Only one or maximum number of two important attributes should be concentrated on for rebrand positioning. The first step to be undertaken is by conducting market research frequently in order to create a unique and effective destination brand. This is because it is essential to explore and identify what visitors already know about the place. Then only we confidently chose the effective mix of brand elements to promote a positive image (Prebensen, 2007).

In addition, the destination marketers should make effort to obtain hard visitor data such as the number of first time visitors and repeat visitors because according to Gartner (2011) in his research, he stated that each group evaluates the place brand somewhat differently. With the information on repeat visitor versus first time visitation rates, a marketer could fine-tune their rebranding approach accordingly to emphasis on reaching a specific group.

Collaboration from different organizations and stakeholder groups is also important as the next key step in creating a successful and unified destination brand. Proper involvement and relationships among these stakeholder groups will result in better understanding on the value each contributes to the brand leading to achieving consent on a brand strategy (Prebensen, 2007). Along with the visitors, local residents and business suppliers or owners are also main players of the core brand. Gilmore. A brand must able to capture the spirit of its people. Thus, the importance to keep these stakeholder's values in mind especially the local should never be left unnoticed they symbolize the brand.

On the other hand, supportive attitudes and mutual agreement from other individual tourism suppliers (tourism attractions, accommodation etc) of a place also play vital role in rebranding a particular destination (Prebensen, 2007). Oftentimes, individual attraction or tourism spot do not have the resources to generate strong promotional campaigns (Morgan, 2002). It is a beneficial practice to be employed in order to create a 'critical mass' through pooling of resources that would be strong enough for a visitor to associate with a brand name. To ensure the success of the brand, Prebensen (2007) also emphasized on the need of coming up with unified agenda and goals that are measurable and actionable so that these make it more likely that the brand will actually be monitored and implemented successfully.

As a conclusion, the above highlighted issues could be resolved with the research conducted and agreement achieved between stakeholder groups to implement a destination branding strategy. However they should first observe on the customer trend and visitor's changing need frequently to remain competitive in the market. As different destination has their own unique value, marketers should identify the best attributes that may define their place branding strategies. Garcia (2012) strengthened the idea by suggesting that destination marketers should develop a two-stage branding strategy, first concentrating on the stakeholders associated to the place and secondly focusing on visitors. The reason being is that no one else will be attracted to it if there is no support and buying power into the brand from locals (Morgan, 2002; Garcia, 2012; Lodge, 2002).

As mentioned in previous notion, this stakeholder group is the image of the brand in which visitors actually interact with. The important matter that should be taken into accounts is how it

can then be believed elsewhere, if the brand and destination image that is chosen for a country fails to symbolize the people. Locals can damage the brand if there are depressed or disillusioned to their own country attraction, so it is important also to appeal positively to them so that they will be satisfied of where they come from. In fact, the first stage is a necessary condition for the stage two.

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# TOURISM BRANDING STRATEGY OF HERITAGE CORRIDOR: BRAND DNA SELECTION
## —A CASE STUDY OF "CHANG'AN – TIANSHAN" HERITAGE CORRIDOR

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ABSTRACT

This paper takes the heritage corridor as the research object. We combine the tourism "push and pull" theory, place sense theory in geography, resource-based theory in management and the theory of brand personality together. With the experts' evaluation and hierarchy analysis method, we can extract and refine the tourism branding DNA of heritage corridor. Finally, we select "the Silk Road: Chang'an - Tianshan corridor road network" as an example. Combining content analysis method, this paper selects 20 key words which reflect its image. We select and analyze "the Silk Road: Chang'an –Tianshan Heritage Corridor" brand DNA and give suggestions.

Key words: Heritage Corridor; Brand DNA; "Chang'an - Tianshan" Heritage Corridor

## REFINE EVALUATING INDICES OF HERITAGE CORRIDOR PLACEALITY FACTORS

### Heritage Corridor: Tourism Destination with Special Innate Brand DNA

Heritage is "the history, traditions and qualities that a country, a region or society has had for many years and that are considered an important part of its character" (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 7th Edition, 2007). Corridor, composed of nodes, channels and route radiation area, is linear (ribbon) space embodying structure, function and intrinsic and extrinsic connection (ICOMOS, 1994). Dating back to the 1960s of America, heritage corridor is linear landscape compiling specialized cultural resources (Searns, 1995). It represents movement and mobility of human beings, mutual benefits and continuous exchanges of multi-dimensional commodities, thought, knowledge and value, and hence

temporally and spatially cultural exchanges and cultural mutual nourishment. Nourishment is incarnated in tangible and intangible heritage (UNESCO, 2008).

Heritage corridor is special tourism destination accumulating heritages. Heritage corridor included in World Heritage enjoys outstanding universal value. According to *Convention of World Cultural and Natural Heritage Protection*, outstanding universal value (OUV) is the design feature of world heritage. Besides, heritage is required to meet 10 criteria, including representativeness, importance, historical significance, value, uniqueness, authenticity, integrity, etc. The essential procedure of heritage OUV evaluation is to dig out cultural trait of heritage, assess its value and determine whether its cultural value has OUV (ICOMOS, 2005). For a heritage corridor to be included in world heritage list, it is required to be a specific and dynamic cultural landscape of authenticity and integrity, with characteristics of OUV, time-and-space continuum and unique value (UNESCO, WHC, 2013). Brand DNA of heritage corridor stems from its OUV. It is a vital guarantee for sustainable and sound cultural heritage tourism development to enhance tourism brand building on the basis of resource integration relying on cultural heritage advantages (Zhang, et al, 2011; Zhang & Bao, 2004).

*Positioning and Image: Key Issues of Tourism Destination Branding*

American Marketing Association defines branding as name, term, symbol, sign or design and their combination used to distinguish product or service of enterprises or business groups to differ from its competitor's product or service. Morrison (2009) concludes the PIB model of destination brand marketing: positioning, image and branding and makes it clear that the key issues of tourism destination branding strategy is positioning and image.

Tourism destination positioning is to concisely convey essential qualities of a certain product or service and thus to present to consumers its distinguished characteristics compared with other competitors in a meaning way (Plog, 2004). The core elements of positioning analysis are destination resources, consumer perception and competitors (Qu & Li, 2012). Brand positioning will help differentiate and add the value of a brand by mainly studying how to discover the unique selling point of the target product, and how to establish the brand through communication methods to satisfy customer's certain mental expectations. The image of tourism destination is the impression on a person or the public: the accumulation of impressions, beliefs, thoughts, expectations and emotions. Cai (2002) believes that the development of branding image is an critical part building destination branding model and he defines the image of target tourism destination as reflections of connections in tourists' memories on perception on a place. Considering property-based composition and entity-based composition, Echtner et al (1993) concludes tourism destination image is composed of three-dimensional continuum and they are property-entity, function-mentality and similarity- specificity. Tourism destination branding should recognize as well as distinguish target destination, deliver commitment of an unforgettable tourism experiences and connect with uniqueness of target destination to consolidate and enhance pleasant destination experiences (Ritchie, 1998). The core of tourism destination branding strategy is to establish a positive destination image which is recognizable and different from other destinations by choosing consistent branding elements (Cai, 2002; Tascietal, 2007). Branding is the best weapon of destination marketing (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002). Destination branding can help destination create a more attractive image that differs from competitors to avoid price erosion (Pike, 2005).

*Attractiveness and Competitiveness: Cornerstone of Tourism Destination Branding*

The function of tourism destination branding is to connect with tourist markets and to differ from competitive destinations. The establishment of tourism destination branding entails attractiveness effect building with tourist markets and competitiveness effect construction with competitive destinations.

Push-Pull Effect: Due to push of tourism source market and pull of destination, tourists leave source market to destination. Based on push - pull theory of population transfer, Dann, Crompton, Iso-Ahola,

Uysal and Jurowsky come up with Push-Pull Effect. Push refers to tourists' own factors, such as tourism expenses, income, spare time, etc. Pull—the real reason for consumers to travel—refers to natural resources, cultural resources, attractiveness, destination image and practical value, etc (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Epperson, 1983; McIntosh & Goeldner, 1990). Pull involves intrinsic traits of attractions and destinations (Klenosky, 2002). Prayag & Ryan (2011) believe pull effect is measured by a series of destination traits representing local representativeness. Destination attractiveness is an important source of brand DNA. Competitiveness Effect: Resource-based view believes that competitiveness comes from inimitable and irreplaceable resources (Wernerfelt, 1984; Crook, Ketchen, Combs, and Todd, 2008; Bingham, 2008). To turn short-term competitive advantage into continuous competitive advantage, resources must be heterogeneous and immovable (Peteraf, 1993). Only those irreplaceable and inimitable resources can be turned into valuable resources (Barney, 1991). According to resource-based view, resource that destination brand relies on must be valuable, scarce, inimitable and irreplaceable. Special trait of destination competitiveness is another source for destination brand DNA.

*Destination Personality: Source and Image of Tourism Destination Branding*

In the 1980s, American scholars started to connect brand with personality, and that is, brand personification. Asker (1997) classifies brand personality as honesty, enthusiasm, competence, maturity and rudeness. Hosany, Ekincy and Uysal (2006）introduce Aaker's concept and come up with the concept of destination personality. They connect destination branding strategy with personality and point out that destination personality is multi-dimensional construction and human feature combination related to tourism destination. Ekinci and Hosany define destination brand personality as a set of mutually-related destination personality features that tourists recognize (Bai & Hu, 2013). Pereira et al (2012) comes up with the concept of tourism destination personality. The key to create destination brand difference is to create unique destination personality and establish emotional relations between brand and tourists. Brand building needs to intensively convey soul and spirit of destination (Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2003). Henderson (2000) distinguishes six personality dimensions when analyzing Singapore branding strategy and they are metropolis, youth, vigor, modern Asia, reliability and comfort. Zou (2006) comes up with "placeality" based on place and sense of place. He believes that placeality is natural and cultural essential characteristics that a place accumulates in a long run and organic synthesis of nature and culture. The essential characteristics are represented by unique lifestyle formed in a region on a long term influenced by natural and cultural environment. Tourism placeality is attractiveness to tourists and competitiveness compared with competitors. Tourism placeality is brand DNA of tourism destination.

Williams and Roggenbuck (1989) firstly find out that when tourists choose destination, instead of totally relying on combination of tourism resources and environment, they tend to have psychological preference for a certain tourism destination. This psychological preference can be accounted for by place attachment. Williams firstly comes up with the concept of place attachment and explains that place attachment is composed of place dependence and place identity. Place dependence is functional attachment between place and people and place identity is emotional attachment between place and people (Tang, 2007). Destination brand personality enables tourists from source market to grow place attachment to destination. Qu et al (2008) believe that destination positioning strategy lies in searching and determining endemic destination personality which can represent difference. This personality can help build an intrinsic and steady emotional connection destination and consumers' individual value and therefore convince consumers of destination visit. The key to destination brand success is to what degree that brand personality and target market have mutual influence (Guo, Tao & Feng, 2013).

Tourism destination brand personality theory has made several improvements based on tourism destination branding theory, which are as follows. First, tourism destination brand DNA should come from destination endemics, which should be demonstrated by branding. Second, branding strategy should establish emotional connections between tourists and destination, that is, place attachment. World Tourism Organization expert Morgan et al (2002) come up with tourism destination brand pyramid model based on various theories. They point out that when develop tourism destination

brand, SWOT analysis should be employed to identify the most important asset of destination (rational attribution), and then through consumer analysis, identify emotional connection consumers have with destination. Through competitor analysis, determine destination brand personality and positioning. And then determine destination brand DNA.

It can be concluded based on the above-mentioned literature review that attractiveness, representativeness and competitiveness can be considered from variegated heritage corridor placeality to refine heritage corridor tourism placeality factor. Representativeness mainly bases itself on OUV of heritage resources, including time and space continuum, value uniqueness and endemics. Attractiveness is based on push-pull effect, including lifestyle diversity, place attachment and travel convenience. Competitiveness relies on RVB and is represented by inimitability and irreplaceability. The set of heritage corridor placeality factor evaluating indices is shown in Diagram 1.

Diagram 1. Evaluating indices of Heritage Corridor Placeality factors
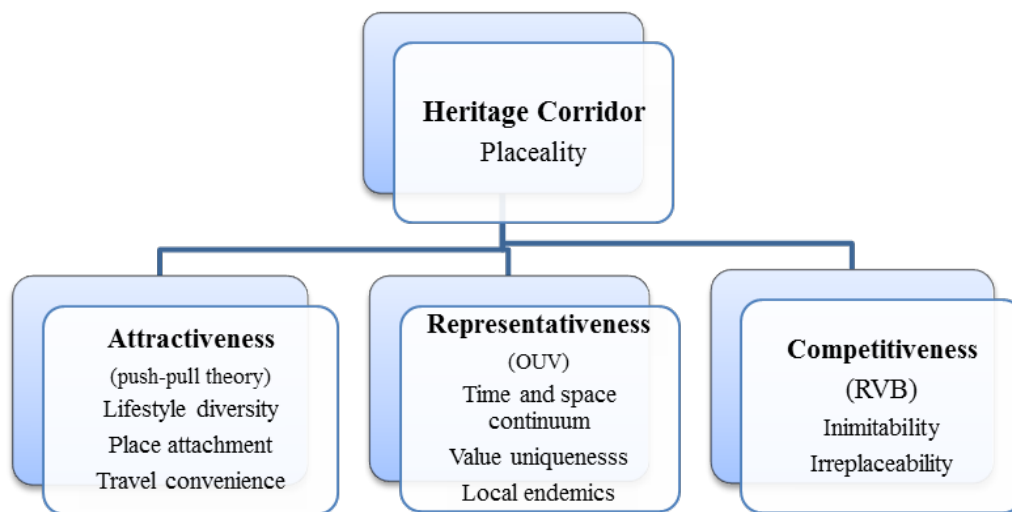


SELECTION AND ANALYSIS OF "CHANG'AN - TIANSHAN HERITAGE CORRIDOR" BRAND DNA

Based on precious research, this paper employed a methodology of expert grading. We invited domestic and foreign scholars，experts on heritage and tourism, as well as administrators of government and international tourism organization to involve in brand DNA selection and scoring. 15 questionnaires have been distributed to tourism experts, scholars from heritage tourism research institutes and tourism industry and 12 of them are valid. Based on hierarchy analysis method, this paper has invited experts to score genes of heritage corridor: attractiveness, representativeness, competitiveness and the first-tier indices. Combining content analysis method, this paper selects 20 key words which reflect the image of "the Silk Road: Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" and designs Likert scale to analyze on the basis on expert scoring. In this way, this paper selects and analyzes "the Silk Road: Chang'an –Tianshan Heritage Corridor" brand DNA.

*Application of Hierarchy Analysis Heritage Corridor Placeality Evaluating Index Weights*

Among various heritage corridor placeality factors, in order to know which factor can represent the placeality of heritage corridor (i.e. heritage tourism destination brand DNA) more than others, it is needed to calculate the weighted value of each factor and set priority in terms of their relative significance.

Weighted value refers to weighing values of heritage tourism destination brand DNA and quantizing them according to evaluating indicators, which tells the relative significance of each evaluating indicator. The weighted value is set between 0 and 1, and the sum of the weighted values of

evaluating indicators is 1. This paper regards heritage corridor placeality factors as evaluation object, evaluating and weighing values of each factor through application of AHP analytic method and evaluating indicators. Experts and scholars are invited to take part in the analysis. Based on studies of a large quantity of documents and theoretical research, the paper has built an index system of heritage tourism destination brand DNA, as is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Index system of heritage tourism destination brand DNA

| Aims | Rule Hierarchy | First-Tier Index |
|------|----------------|------------------|
| Heritage Tourism Destination Brand DNA | Attractiveness | Diverse Lifestyles |
| | | Place Attachment |
| | | Travel Convenience |
| | Representativeness | Time-Space Continuum |
| | | Value Uniqueness |
| | | Local Endemics |
| | Competitiveness | Inimitability |
| | | Irreplaceability |

According to the index system of heritage tourism destination brand DNA, the paper compared "Rule Hierarchy" with each indicator under "first-tier index", and every two indicators were compared. The relative significance was found after comparison. Based on weighted average of experts' grades and group strategy analysis, heritage corridor brand-influenced factors and relative significance of "first-tier index" have been obtained.

Table 2 Relative significance of Heritage Corridor Brand-Influenced factors

| Rule Hierarchy | Relative Significance | First-Tier Index | Relative Significance |
|----------------|----------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| Attractiveness | 0.336 | Diverse Lifestyles | 0.154 |
| | | Place Attachment | 0.134 |
| | | Travel Convenience | 0.105 |
| Representativeness | 0.354 | Value Uniqueness | 0.18 |
| | | Time-Space Continuum | 0.044 |
| | | Local Endemics | 0.125 |
| Competitiveness | 0.309 | Inimitability | 0.146 |
| | | Irreplaceability | 0.164 |

The research data have already told that the weighted value of each indicator under "Rule Hierarchy" was similar, which is important to heritage corridor brand building. Meanwhile, representativeness can mostly represent the brand DNA of heritage corridor. Attractiveness takes the second place and competitiveness the third (as is in Table1). It shows that during the refining of heritage corridor brand, based on balance among these three factors, more attention should be attached to the choice of representativeness in order to build brand image.

Analysis indicates that differences of lifestyle are more important than the other two indexes of attractiveness. Place attachment takes the second place, which shows that the refining of local culture and differentiated customs can make tourism brand and local image more attractive. Value uniqueness, time and space continuum and local endemics are three first-tier indexes casting influence on representativeness. Among the three indexes, value uniqueness has the most weighted value, which is in accordance to the principle of OUV. The refining of heritage corridor brand image should focus on heritage value to give expression to brand's uniqueness. As for competitiveness, irreplaceability and inimitability, whose weighted value difference is relatively small, are both important and both play an important role in showing brand's competitiveness.

Diagram 2. Analysis of relative significance of Heritage Corridor Brand-Influenced factors
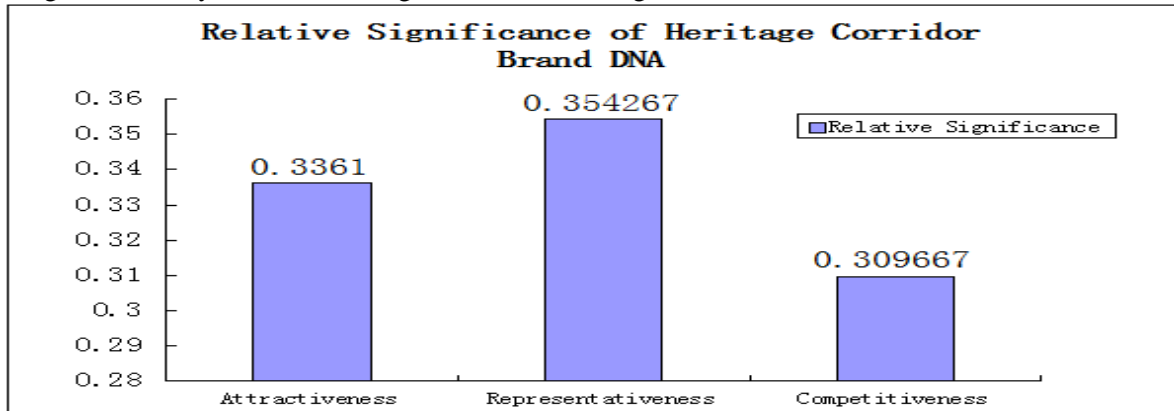


A comprehensive selection (showed in Diagram3) of heritage corridor brand's first-tier index indicates that value uniqueness and irreplaceability can mostly represent brand's image while time and space continuum and travel convenience are less important to heritage corridor brand. During the selection of heritage corridor brand DNA, more attention should be paid to heritage's unique value and its irreplaceability, reasonably refining brand DNA.

Diagram 3. Analysis of First-Tier Index's relative significance of Heritage Corridor Brand-Influenced factors
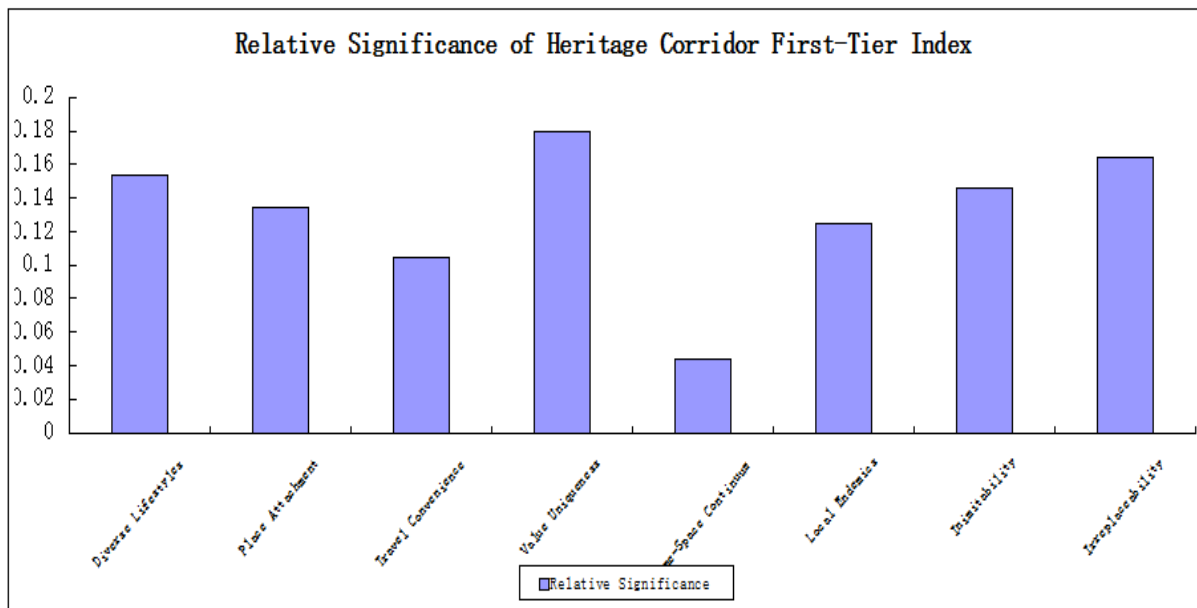


*Selection of "The Silk Road: Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" Brand DNA*

Employing a method of content analysis, this paper has conducted a massive retrieval of the-Silk-Road-related image, positioning, brand, symbol and history which publicized by World Tourism Organization and the Silk Road tourism website. We also analyzed official reports released by 2015 China Tourism Year of the Silk Road and planning on the Silk Road released by National Tourism Administration, etc. At the same time, we summarized natural and cultural features of five western provinces alongside "Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" and their home-and-abroad promotion, publicity, branding, symbol and slogan surrounding the Silk Road pushed forward by all-level governments and tourism companies. Based on rich data, this paper has retrieved 20 key words of relatively high frequency which can summarize and represent "Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" (see Table 3).

Table 3 Key words of "The Silk Road: Chang'an-Tianshan Heritage Corridor"

| Key Words | Definition |
|---|---|
| Camel | Primary transportation of the Silk Road; Camel—used as representative tourism image by World Tourism Organization, National Tourism Administration and various provinces and cities |
| Silk | Main exchange commodity of the ancient Silk Road; Silk—used as representative tourism image by World Tourism Organization, National Tourism Administration and various provinces and cities |
| Desert | One of the main terrains of the Silk Road; The Silk Road in the desert; Taklimakan Desert, Karakum Desert, Carville desert,  Tengger Desert |
| Business and Trade Dealings | Silk， spices, tea, ceramics, fresco, lacquer |
| Harmonious Friendship | To promote exchanges and cooperation among countries and nations alongside the Silk Road |
| Economic and Cultural Exchanges | An important channel to connect east and west economy as well as cultural exchanges |
| Cultural Corridor | The Yellow River Culture, Fuxi Culture, Dunhuang Culture, Painted-pottery Culture, Great Wall Culture, Bamboo Culture, Chinese Buddhism Culture and Tibetan Buddhism Culture, Xixia Culture |
| Path of Civilization | To promote east and west cultural integration and to create human civilization |
| New Experience | Alternative lifestyle along the Silk Road |
| Picture Scroll of Time and Space | Time: a long time from the Western Han Dynasty till now; Space: a wide range covering the Eurasian continent |
| Unique Lifestyle | Cave, tent, pasta, beef, mutton, dairy, horse-riding, camel, nomadic lifestyle, hospitality, singing and dancing masters, etc. |
| Folk Characteristics | Shadow play, folk songs, dialect, music and dance |
| Diverse Ethnic Culture | Minorities of Hui, Tibetan, Uygur, Kazak, Mongolia, etc. |
| Diverse Religious Culture | Buddhism, Christianity, Islam, etc. |
| Historical and Cultural Relics | Relics and remains, religious temples, museums, cemeteries, etc. |
| Historical Figure | Zhang Qian, Yang Guang, Xuan Zang, Zuo Zongtang, Marco Polo, Matteo Ricci |
| Plateau | One of the main terrains of the Silk Road; The Pamir Plateau,Iran Plateau, etc. |
| Gobi | One of the main terrains of the Silk Road |
| Grassland | One of the main terrains of the Silk Road; The grassland Silk Road, South Siberia, South Russian Steppe Grassland, Yili Grassland, etc. |
| Snowberg | One of the main terrains of the Silk Road; The Himalayas, Qilian Mountains, Kunlun Mountains, Tianshan, Taishan, AlKush, etc. |

Secondly, take the first-tier indices of heritage tourism destination brand DNA evaluating index system as criteria and the 20 keys words as targets to score and evaluate the image that these 20 key words represent "Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" and thus to determine the level these 20 key words represent the first-tier indices. We design the Likert scale with five rating scale，"1"represent totally not reflect,"2"represent not reflect,"3"represent not sure,"4"represent reflect,"5"represent absolutely reflect.We use the software of SPSS to analyze the score we get to determine the degree of the reflection of these 20 key words to the eight first-tier indices.

Diagram 4 Mean value distribution of keywords to First-Tier Index
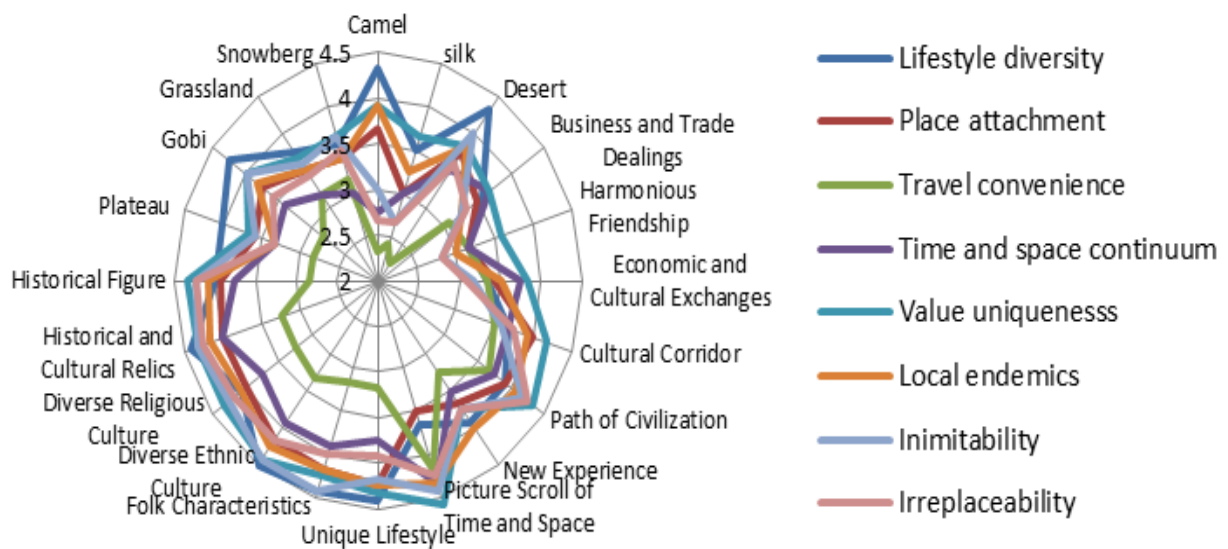


Diagram 5 Mean value distribution of keywords multiplied by index weight
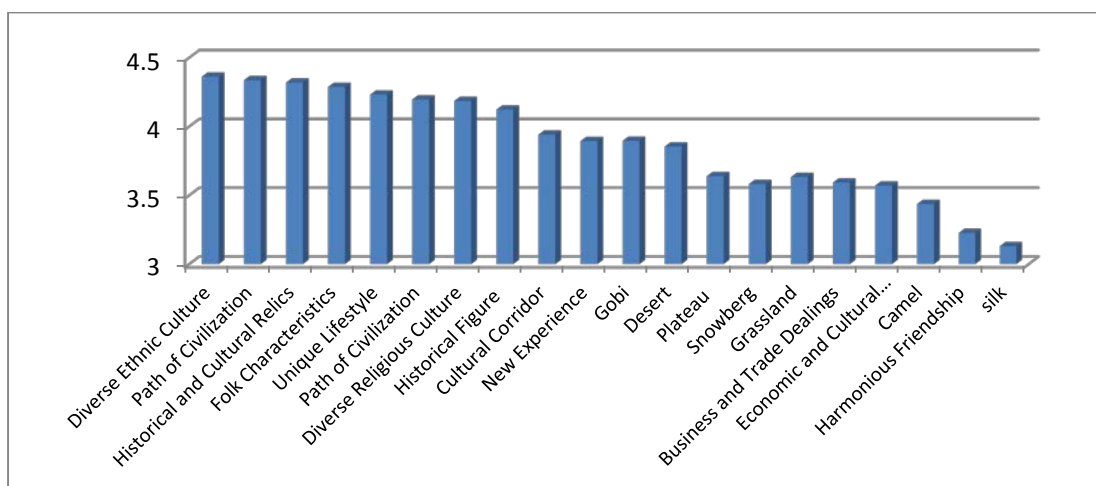


It can be seen from Diagram4 that mean values of keywords to travel convenience and time and space continuum are relatively low representativeness levels to value uniqueness and time and space continuum are high. This coincides with analysis of Diagram 3. Besides, mean values of "snowberg" "camel" and "silk" are relatively low, but representativeness levels to diverse lifestyles, local endemics and value uniqueness are relatively high.

It can be indicated from Diagram5 that representativeness level of each keyword to first-tier indices can be seen after mean value is multiplied by weight index. There are three classified groups on the whole: (1) keywords relying on cultural resources. Top 9 keywords all represent cultural resources. The scores of mean value multiplied by weight index are above 4, indicating they can represent first-tier indices; (2) keywords relying on natural resources. Their scores are between 3.5 and 4. As "3" refers to "not sure" and that means it goes in between, these natural resources related keywords can represent first-tier indices to a tiny degree; (3) keywords relying on traditions. The scores of this sort of keywords are between 3 and 3.5, referring to "not sure". This group shows the lowest representativeness level. The reason why "camel" and "silk" rank low is that "camel" and "silk" are mostly represented in brand image, which has surreal meaning and has become the symbol of the Silk Road.

BRANDING SUGGESTIONS FOR "THE SILK ROAD: CHANG'AN - TIANSHAN HERITAGE CORRIDOR''

*A Dig-out of Cultural Resources alongside Heritage Corridor to Promote Branding Competitiveness*

Massive cultural resources are widely distributed alongside "the Silk Road: Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor", such as world-class historical cultural relics like Emperor Qin's Terracotta Warriors and Mogao Grottoes, etc., diverse ethnic cultures like Buddhism, Islamic culture and minority cultures of Hui, Tibetan, Uygur, Kazak and Mongolia. All these cultural resources own their unique value and are endemic to become the most important DNA of "Chang'an – Tianshan Heritage Corridor" brand building. Therefore, in the process of brand building, it is essential to dig out all sorts of cultural resources, highlight endemics and make it an inimitable and irreplaceable factor of "Chang;an – Tianshan Heritage Corridor" branding.

*An Integration of resident lifestyles Alongside Heritage Corridor to Form Unique Branding Attractiveness*

Unlike other areas in China, the five western provinces alongside "the Silk Road: Chang'an – Tianshan Heritage Corridor" enjoy unique landscapes like plateau, gobi, grassland and dessert. The unique landscapes have developed unique attractiveness and in addition, local people have formed their own lifestyle, such as cave houses in Shaanxi, variegated Shaanxi pasta and personalities of honesty and hospitality, which has led to intrinsic attractiveness. Besides, the Hui, Uygur, Kazak and other ethnic minorities prosper in the five western provinces. Their bold and nomadic lifestyle like living in tents, eating beef and mutton, riding horses and camels has composed unique branding attractiveness. Therefore, it is significant to integrate diversified lifestyles of alongside local residents, refine their sharing characteristics and create unique branding attractiveness.

*Reasonable Preservation and Development of Heritage Resources, Highlighted Representativeness of Heritage Value*

Heritage corridor is special tourism destination with accumulated heritages. Heritage OUV can highlight its branding characteristics and plays a significant role in brand image building. "The Silk Road: Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" connects 33 heritages from China, Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan and becomes an important part of world cultural heritage. Heritage value intensively represents local culture and branding image. "The Silk Road: Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" should strengthen preservation and development of alongside heritages to make heritage value last, present and represent. Meanwhile, dig out heritage value and characteristics in depth, integrate time and space characteristics of heritage corridor, refine distinguished characteristics of "the Silk Road: Chang'an - Tianshan Heritage Corridor" compared with any other counterpart and form branding representativeness.

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# DESTINATION MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT

# FATIGUED, WILL TRAVEL: A CHINESE PERSPECTIVE ON DESTINATION RESTORATIVENESS

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## ABSTRACT

Leisure travel entails a necessary tourist-environmental exchange, understanding of which becomes critical when considering the role of tourism in providing rest and relaxation. The aim of this study was to understand the restorative functions of tourism destinations in the Chinese context. We attempted to confirm the cross-cultural stability of the perceived restorative qualities of vacation destinations and the relation to its nomological network including destination setting, overall sense of recovery, and satisfaction. The construct dimensionality was confirmed; however, contrary to the Western literature, the effects of destination restorativeness on recovery and satisfaction were more pronounced in urban than nature-based vacations.

Key Words: vacation experience, destination management, China, attention-restoration theory, cross-cultural validation

## INTRODUCTION

Leisure travel entails a necessary tourist-environmental exchange as landscape constitutes the primary and most enduring platform of the inter-relation between a tourist and a consumed place (Terkenli, 2004). This interaction becomes especially critical when one considers the role of tourism in providing rest and relaxation, which has always been one baseline motivation for leisure travel (Pearce, 2011). The scholarly inquiry into the ability of tourism environment to restore bodily functions and alleviate mental fatigue has recently gained momentum; however, few studies have attempted to deconstruct "the black box" of tourism experience and zoom in on the restorative potential of tourism environments. One such effort is Lehto's (2013) assessment of perceived restorative qualities of vacation destinations. Based on the attention-restoration theory (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989) and in the North American context, Lehto developed and validated the scale of perceived destination restorative quality (PDRQ), consisting of six dimensions: Compatibility, Extent, Mentally away, Physically away, Discord, and Fascination. Lehto's research attests to the important

role that tourism destinations can play in facilitating individuals' recovery from work-life stress.

While empirical research on the relationship between vacation and recovery has been limited, especially in regards to effectiveness, there has been even less evidence coming from the Chinese tourism literature. The mechanisms and specificities of how Chinese tourists consume a destination product in relation to their recovery needs are not well understood. Consistent with the Western perspective, relaxation is found to be a baseline travel motivation for Chinese consumers. Paradoxically, however, while there has been several decades of resource based tourism planning practices and academic attention, travelers consumptive experience has rarely been examined as a viable component of tourism planning. There is a significant disconnect between tourism planning activities and destination experience research. In this sense, research into how Chinese tourists interact with a destination environment and how destinations can facilitate this exchange to maximize the health benefit of a tourism product can be undoubtedly timely. Thus, the demand-oriented perspective of this study can complement the current Chinese resource-dominant approach towards planning.

Cultural factors however have long been recognized as an influential factor in assessing consumers' consumptive experiences, including tourism experiences. Terkeneli (2004) argues that the complex relationship between a tourist and a visited locale is place-, time-, and culture-specific, and, as such, requires contextual interpretations. Given a highly international locus of contemporary travel with emerging markets such as China leading tourism growth (WTO, 2013), it is necessary to explore how destination restorative functions in the context of such consumer markets. Against this backdrop, the global aim of this study was to understand the restorative functions of tourism destinations in the Chinese context. We specifically attempted to confirm the cross-cultural stability of the PDRQ construct, and investigated the construct in relation to its nomological network including destination setting, overall sense of recovery, and satisfaction.

There is an acute need for empirical evidences as to how do the Chinese tourists interact with a destination environment, and what their vacation experiences are like, and what vacation outcomes are. The significance of this research is multi-faceted. While empirical research such as this can enrich our understanding of the specificities of Chinese vacationers in general, this research will contribute to the conceptual understanding of the role of tourism in combating mental fatigue and improving wellness in the Chinese cultural context. Such an attempt can have a potential to expand the literature related to restoration and recovery through leisure travel to more than one single cultural setting. Secondly, the current Chinese literature landscape is filled largely with top-down tourism resource planning and policy discussions. These approaches are prescriptive in nature. The importance of consumer insight however remains uncontested. Therefore, empirical evidences based on Chinese travelers are a welcome practice. The very experiential nature of tourism product stresses the need for and the importance of understanding multiplicity of interactions between destination resource and consumption and diversity in meaning making as a result of cultures and social norms.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Chinese vacation style and demand*

Travel has increasingly become a way of life for the Chinese consumers as China rises to be one of the top tourism spenders (Cripps, 2013). The rapid pace of economic development and globalization has resulted in excessively intense and long working hours for the workforce (Xiao & Cooke, 2012). Sub-healthy conditions have been prevalent in China in recent years, concurrent with the rise of China's economy. Given that China also remains one of the countries with the fewest number of paid vacation days (ILO, 2014), the need for recuperation for the workforce is especially pronounced. As one such resource replenishing mechanism, vacation's restorative properties for the Chinese need to be understood within its unique cultural context. There is the notion that Chinese tourists tend to resort to a holiday-making style where they favor a larger number of destinations during one vacation and move at sometimes breakneck speed for sights and other activities. On the other hand, vacationing at a destination to relax, explore, and recreate are gaining momentum (Xu, 2007). This consumer tendency

represents a gradual shift from a sightseeing oriented holiday making to vacations geared more towards mental recuperation and restoration (Wang, Zhou, & Wang, 2007). For example, it was reported that Chinese domestic tourists were pursuing comfortable, joyful and relaxing experience, traveled with their friends and families, and prefer staying in hotels and resorts with peaceful environment, fresh air, wild life, and pure nature (Hou, Zhang & Bian, 2006; Huang & Huang, 2007; Wang, 2006).

*Cross-cultural validation issues*

Cross-cultural studies are essentially problematized by the emic-etic dichotomy (Fetvadjiev & van de Viver, 2015). While etic cross-cultural research attempts to define a presumably universal phenomenon across cultures, studies adopting the emic perspective seek to understand the phenomenon from within a culture. It has been argued, however, that the majority of social and psychological constructs have both universal and culture-specific components and thus a new approach, combining etic and emic perspectives are preferred (Cheung, van de Vijver, & Leung, 2011). In this sense, this study attempts to incorporate both views: although it certainly aims to verify the universality of the PDRQ construct, this research is also intended to be sensitive to potential culture contingent deviations from the expected in that they could indicate culturally driven specificities that need to be understood within its context.

*Fatigue, restoration, and vacation*

Work-induced fatigue is a normal phenomenon, expected to disappear after a period of rest (Bultmann et al., 2000). Repeated insufficient recovery from work-related fatigue, however, can start a vicious cycle when extra effort becomes required to complete similar work tasks and prevent performance breakdown (Jansen, Kant, & den Brandt, 2002). When accumulated, fatigue negatively affects individual work performance and well-being. For instance, prolonged fatigue has been associated with increased sickness absence from work (e.g. Akerstedt et al., 2007) and deteriorated physical health (de Bloom et al., 2009). Then, recovery, understood as the period of time necessary for an individual to return to a normal level of functioning (Craigs & Copper, 1992), plays a critical role in the relationship between work-related characteristics and individual well-being (Sonnentag & Geurtz, 2009).

Recovery could occur in a variety of settings from lunch breaks at work to extended vacations far away from home (Sonnentag & Geurtz, 2009). However, prolonged time away from work-related demands offers a more powerful opportunity for restoration, constituting a so-called macro-recovery (Sluiter et al., 2000). This type of restoration generally entails an extended period of time spent in different and often relaxing environments that help individuals distance themselves from work routine. It also implies active involvement in valued non-work activities that are shared with people of one's choice (e.g. family, friends) (De Bloom et al., 2009). Therefore, vacations represent the key source of recuperation from fatigue associated with work and everyday life.

*Restorative environmental and its characteristics*

Restoration, defined as "the renewal or recovery of resources or capacities that have become depleted in meeting the demands of everyday life" (Hartig, 2011, p.41), are the baseline characteristics of environments that have the capacity to facilitate restoration. One theory that explains the mechanism of restorative environments is attention restoration theory (ART) (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989) that is based on James' concept of "voluntary attention." The theory develops the notion of directed attention to signify the attention that necessitates voluntary control. Like other intense metal effort, extended directed attention is susceptible to fatigue that implies decreased cognitive functions, inclination for impulsion, and irritability.

According to ART, the environments that tend to facilitate the reduction in directed attention fatigue are restorative. To be conducive to directed attention recovery, environments must entail four essential qualities. First, they must transcend *fascination* because it implies the use of involuntary rather than directed attention. Fascination may be derived from either charged emotional engagement with the

environment (hard fascination) or the opportunities for quite reflections. Another quality of restorative environments is the ability to promote a sense of *being away*. This component conveys the important of novelty in restoration and allows for switches the direction of one's gaze as well as deeper reflection. Restorative environments must also possess *extent* so that the environment has enough to see and to experience in order to facilitate restoration and thus fascination. Finally, there should be *compatibility* between the environment and individual purposes and predispositions.

Based on ART but in the tourism context, Lehto (2013) developed a measure to assess the destination restorative qualities (PDRQ) as perceived by tourists. Overall, she confirmed the four dimensions; however, Kaplan's *being away* dimension was separated in two dimensions: *being away mentally* and *being away physically*. An additional factor of *discord,* referring to the distractions and confusion that a destination imposes on vacationers, was also salient. Thus, six-, rather than four-dimensional conceptualization of destination restoration could be indicative of uniqueness of tourism environment in terms of restoring tourists' mental functioning.

*Hypotheses development*

The discussion above allows us to develop a set of hypotheses to verify nomological validity of PDRQ in the Chinese context as well as to investigate the potential specificities of the behavior of Chinese travelers. Unlike routine environment, vacation allows for so-called meta-recovery. As essential characteristics of restorative environments, PDRQ are viewed to be the source of recovery derived from a vacation experience (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989; Lehto, 2013), and thus:

H1: PDRQ will positively influence the sense of overall recovery.

Although people travel for a multitude of reasons, rest and relaxation remains at the baseline of travel motivations (Pierce, 2011). Environments that are perceive to possess a greater restorative potential become important contributors to overall satisfaction with vacation experience (de Bloom et al., 2010; Chen, Petrick, & Shahvali, 2014; Lehto, 2013) .We therefore hypothesize:

H2: PDRQ will positively influence overall satisfaction with vacation experience.

Existing research shows that the time off work while traveling positively affects work-related burnout (Etzion, 2003; Westman & Eden, 1997), emotional exhaustion, work productivity (Kuhnel & Sonnetag, 2011), health (e.g. Eden, 1990; Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009), energy level, life satisfaction (de Bloom et al., 2010), and overall well-being (e.g. Chen et al., 2013; Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Nawijn et al., 2010). In this context, the recovery itself becomes a foundation for vacation satisfaction. We thus propose:

H3: The sense of overall recovery will positively affect overall vacation satisfaction.

The above discussion regarding the function of PDRQ as a source of recovery on vacation suggests a mediating role of the sense of overall recovery on the relationship between PDRQ and vacation satisfaction. Thus, it is hypothesized:

H4: Overall recovery will mediate the relationship between perceived restorative qualities of destinations and overall satisfaction.

Finally, one consistent finding in the environmental psychology literature is that natural settings tend to yield higher degree of restoration than urban landscapes (e.g. Hartig, 1993; Hartig, Kaiser, & Bowler, 1997) and are often preferred over built environments (Staats, Kieviet, & Hartig, 2003). Lehto (2013) and Kirillova et al. (2014) reported similar findings in the context of tourism destinations. This phenomenon is commonly explained in relation to the evolutionary theory of habitat selection postulating that humans prefer environments that contain potential   functional implication for a perceiver (van den Berg, Koole, & van der Wulp, 2003). In this line of thought, natural environments

are more conducive to human's biological survival than urban spaces and thus convey a higher restorative value. Therefore, the last hypothesis is as follows:

H5: The positive relationship among the constructs will be stronger for nature-based destinations.

Figure 1. The conceptual model of the study
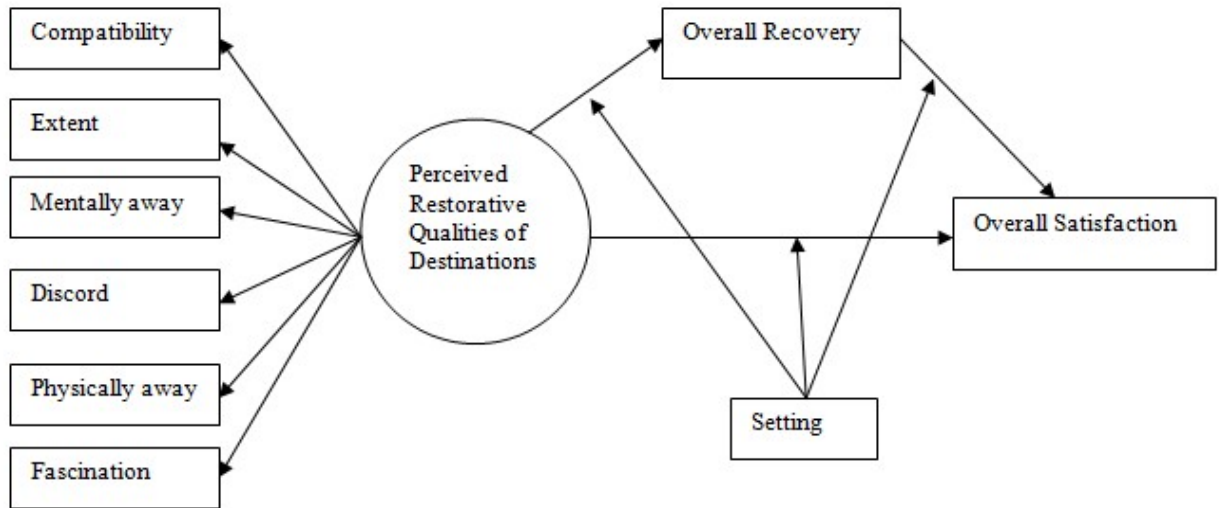


METHOD

A cross-sectional survey was utilized as a research instrument in this study. The questionnaire was concerned with respondents' most recent vacation experience and consisted of four parts, worded in the English language. The first section contained trip-related questions that asked for the information regarding the most recent vacation experience such as trip duration and a vacation setting (nature-based vs. urban). To assess restorative qualities of vacation destinations, Lehto's (2013) Perceived Destination Restorative Qualities (PDRQ) scale was utilized in the second part of the questionnaire. The response continuum consisted of seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*not true at all*) to 7 (*extremely true*). The third part of the questionnaire was concerned with overall sense of recovery from the vacation of interest ("After the vacation, I feel recharged") and overall vacation satisfaction ("Overall, I had a great time at the destination I visited"), all measuring the level of agreement on a 7-point Likert scale. Finally, the questionnaire concluded with socio-demographic questions. The questionnaire was first translated from English into Chinese by the third author and then back translated into English by the first author.

The sampling frame for this research consisted of Chinese individuals residing in the mainland China, who are 18 years and older, and who had recently returned from a vacation trip. Two separate samples were collected for this study: one calibration sample of 206 responses and one validation sample of 210. Both samples were collected using a snowballing technique such as the survey link was administered to faculty, students, and stuff at a major university in Zhejiang province of China, and the respondents were asked to fill out one survey and also invite friends to participate. Efforts were exerted to include individuals with varying age groups and various vacation destinations. Thus, using the first sample of 206 responses, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed to verify that the factor structure also holds in the Chinese context. The analysis was followed by a latent variable path model with multiple group comparison performed on the second sample to test the hypotheses related to the nomological validity of PRDQ, as shown in Figure 1. Due to the sample size, the present study treated the summated mean scores of the six factors of PDRQ as observed variables in the path model.

RESULTS

Among 206 respondents of the first sample, 52.4% were female, 37.9% worked in the manufacturing sector while the occupation of 18% was related to sales and of 17%  - to professional occupations such as university teachers and researchers. The majority of the participants had a bachelor (43.2%) or an associate degree (32.5%). The respondents' age ranged from 18 to 62 years old, with the average age of 30 years old. Additionally, about a half of the respondents visited an urban local while the rest vacationed in a nature-based destination. The average trip duration was 4.2 nights. Among 210 respondents in the second sample, 28.6% were female, the majority worked in the manufacturing sector (56.2%), followed by military employment (13.8%), held an associate (51.4%) or a bachelor degree (23.8%). The average age of respondents was 27.8 years old, although it ranged from 18 to 67 years of age. Forty-five percent of the respondents visited a nature-based destination while the rest vacationed in an urban area. On average, participants stayed 2.81 nights at a vacation destination.

A confirmatory factor analysis conducted on the first sample consisting of 206 respondents indicated an acceptable fit ($X^2$= 732.72, p<.001; normed $X^2$=1.93; TLI = .907; CFI=.915; RMSEA=.067). Standardized loadings for all 30 items were significant (p< .001) and ranged from |.378| to |.957|. Cronbach alphas for the six factors exceeded a recommended cut-off point of .6, attesting to acceptable internal consistency (Mueller, 2004). Convergent validity was confirmed as composite reliability ranged from .765 to .905 (Bagozzi &Yi, 1988) and average variance extracted (AVE) was around or greater than .5 (Hair et al., 2005). Discriminant validity, assessed by the comparison of squared correlations among the pairs of the six dimensions and their corresponding AVE, was compromised for Compatibility. Alternative models with Compatibility merged with Fascination and Extent were thus estimated, and they exhibited significantly worse fit than the original model, which confirms discriminant validity of the construct (Kenny, 2012). Result of path model using the second sample provided empirical support for H1-3, as illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Structural Results of the Proposed Model ($X^2$=40.54, p<.001; normed $X^2$=2.83; TLI =.933; CFI=.966; RMSEA=.095)
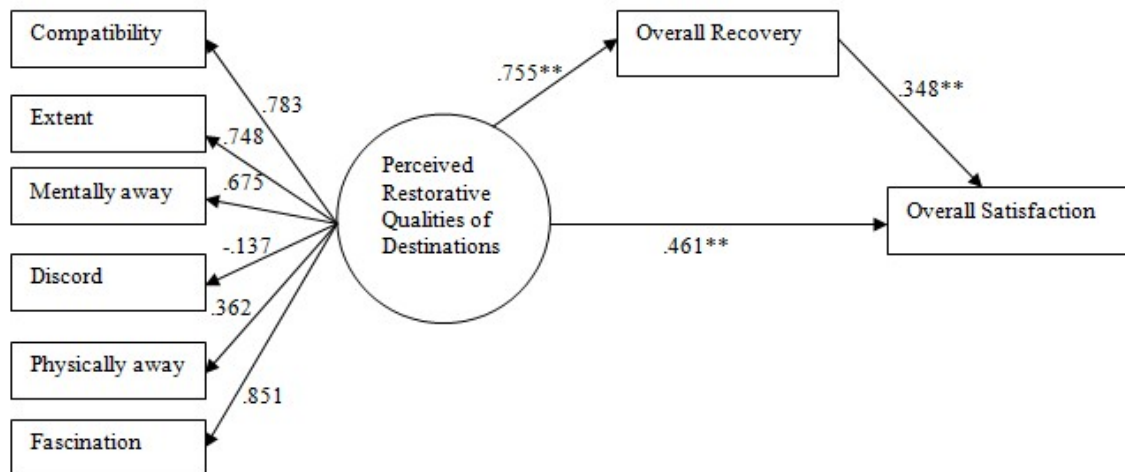


To test a mediating effect of overall recovery, a constrained model where the path from Overall recovery to Overall satisfaction is set to 0 was estimated and compared to the original unrestrained model. As a result, the path from PDRQ to Overall satisfaction became less significant, which, coupled with the significant $X^2$ difference test ($\Delta X^2$=16.96, $\Delta$df=1, p<.001), attests to the partially mediating role of overall recovery in the relationship between PDQR and overall satisfaction, supporting H4. Finally, multiple group comparison analysis showed that three paths were significantly different between the settings. The effects of PDRQ on overall sense of recovery (z=2.037, p<.001) and overall

satisfaction ($z$=1.691, p<.05) were more pronounced in urban destinations, which is contrary to the relationship proposed in H5. Of note, the dimension Mentally away ($z$=3.372, p<.001) was also more salient in PDRQ as related to urban destinations. Overall, in the Chinese context, perceived restorative qualities of urban vacation destinations appear to provide for a better sense of overall recovery and satisfaction than those of nature- based destinations.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Overall, this research confirmed the stability of the PDRQ construct in the case of Chinese tourists. The results suggest that the six dimensions of restorative vacation environments as perceived by the Chinese corroborate with the restorative dimensions proposed and empirically verified in the Western context (Kaplan & Kaplan, 1989; Lehto, 2013). As such, PDRQ were shown to serve as a mechanism behind the potential of vacations to restore and satisfy Chinese tourists. Although PDRQ directly contribute to tourists' satisfaction, the mediating role of recovery   suggests that tourists are especially satisfied when they feel recovered from work-related fatigue. Thus, Chinese tourists' vacation satisfaction can be enhanced by managing the sense of overall recovery as perceived by tourists. PDRQ therefore provide a tool that can be utilized in designing and managing restorative as well as satisfying experience for Chinese tourists. In this sense, the importance of restoration as embedded in vacation travel appears   to be of universal importance regardless tourists' cultural background.

A remarkable finding of this research is that urban destinations as perceived by the Chinese appear to be better equipped in terms of their restorative qualities to deliver relaxing and satisfying tourism experiences. This result peculiarly contradicts Western scholarly literature that provided consistent evidence in support of a superior position of natural environments to provide restoration. Upon a closer examination of the results, it is evident that Chinese tourists perceive urban destinations as having a greater potential to facilitate a sense of being mentally away than nature destination, hinting on the critical role of this PDRQ dimension as a source of perceived recovery.

This unexpected result must be also understood in relation to Chinese cultural values. According to Hofstede's (1980) survey, Chinese culture is traditionally classified as high in power distance, low in individualism, and medium in masculinity and uncertainty avoidance. This implies that Chinese tourists readily accept unequal power relationship, prefer the comfort of familiarity rather than adventure seeking, and place a value on interpersonal relationship and social orientations. In relation to the latter, the teachings of Confucius as embedded in Chinese culture also mandate the Chinese to find their identities with reference to others and adopt group opinions (Mok & DeFranco, 2000). Empirical evidence exists to support the social orientation of Chinese consumers, for example, during a shopping experience where social environment as encompassing other shoppers was reported to enhance   the shopping experience of Chinese consumer (Davis, 2013). Based on this, urban destinations most certainly present more opportunities to observe other people who constitute the social context for a satisfying tourism experience. Additionally, being in a member of a group, or one of many, could provide the basic level of comfort for Chinese tourists, releasing the strain from one's directed attention and thus allowing for an enhanced sense of recovery.

Another important aspect of Confucianism is the virtue with regard to one's perseverance in working hard to acquire skills and new knowledge. In other words, a person should treat every day as an opportunity to improve oneself though learning something new. In this sense, urban environments could better cater to the Chinese as these destinations imply a greater variety of learning opportunities in a form of museums, historical monuments, local cuisines, and other cultural aspects worthy of learning from the perspective of Chinese tourists, especially for well- educated tourists with travel motivations of higher order (Lu, 2014). Nature-based environments, on the other hand, allow for more relaxing rather than learning opportunities and thus could be viewed as less satisfying. For example, Fu, Lehto, and Cai (2012) found that while American tourists tended to appreciate pure and untouched natural landscapes, Chinese tourists appeared "to find greater interest in the peripheral and contextual elements of natural scenery, specifically the cultural and historical touches on nature" (p. 327). Since pure relaxation without the opportunity for learning as implied in a typical nature-based destination

could be viewed as an inefficient use of one's time, natural landscapes may be less influential in contributing to the sense of overall recovery than urban destinations.

Another explanation for the finding that PDRQ of urban destinations exert a greater influence of the sense of overall recovery and satisfaction could be rooted in what it means to be mentally away for the Chinese. Encompassing the novelty component, "mentally away" is conventionally understood as a "sense of distance from some aspects of life that are ordinarily present such as obligations, routines, purposes, and thoughts" (Lehto, 2013, p. 328). This could imply a different setting but could also involve activities in which tourists do not normally participate at home. Given their relational orientation, it is plausible to speculate that Chinese tourists prefer activities that involve other people and that are simultaneously capable of distancing the tourists from their home routine. Then concerts, shows, restaurant visits, and similar activities that include other people as a background would be perceived as restorative and satisfying (Yang, 2002). Urban environments therefore become the setting in which these activities and experiences are more likely to be staged. Even more, it was found that the subjective interpretation of leisure activities rather than activities themselves (Ragsdale et al., 2011; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007) and the amount of pleasure derived from them play a role in the recovery process (de Bloom, Geurts, & Kompier, 2012). Because pleasurable and meaningful activities as conceived by Chinese tourists are more likely to take place in built environments, it could be expected that the Chinese perceive experiences at urban destinations as better able to provide for recovery and satisfaction.

Finally, the development of nature-based destinations is a fairly recent phenomenon in Chinese tourism market (Yang, 2007). Additionally, by their very essence, many natural destinations in China and other countries possess a minimum of facilities and infrastructure (Yang, 2007; Xia, 2011). Given Chinese cultural orientation on uncertainty avoidance, natural environments may be perceived as requiring much effort to keep a tourist comfortable, which may evoke further fatigue and thus inhibit a sense of recovery, especially in the cases when Chinese tourists emphasize the importance of comfortability of vacations destinations (Huang & Huang, 2007; Guo et al., 2014). In the case of urban destinations, a tourist does not feel the need to exert efforts to surround oneself with comfort as it is already built in urban infrastructure. In this scenario, a vacation taking place at an urban destination, especially if the primary motivation for the trip is to recuperate, would be perceived as less stressful, more restorative and thus satisfying.

In conclusion, the current research confirmed the applicability of the PDRQ construct to the Chinese context while simultaneously highlighting specificities of a Chinese national character. This attests to a potentially important role of culture-specific interpretations of vacation and activities as a conduit of recovery and satisfaction. These insights offer practical implications on how to effectively design and market restorative and satisfying vacation experiences to Chinese travelers.

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# INTERNATIONAL AND DOMESTIC VISITORS AT VIETNAM'S HA LONG BAY

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## ABSTRACT

Although considerable work has been done on destination image as a whole, far less work has investigated the differences in destination image assessments for domestic versus international visitors in developing countries. This study offers findings that illustrate the differences in perception of destination image, satisfaction attributes, and loyalty perceptions among domestic and international visitors to Ha Long Bay, a UNESCO World Heritage Site in Vietnam. The results suggest that international visitors to the Ha Long Bay region have higher standards and more critical in their evaluation of destination image than domestic visitors when judging this destination. This finding implies that destination managers of Ha Long Bay need to improve current standards of service.

Key words: natural heritage, satisfaction, destination image, international, domestic visitors

## INTRODUCTION

Although authentication of a site as a UNESCO World Heritage Sites (WHS) aims to protect its historical and natural assets, many countries have employed the World Heritage designation as a marketing tool to attract foreign tourists, primarily because of the social, cultural and economic wealth tourism generates. The tourism field now widely acknowledge that protected areas are subject to increases in visitation, often to the detriment of both the site and the visitor experience (Buckley, 2004). A topic of great concern to both tourism academia and the tourism industry is destination image and tourists' satisfaction at the destination. This area of research has become an important issue in relation to the management and marketing of WHSs because of the great challenges "that would confront these sites worldwide as a consequence of the explosion of mass tourism" (Bandarin & Van Oers, (2012) p. 5). Destination image is influenced by destination satisfaction attributes, which are related to the actual tourism products and sites and which can be grouped into two subcategories—destination atmospherics and destination service (Etchner & Ritchie, 1993). Much past destination satisfaction research is limited to homogeneous sample populations and sample destinations (Eusébio & Vieira, 2013), neglecting any cross-cultural differences in tourists' perceived satisfaction levels with their holiday experiences, especially at a destination in developing world.

Located in Quang Ninh province in northeast Vietnam, Ha Long Bay extends over 1,500 km$^2$. The UNESCO World Heritage covers an area of 434 km$^2$, including 788 limestone islands. Ha Long Bay was the first of two natural properties established among the total of eight World Heritage properties in Vietnam. Ha Long Bay was first inscribed on the World Heritage List in 1994 under the criterion of landscape value, and in 2000 the inscription was extended to include the criterion of geology and geomorphology. Even though tourism in Ha Long began in the early 1990s, very little research has assessed this destination. Only recently have social researchers initiated discussions of tourism development with local people in Ha Long to obtain residents' perceptions (Pham, 2012), discern quality of life for locals (Mai, Rahtz, & Shultz, 2013), investigate sustainable tourism development (Galla, 2002), or gain an idea of establishment of an eco-museum for heritage interpretation (Lloyd & Morgan, 2008). Surprisingly, to date no single research study has examined tourists' satisfaction with the destination attributes of Ha Long Bay. Therefore, this research will contribute greatly to advancing the understanding of the destination image and tourist satisfaction with one of the most important WHSs of Vietnam. Moreover, as environmental factors influence tourists' image of the destination and because of its status as one of the most significant tourist destinations in Vietnam, Ha Long Bay demands more research about tourism development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Destination image is an individual's mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings, and overall perception of a particular destination (Crompton, 1979). Destination image comprises both affective and cognitive components. Affective image components reflect the tourist's feelings about a destination (Lin, Morais, Kerstetter, & Hou, 2007), while the cognitive components center on the tangible aspects of the destination and include beliefs and knowledge about the destination (Pike & Ryan, 2004). While a cognitive approach focuses on evaluation of the functional attributes of the destination, the cognitive image nevertheless encompasses some of the destination attributes that satisfy tourist needs.

Satisfaction refers to an individual's cognitive–affective state derived from a tourist experience in a destination (San Martín & Del Bosque, 2008). The majority of definitions of satisfaction reported in the literature emphasize that satisfaction results from a psychological process that comprises a set of variables and their interaction mechanisms, with satisfaction being the final stage of this process (Millán & Esteban, (2004). Previous studies have assessed tourist satisfaction with destinations from a variety of perspectives and theories. Some researchers assessing tourist satisfaction have adopted the perceived performance model (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). According to this model, tourist satisfaction or dissatisfaction is a function of the actual performance of the products consumed. As this approach has been shown to have higher explanatory power (Eusebio & Vieira, 2013; Hui, Wan, & Ho, 2007), this study uses the performance-only approach to investigate visitor satisfaction with the destination of Ha Long Bay.

Several researchers have also called for further studies on the link between satisfaction and destination loyalty (Chi & Qu, 2008; Hui, Wan, & Ho, 2007). This need for further research is in line with the growing number of publications analyzing customer loyalty regarding tourism products, destinations, or leisure recreation activities (Kozak, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Bosque & Martín, 2008; Chen & Chen, 2010; Eusebio & Vieira, 2013). Studies taking the behavioral approach to measure destination loyalty have frequently relied on the "repeat visitation" indicator (Alegre & Cladera, 2006; Petrick, 2004). The present study uses the behavioral approach to measure destination loyalty cross international and domestic visitors to Ha Long Bay.

Tourists from different countries have shown evidence of differences in patterns of destination behavior such as trip arrangement, recreation and shopping activities, and expenditures. Previous studies have found differences between domestic and international travelers attributable to previous travel experience, distance traveled, spatial change, and length of holiday (Yuksel, 2004). In particular, research has demonstrated that the distance traveled influences tourist behavior and revealed that domestic visitors were more active and less hedonistic than their international counterparts, who

tended toward passive/hedonistic behavior (Carr, 2002). Further, the absence of language barriers enables domestic visitors to become involved with the host population and gain local information, and the relative familiarity of their vacation surroundings compared to the experience of foreign holiday makers (Bonn, Joseph, & Dai, 2005) as well as the experience change may allow them to prolong their holiday (Yuksel, 2004). However, attitudinal loyalty—driven by attachment, familiarity, and perceived value—remain consistent for both international and domestic tourists (McDowall & Ma, 2010).

Grounded in the theoretical framework of tourism destination image and satisfaction, this research examines visitors' perceptions of the World Heritage Site of Ha Long Bay and considers the disparities between international and domestic tourists' perceptions of the destination. The research questions that guide the present study are (1) How the image of Ha Long Bay has been perceived? (2) What attributes of the destination satisfy visitors? and (3) To what extent does domestic visitors' experience of Ha Long Bay differ from that of their international counterparts?

METHODOLOGY

Through structured questions that collected attitudinal and socio-demographic data, tourists were surveyed to identify their evaluation of destination image and service attributes in Ha Long. Since the purpose was to learn about attitudes toward various attributes, the survey took a multi-attribute approach. Attributes were selected from the destination image literature, reports about Ha Long tourism, and a series of consultations with experts from the Vietnam National Administration of Tourism (VNAT) and the European Union's Environmentally and Socially Responsible Tourism Capacity Development Programme (ESRT).

A four-page questionnaire was developed and translated into English. The first section sought information about visitors' travel arrangements. Items addressed the mode of organization, length of stay, times the respondent had visited the destination, travel partners, purpose of the trip, and sources of information. The second section examined visitors' arrangements of travel services such as transportation, accommodation, and attractions, as well as tour programs and spending patterns. The next section examined visitors' satisfaction with 12 key areas of service at the destination (nature and landscape, atmosphere, climate, accommodation, dining, transportation, tourist information, pricing, cultural offerings, children's facilities, shopping, and handicrafts), which were formatted in six-point Likert scales ranging from the least to the most satisfied level (1 = very poor, 6 = very good). In the next section the respondents were required to assess the image of Ha Long on seven six-point semantic scales with anchors of simple/diversified, artificial/authentic, unsympathetic/friendly, old/young, traditional/modern, boring/lively, and low-end/exclusive. The following section comprised three questions measuring visitors' overall satisfaction, their intention to recommend the destination, and their likelihood to return using six-point Likert scales (1 = very little, 6 = very much). The final section requested demographic and visit-related information about the visitor, including nationality, age, gender, occupation, and income. The survey was conducted in from March to August 2014. ESRT provided training and support for data collection of the survey. At the destination, the team conducted the survey at tourist attractions such as Bai Chay Wharf and at major hotels and restaurants in town. Self- administered questionnaires were used to collect information from domestic visitors and international visitors who understand English. A total of 650 complete questionnaires were collected and ready for analysis with SPSS20.

FINDINGS

*Visitor Profiles, Travel Purpose, and Arrangement*

The majority of the domestic visitors were male (56.3%) while the ratio of male/female international visitor was more balanced. The mean age for international visitors was 43.2 years, which is higher than the average age of domestic visitor (38.2 years). The majority of international visitors were 45–64 years (42.1%). The age group between 24 and 44 accounted for 30.6% of international visitors, while 65.5% of domestic visitors belonged to this age group. International visitors were primarily from East

Asia (25.6%), Europe (38%), and North America (15%). In terms of occupation, the largest groups of international visitors were employed (31.6%) and retired (17%), while the largest groups of domestic visitors were civil servants (31.8%) and self-employed (29.9%). Table 1 shows the visitor profiles. Most international visitors were first-time visitors to Ha Long (92.5%) and were package tourists (69.3%), with the remainder (27.9%) on non-organized tours. Most international visitors (93%) were traveling for leisure and vacation. Of the domestic visitors, the majority (67.8%) were repeat visitors, with the remainder (33.2%) being first-time visitors. Similar to international visitors, the majority of Vietnamese visitors had traveled to Ha Long for leisure (90.2%). However, the domestic tourists stayed longer at the destination for an average length of 1.79 nights compared to 1.31 nights for international visitors.

*Destination Image, Satisfaction, and Loyalty*

An exploratory factor analysis was performed on attributes of destination image and service to investigate tourists' satisfaction with their vacation in Ha Long Bay. Bartlett's test of sphericity (with a value of 1241.65, $p < .001$) and a calculated Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic of 0.78 indicated that the data were suitable for factor analysis. Principal component and varimax rotation procedures were used to identify orthogonal factor dimensions. Principal component factors with eigenvalues of 1.0 or greater were rotated by the varimax analysis. Variables with loadings equal to or greater than 0.50 were included in a given factor to decrease the probability of misclassification. A total of 21 items from the factor analysis resulted in five factor groupings and explained 64.9% of the variance. Most factor loadings were greater than 0.50, indicating good correlations between the items and the factor groupings to which they belonged. Coefficients from the Cronbach's alpha test ranged from 0.76 to 0.87, indicating that variables were internally consistent. All of the final commonalities were higher than 0.50, indicating strong correlations between the indicators and the associated factors. The results of the factor analysis are presented in Table 1.

The factors' labels are *destination image*, *augmented attributes*, *core attributes*, *basic attributes*, and *destination loyalty*. *Destination image* explained 29.68% of the variance in the model and encompassed seven semantic scales regarding the visitors' perception of the destination. *Augmented attributes* explained 13.02 % of the variance in the model and was composed of six statements regarding visitor satisfaction with shopping/handicrafts, facilities for children, availability of tourist information, transportation, climate, and cultural offerings at the destination. *Core attributes* refer to tourist satisfaction with natural landscape and atmosphere of Ha Long Bay, and explained 8.93% of the variance in the model. *Basic attributes* reflect the level of satisfaction with accommodation and dining facilities as well as price, and explained 7.83% of the variance. *Destination loyalty* refers to three statements indicating tourists' overall level of satisfaction, intention to recommend the destination, and likelihood of coming back in the future, and explained 5.45% of the total variance. The mean scores of the factor items showed that the most satisfactory item was the *core attributes* of the destination (4.85), whereas the least satisfactory item was the *augmented attributes* (3.29). *Destination loyalty*—the overall satisfaction and likelihood to recommend the destination and come back—is relatively high (4.95).

In the next step of analysis, one-way ANOVA was employed to identify differences between domestic and international visitors. The five elements of *destination image, core, basic,* and *augmented attributes* and *destination loyalty* contained 21 measures of assessment. The area that appeared to have no significant difference was *basic attributes*. Comparison of mean scores suggested that these two visitor groups did not differ significantly in their level of satisfaction with accommodation, dining, and price, as the mean scores were similar between the two groups (Table 2). On the remaining four areas, the analysis revealed significant differences between the mean scores of international and domestic visitors.

Table 1. Factor analysis

| | | Eigen value | % of variance | Reliability | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Destination image* | | **6.23** | **29.68** | **0.80** | **4.17** |
| Lively/Boring | 0.77 | | | | |
| Old/Young | 0.70 | | | | |
| Unsympathetic/Friendly | 0.70 | | | | |
| Authentic/Artificial | 0.69 | | | | |
| Modern/Traditional | 0.65 | | | | |
| Exclusive/Low-end | 0.63 | | | | |
| Diversified/Simple | 0.63 | | | | |
| *Augmented attributes* | | **2.73** | **13.02** | **0.87** | **3.29** |
| Shopping/handicrafts | 0.87 | | | | |
| Children's facilities | 0.81 | | | | |
| Tourist information | 0.59 | | | | |
| Climate, weather | 0.59 | | | | |
| Transport | 0.58 | | | | |
| Cultural offerings | 0.58 | | | | |
| *Core attributes* | | **1.87** | **8.93** | **0.76** | **4.85** |
| Nature, landscape | 0.81 | | | | |
| Atmosphere | 0.78 | | | | |
| *Basic attributes* | | **1.64** | **7.83** | **0.83** | **4.15** |
| Dining | 0.88 | | | | |
| Accommodation | 0.78 | | | | |
| Value for money | 0.53 | | | | |
| *Destination loyalty* | **1.14** | **5.45** | **0.77** | **4.95** | |
| Overall evaluation of the stay | 0.83 | | | | |
| Recommendation to other people | 0.79 | | | | |
| Come back to the destination | 0.75 | | | | |

Domestic and international visitors evaluated *destination image* significantly differently. Interestingly, domestic visitors perceived Ha Long as a modern destination, whereas the international visitors positioned the city closer to the traditional end of the modern/traditional continuum. Similarly, the city appeared to be more young and lively to Vietnamese. While both groups of visitors perceived Ha Long as a simple rather than diversified destination, domestic tourists' perception of simplicity was stronger.

Another area on which domestic visitors differed from international visitors was their evaluation of *augmented attributes*. Notably, the mean scores of domestic visitors on all six items of this scale were significantly higher than the scores of international tourists. International visitors were most critical of facilities for children (2.01) and shopping for handicrafts (2.82), where the average scores were significantly lower than those for domestic visitors. International visitors also expressed low satisfaction with climate (3.73), tourist information (3.75) and cultural offerings (3.44). This result raises a question concerning the development of the augmented services, which mainly satisfied the demand of the domestic market, and indicates that international visitors expect different types of additional services, which will require attention to improve.

International visitors were also less satisfied with *core attributes* of the destination, including the landscape and the atmosphere. This may suggest that the site management of Ha Long Bay has to take greater care to protect the landscape and atmosphere to please the international visitor. Even though

the item measuring the overall satisfaction received relatively positive responses from both groups—as well as their intention to recommend the destination—the critical point is that international tourists indicated a low likelihood of coming back.

Table 2. ANOVA mean comparison (Domestic vs. International Visitors)

| | Mean (Domestic) | Mean (International) | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Destination image* | *4.31* | *4.11* | *3.09* | *4.53* | *0.03* |
| Lively/Boring | 4.35 | 4.08 | 7.96 | 5.18 | 0.02 |
| Young/Old | 4.53 | 3.93 | 36.86 | 25.05 | 0.00 |
| Unsympathetic/Friendly | 4.75 | 5.03 | 9.91 | 7.39 | 0.01 |
| Authentic/Artificial | 4.81 | 4.74 | 0.59 | 0.40 | 0.53 |
| Modern/Traditional | 4.28 | 3.28 | 105.78 | 56.30 | 0.00 |
| Exclusive/Low-end | 4.06 | 4.03 | 0.10 | 0.06 | 0.80 |
| Diversified/Simple | 4.89 | 4.15 | 68.54 | 37.66 | 0.00 |
| *Augmented attributes* | *4.07* | *2.93* | *55.16* | *25.90* | *0.00* |
| Shopping/handicrafts | 3.94 | 2.82 | 96.80 | 27.33 | 0.00 |
| Children's facilities | 3.76 | 2.01 | 175.07 | 49.07 | 0.00 |
| Tourist information | 4.24 | 3.75 | 20.00 | 5.99 | 0.01 |
| Climate, weather | 4.77 | 3.73 | 123.61 | 54.43 | 0.00 |
| Transport | 4.49 | 4.05 | 20.02 | 6.86 | 0.01 |
| Cultural offerings | 3.95 | 3.44 | 18.79 | 5.26 | 0.02 |
| *Core attributes* | *5.14* | *4.66* | *25.63* | *13.68* | *0.00* |
| Nature, landscape | 5.43 | 4.99 | 26.79 | 14.46 | 0.00 |
| Atmosphere | 4.95 | 4.33 | 43.24 | 16.19 | 0.00 |
| *Basic attributes* | *4.22* | *4.11* | *0.97* | *0.42* | *0.52* |
| Dining | 4.47 | 4.44 | 0.12 | 0.05 | 0.83 |
| Accommodation | 4.43 | 4.33 | 1.24 | 0.42 | 0.52 |
| Value for money | 4.12 | 4.06 | 0.28 | 0.10 | 0.76 |
| *Destination loyalty* | *5.15* | *4.80* | *17.78* | *20.20* | *0.00* |
| Overall evaluation of the stay | 4.87 | 4.89 | 0.06 | 0.06 | 0.81 |
| Recommendation to other people | 5.29 | 5.18 | 1.91 | 1.75 | 0.19 |
| Come back to the destination | 5.24 | 4.31 | 130.59 | 73.37 | 0.00 |

DISCUSSION

The results suggest that international visitors to the Ha Long Bay region have higher standards than domestic visitors when judging this destination. International visitors had a lower level of satisfaction with the destination attributes and were more critical in their evaluation of destination image than domestic visitors. This finding is similar to the results of a comparative study of inter-state, domestic, and international visitors to Tampa Bay, Florida (Bonn et al., 2005).

Closer examination revealed significant differences in results regarding the augmented and core attributes, with the satisfaction score of international visitors significantly lower than that of domestic visitors (as outlined in Table 2). Although these differences are somewhat understandable, the difference in the level of satisfaction with the core attributes of the destination (landscape, atmosphere) suggests a problem area for managing visitor experience at the WHS. As the universal outstanding value of the WHS of Ha Long Bay lies in its landscape and atmosphere, any factor affecting this value becomes critical to the site management. Closer examination of the *augmented attributes* of the

destination suggests some explanation for the differences indicated between domestic and international visitors. International visitors rated children's facilities, transport, tourist information, shopping, cultural offerings, and climate significantly lower than domestic visitors. This difference may be due to language barriers, as the majority of information concerning the destinations and cultural sites is in Vietnamese. Some differences between domestic and international visitors may be explained by the profile of the tourists. International visitors mainly came on package tours, so they might not be able to extend their stay and would also have limited time to visit and experience other areas of the city. Since most domestic tourists were on self-organized tours, they were free to select and develop aspects of their visit to meet their needs. Therefore, they were easily satisfied with the augmented attributes of the destination. Additionally, as the majority of domestic tourists are civil servants or government officers, their trip might be sponsored by their company or organization (and so would be mostly free to them), and they might not be overly concerned with the core, basic, and augmented attributes.

CONCLUSION

This study takes a preliminary step toward uncovering not only what satisfies international and visitors to Ha Long Bay but also what ensures their positive evaluation and return. The results generated in this study constitute a clear message: compared to domestic visitors, international visitors have higher service image expectations and standards, and they place more importance on the core and augmented attributes of the destination. This finding implies that destination managers of Ha Long Bay need to improve current standards of service. Various governmental agencies and tourism bureaus have invested considerable resources into training tourism stakeholders to ensure better products and higher service quality, and tourism destination marketing and management professionals need to fully understand how these dimensions are perceived across their different target markets. This improved understanding will allow marketing and management professionals to assess the strengths and weaknesses of these dimensions so as to better cater to international visitors in particular.

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# A METHOD FOR ASSESSING PROGRESS TOWARD PRODUCT CONSUMPTION GOALS IN DESTINATION MARKETING

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## ABSTRACT

This conceptual research puts forth a process Destination Marketing Organizations can use to benchmark their performance.  Unlike historical methods that look at the past, the process put forth here looks at the future.  Thus, by using this approach, DMOs can have a tool that allows them to impact what happens in the future.

Key words:  DMO, room nights, bookings, process, yield.

## INTRODUCTION

This conceptual research puts forth an apparatus and method for using a dynamic approach in assessing progress toward product consumption goals. The concept uses patterns of how far in advance an order or reservation is a placed, applies those patterns to a future goal, and compares actual performance at a given point in advance of the future goal to the performance estimated by the model.  This facilitates whether the business is on track to meet its future goals. Thus, this concept looks to the future, rather than history, to assess performance.  The methods can be applied to multiple future consumption goals to determine order-taking requirements. Further, the methods can be used to identify deficiencies in order activity and target customers likely to fill those deficiencies.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the 'yield management' literature was undertaken.  While numerous studies and articles were found where yield management was applied to hotel pricing, only one piece of literature was found applying it to inventory in a destination to conventions (Scott & Breakley, 2007).  However, while their research discussed Yield Management, it also posited that Yield Management could not be applied to destinations or DMOs.  Wikipedia shows the application of yield management to such fields as airlines, hotels, rental cars, etc. but not destinations.  The research at hand overcomes this weakness.

## CONCEPT

The concept put forth above is a form of yield management.  The historical approach of yield management is to establish prices for hotel rooms.  In the research at hand the concept is applied differently:  namely to the 'quantity' of a product that should be booked for certain points in the future.  The concept being put forth can be used in any industry where the 'quantity' of a product is relatively fixed and difficult to increase to meet a near term increases in demand.  The application being put forth in this paper is 'hotel room bookings' in given destinations.

The process exemplified in the current research is of particular interest to Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) also called Convention and Visitors Bureaus (CVBs). The performance of DMOs, especially those in the United States, is measured largely on

their ability to book convention groups into their destinations for future dates thus utilizing hotel rooms = "putting heads in beds." The challenge is that convention groups 'book' years in advance of the dates when their event will occur. If demand for hotel rooms increases beyond the capacity in the destination, new hotel rooms cannot be added to inventory in the short term and, convention business is lost. Thus, it is critical that DMOs be provided a 'tool' that allows them to 'see into the future' to prevent this loss. The research presented in this paper does just that. Therefore, the results of the extant conceptual research will be of interest to both practitioners and academics. It will make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge in meetings and events. The research will conclude with an example of the 'concept' being applied to a destination in the U.S.

PROCESS

The research at hand is based, largely, an analysis of booking patterns in Destinations as handled by the local Destination Marketing Organization (DMO). While the same analysis can be applied to hotels and their bookings, the current research maintains the focus on DMOs.

Pattern Analysis

Figure 1. Booking Pattern for January
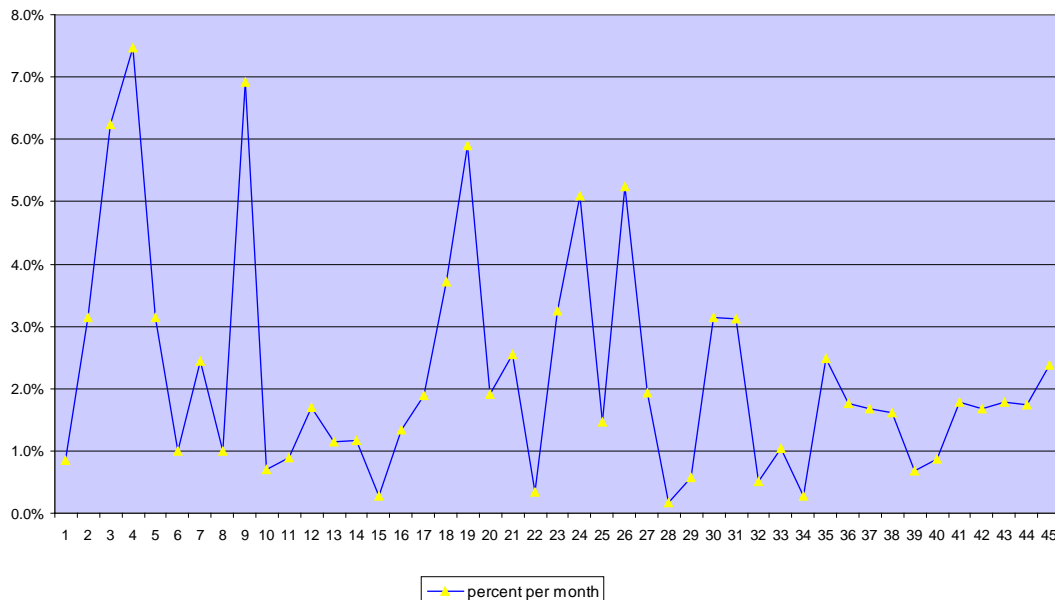


The primary underpinning of this "Future Pace" concept is analysis of group bookings patterns: namely how far in advance of the start date of their meeting/convention/event they make a firm commitment to hold their event in the destination or 'go definite.' All destinations have high, swing and low seasons with the bookings patterns varying with seasonality. High demand periods will see bookings occur further in advance while low seasons will be shorter. Thus, groups that hold their event during each of the 12 months of the year are analyzed. A calculation is made of the percentage of all room nights booked, and not events held, for each of the years or months preceding the start date of the event. As is seen in the example above, for a month such as January it might be found that 2.1% of all room nights are booked 45 months in advance, and additional 1.7% booked 44 months in advance, 7.5% booked 3 months in advance and .8% booked one month in advance. This produces a 'booking curve' for any event start date in a month of March (for any year) [see Figure 1].

The same is done for all 12 different months of a year yielding 12 distinctly different 'curves.' These curves are then overlaid on one another. The result is that with application of multiple algorithms, for

any month in advance of a month with group event start dates, it can be determined how many room nights should have been on the books at that point in time in order to achieve the desired goal.

OUTPUT

Output for 8 Sequential Years

This example report that follows is for "ANY DESTINATION". It is based on an annual goal of 218,678 room nights. The 'example reports' were generated on the hypothetical December 1, 2010 and cover years ending December 31, 2010 – 2017. This first report covers all 8 years and subsequent reports cover months within 2010. The FuturePace® Target (or "Pace Target") is where the destination should be at this point in time.

Figure 2. Future pace 8 years

|  | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Goal | 218,678 | 218,678 | 218,678 | 218,678 | 218,678 | 218,678 | 218,678 | 218,678 |
| 12/01/10 Pace Target | 218,631 | 172,988 | 108,715 | 67,489 | 43,810 | 22,784 | 11,388 | 2,245 |
| 12/01/10 Definite Room | 242,763 | 205,994 | 109,045 | 64,786 | 49,407 | 1,410 | 6,517 | 0 |
| Variance | 24,132 | 33,006 | 330 | -2703 | 5597 | -21,374 | -4,871 | -2,245 |
| Achievement Index | 111% | 119% | 100% | 96% | 113% | 6% | 57% | 0% |
| Tentative Room Nights | 0 | 75899 | 173,068 | 136,469 | 76,007 | 74,023 | 36,964 | 26,615 |

DISCUSSION OF REPORT ABOVE

In discussing the report above the first row represents the room night goal established by the destination. In this example it is constant at 218,678 for all eight years under study. In reality, this number could and would change by year and the process being put forth in the research at hand can handle these changes.

The second row "12/01/10 Pace Target" indicates how many room nights should be 'on the books' as of 12/01/10 for the end of each period listed, or the 'year-ends' 2010 through 2017. Thus, is the reader should not be surprised to see that the FuturePace method indicates that as of '12/01/10', 218,631 room nights should be on the books if ANY DESTINATION is to achieve its desired 'end of period goal' of 218,678. Thus, one month before the end of the first year under study this destination should have booked 99.97% of its ultimate goal. As we move to the third column, third row of the chart above, we see that the FuturePace calculation indicates that as of 12/01/10 ANY DESTINATION should have booked 172,988 room nights for the year 2011 if it is to achieve its ultimate goal of 218,678 room nights. Thus, the calculation has determined that ANY DESTINATION should have booked 79.1% of its ultimate goal of 218,678. As we look to each subsequent year that is further into the future from 12/01/10 we see the "Pace Target" number decreasing. By the time the FuturePace is calculated for the year end 2017, or almost 84 months in

the future, it is found that, as of 12/01/10 ANY DESTINATION would only expect to have booked 2,245 room nights or just over 1% of its total goal of 218,678 for the year 2017.

Analysis continues by reviewing rows 4 through 6 of the FuturePace Figure 2 above. It is found that as of 12/01/10 ANY DESTINATION has 242,763 'Definite Room Nights" or reserved room nights on the books for the year end 2010. This represents a positive variance (row 5) of 24,132. This shows that ANY DESTINATION is ahead of pace for 2010 by 11% (row 6). If one scans row 6 "Achievement Index" it is found that ANY DESTINATION is ahead of pace for achieving their goal for the years 2010, 2011 and 2014. ANY DESTINATION is exactly 'on pace' for 2012 and is behind pace for 2013, 2015, 2016 and 2017.

Output for each of the 8 Sequential Years

Now that the reader has an understanding of the process and its application, analysis delves deeper into analysis of each year by month. The parameters and methods are exactly the same as above, but the algorithms are applied to each month in a given year rather than to the entire year. As above, the goal refers to the end of each period, or in this case, calendar month.

As can be seen in Figure 3 below, the analysis put forth is for each month in the year 2010 and is determined as of the date 12/01/10. The final column on the right is identical to the second column in Figure 2 showing the analysis for the entire year 2010. Row two of Figure 3 shows how the total room night goal of 218,677 is broken out by calendar month. The differing numbers such as the 'goal' of 8,022 room night for January, 8,319 room nights for February, 38,716 room nights for July, etc. are reflective of the seasonality in this destination. The process follows that explained for Figure 1 where row 3 represents the 'pace target' of how many room nights ANY DESTINATION should have on the books for each calendar month as of the date 12/01/10. This is followed by "Definites" or how many room nights are actually on the books and 'variance.' The output in Figure 3 indicates that ANY DESTINATION is ahead of pace for January, February, May, June, July, and August of 2010 and behind pace for the other months. Overall, ANY DESTINATION is ahead of pace by 24,132 room nights in achieving its room night goal for the year of 218677.

Figure 3. 'YEAR 2010

| | JAN | FEB | MAR | APR | MAY | JUNE | JULY | AUG | SEPT | OCT | NOV | DEC | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Goal | 8,022 | 8,319 | 16,649 | 17,735 | 18,997 | 24,461 | 38,716 | 22,546 | 19,614 | 26,862 | 15,315 | 1,441 | 218,677 |
| 12/01/10 Pace Target | 8,022 | 8,319 | 16,649 | 17,735 | 18,997 | 24,461 | 38,716 | 22,546 | 19,614 | 26,862 | 15,315 | 1,395 | 218,631 |
| 12/01/10 Definite Room Nights | 9,110 | 8,387 | 12,492 | 22,592 | 24,452 | 26,774 | 47,152 | 32,025 | 19,547 | 22,093 | 14,754 | 385 | 242,763 |
| Variance | 1,068 | 68 | -4,157 | -7,857 | 5,455 | 2,313 | 8,436 | 9,479 | -67 | -4,769 | -561 | -1,010 | 24,132 |
| Tentative Room Nights | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Figure 4, Year 2015

| | JAN | FEB | MAR | APR | MAY | JUNE | JULY | AUG | SEPT | OCT | NOV | DEC | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Goal** | 8,022 | 8,319 | 16,649 | 17,735 | 18,997 | 24,461 | 38,716 | 22,546 | 19,614 | 26,862 | 15,315 | 1,441 | 218,677 |
| **12/01/10 Pace Target** | 1,092 | 1,075 | 2,037 | 2,085 | 2,119 | 2,729 | 4,034 | 2,171 | 1,800 | 2,244 | 1,279 | 119 | 22,784 |
| **12/01/10 Definite Room Nights** | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1,410 | 0 | 0 | 1,410 |
| **Variance** | -1,092 | -1,075 | -2,037 | -2,085 | -2,119 | -2,279 | -4,034 | -2,171 | -1,800 | -834 | -1,279 | -119 | -21,374 |
| **Tentative Room Nights** | 2,460 | 2,935 | 8,945 | 4,511 | 9,727 | 6,249 | 15,610 | 9,275 | 4,800 | 5,281 | 4,230 | 0 | 74,023 |

Figure 4 above is similar to Figure 3: the difference is that the above is for the calendar year 2015. It is found that, unlike for calendar year 2010, for 2015 ANY DESTINATION is behind pace for every one of the 12 calendar months and thus for the year as a whole. In fact, for the year as a whole ANY DESTINATION has only booked a total of 1,410 room nights for the year as of the date of the analysis, 12/01/10. The pace target at this point, for five years into the future is 22,784 if ANY DESTINATION is to achieve their goal of 218,677. The good news is that they have 74,023 'tentative' room nights or potential group room nights identified that 'might' book for 2015.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The process put forth in this research is designed to use a dynamic approach in assessing progress toward product consumption goals. The focus of this hospitality research is the realm of Destination Marketing Organizations (DMO) also knows as Convention and Visitors Bureaus (CVB). DMOs are in the business of, in part, bringing groups and their commensurate room night consumption, to a destination. Thus, their primary measure of success is 'room nights booked.' The quantity of hotel rooms in a destination is relatively 'fixed' and 'un-changeable' over the short term. Hotel room inventory cannot be increased or decreased to meet demand, or lack of it. Thus, a concept as developed in the research at hand has never been put forth.

The implications of the extant research should be obvious. Historically, DMOs have only been 'bench-marked' against the past: bookings year to date, bookings year-over-year, etc. While this historical approach is fine, it is 'backward looking' and not 'future looking.' Given that meeting and convention groups book years and even decades in advance of their 'event start date', looking to the past does not allow DMOs to impact the future. As one DMO executive of a primary convention group destination was quoted as saying, "I am not going to make my goals this year Or next year because my target groups have already booked elsewhere: and there is nothing I can do about it." The research put forth in the paper at hand changes that and provides a process, or mechanism, by which DMOs can look into the future: AND DO SOMETHING ABOUT IT!

Therefore, the results of the extant conceptual research will be of interest to both practitioners and academics. It will make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge in meetings and events.

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# A PILOT STUDY: MARKETING CHINA TO AMERICAN MILLENIALS

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## ABSTRACT

Destination images are accumulations of a person's historical collection of external events and experiences combined with actual travel.  They are developed via organic or  induced experiences. Segmenting travelers based on their travel experiences is one way to assess destination perceptions.  Millenials on this basis are at the beginning of their travel experiences and as a result, their organic and induced experiences can alter their decisions to travel to different countries because they do not have actual travel experiences on which to base their perception.  A comparison of their images using Bojanic's (1991) 20 question image study is explored.

Key words: destination image, China, millenials

## INTRODUCTION

Traveling abroad is considered to be part of the university experience because it expands knowledge about the world.  Students have been brought up on movies, television programs, and similar cultural experiences which have formed their perceptions and biases about the desirability to visit countries. In addition, there are also biases that develop from political, social, cultural beliefs and values on a regional basis because of interactions with different countries. For example, Louisiana with its French roots may find their residents desire to travel to France or Canada first while California residents with their large Asian population may find Japan or China more appealing at one Southern university, a trip to China had to be canceled because of a lack of interest while a trip to Australia was sold out. In a different university, the reverse might have happened.  Therefore, different regions of the country may alter destination images, changing the desirability to travel there. It may be valuable to assess regional images and then expand the study across the country to compare how perceptions change. Understanding how destination images change across America would aid in creating comparable target market demographic and psychographic profiles.

In addition, different historical events occur not only in regions, but also across time and experience. People living through the Depression and WWI have images of Europe that today's college students only read about in history books. Therefore, age also plays a role in changing images. A target audience of people in their 60s and 70s may have more discretionary income and time to spend it on travel. College students are usually at the beginning of their travel careers where they have the desire to travel but perhaps not the finances to go. In a preliminary question, 96% of the students in this study all expressed a desire to travel (4 (29%) and 5(67%) on a 5 point Likert scale).  Because of the incident cancelling a trip to China because of a lack of interest, this research explores millenials' perceptions about China.  With more and more countries looking to attract tourists, it is important to understand the perceptions of travelers, especially ones that are just beginning to develop their taste for new experiences. Developing destination perceptions are critical to motivating more people to want and demand travel opportunities.  Creating future demand by understanding college students, who are usually at the beginning of their travel careers where they have the desire to travel but perhaps not the finances to go, is a first step.  It is also at this age where desire to travel and travel experiences can be compared. Students who have

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not traveled outside the United States rely on their regionally developed image and may have different images of countries then people who have traveled.  In this study, 75% of the millenials have traveled outside the US.  The most common countries that were visited: France, Italy, Germany, England, Canada, Mexico, Bahamas, and Costa Rica.  When asked to rank where they would prefer to travel now: Australia came in first followed by Europe.  South and Central America came in the middle with Africa then China coming in last. Since .04% of the subjects had visited Australia, .05% had visited Africa, and .01% had visited China, there appears to be a definitive selection process based on organic/induced cultural experiences, rather than actual visitations.

As more countries compete for tourism dollars and fewer people are traveling because of the threatening economies and the increasing cost of transportation, countries need to be aware of their image in the eyes of different groups of consumers. Because of historically significant events in each age bracket and even each region, different fears, perceptions and media hype have proliferated. Therefore, it is valuable to investigate what millenials in a specific region perceive as an image. This pilot study uses one university to explore whether destination images are similar among students.

DESTINATION IMAGE

Images, especially destination images, are important in creating a desire in potential visitors to look for information on countries of an evoked set when making a final decision on where to travel.  Crompton (1979) defined image as the "sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has about a destination (Crompton 1979:18)."  On the other hand, Baud Bovy and Lawson (1977) expanded the defined image as " the expression of all objective knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations, and emotional thoughts an individual or group might have about of a particular place."  In either case, image is an accumulated perception of an individual that includes prejudices and emotional thoughts based on their social and cultural backgrounds that molds their expectations (Jenkins 1999, Javalgi, Thomas, & Rao 1992). This 'accumulation' of information changes as one ages and gains more experience.

During the 1970s, Gunn developed image research in tourism by theorizing images are developed in two ways: organic and induced.  The organic image develops internally using general information from various media sources like television, books, newspapers and magazines found in the course of everyday living in the region and culture. Thus, individuals who have never visited a destination nor have sought out any tourism-specific information will likely have some kind of information stored in their memory.  People may not think they know anything about a country because they have not sought out information and yet when asked, they may have very definitive answers on whether they want to travel to a specific country. This comes from the incomplete organic image that has developed over time.  Therefore, millenials who have not traveled outside the United States may still have preferences on countries they would like to visit based on their general knowledge. This might be viewed as a regional 'conjured' image since there are no actual experiences on which to base the perception.  Since general biases are also political and specific to a country or region, it is important to explore different time frames as well. For example, students who lived through the Vietnam War will have different expectations about Asian countries than those who are living through the terrorist attacks on their own soil.  The organic image is beyond the control of the destination however,   it is important to know what that image is. These images may be national and generalizable, but this research is a pilot study exploring the millenials from a specific area and future studies will compare images from various regions to assess whether images are generalizable nationally.

The induced image is created from a conscious effort by tourism promoters seeking to attract tourists to their destination. The induced image is directed by the destination's marketing efforts and includes information from Visitor Information Centers, travel agencies, travel articles, advertisements, and other activities generated by tourism organizations promoting the destination.  The induced image is added to the organic experiences. Because of this direct experience with the destination, the image tends to be more complex and differentiated (Chon 1991, Fakeye & Crompton 1991). An example of this distinction is a study by Baloglu and McCleary (1999), that found significant differences between

visitors and non-visitors in their analysis of images by the US pleasure travel market of various Mediterranean tourist destinations. In a similar study, non-visitors perceived Turkey, Italy, and Greece as equally appealing, while visitors found Greece less appealing when compared with Turkey and Italy (Sonmez & Sirakaya 2002). In 1993, Garner expanded this concept of organic/induced by theorizing that these are end points on a continuum in image formation influenced in addition by information credibility, cost and market penetration. Once the organic image is known, marketers can then adapt their induced images to influence the target audience accordingly.

Most travelers choose options due to time and money constraints, however after this; the most favorable image is likely to be chosen (Gartner, 1989). It is important to understand and identify the images held by regional people so that the most lucrative target markets can be selected. Intuitively, the potential travelers with the most positive images would be most likely to have the desire to seek more information and then to visit. The identification of these groups would allow marketers to target and develop campaigns that would further enhance their image so that probabilities for travel to their destination would increase (Leisen 2001; Crompton 1979). This would optimize the spending of promotional resources which in turn would result in more effectiveness of campaigns and increased travel to the destination. Therefore, this pilot study is the beginning of exploring regional differences in images, one region at a time.

GENERAL FINDINGS

The first question asked, "Do you have a desire to travel?" Only 2% said it was a 'little descriptive', while the majority replied that it was descriptive (29%) to extremely descriptive (67%). Therefore, it is quite likely that these subjects have viewed travel materials with interest when the occasion presented itself. In addition, 75% of the subjects have traveled outside the United States.

To understand their overall preferences, the second question asked, "Rank these 6 destinations according to your preference to travel there: Central America, South America, Africa, China, Australia, and Europe. Australia placed in first (41%) and second (37.5%) with Europe coming in second. This was interesting since only .04% had traveled to Australia and .07% had been to Europe. South America was third with a close fourth for Central America. If the subjects traveled outside the United States, they primarily had been to Mexico (23%). Africa was fourth out of six preferred choices for travel and China was last.

Since China was last, the question was asked: "would you like to travel to China?" 64% agreed to strongly agreed that they would like to go to China. Probably the most representative response was that China was better than not traveling, but there were more interesting places that had a higher priority. Some of the responses:

- Would be an interesting place to visit. (16%)
- I would love to taste the authentic Chinese cuisine. (10%)
- It is one of the most powerful countries in the world whose technological advances are way ahead of everyone else's. (8%)
- I am very interested in the Chinese culture. I have two very close friends that traveled to China and a past teacher who has also traveled to China. One of my friends loved it, the other friend hated it, and my past teacher loved it as well. (6%)

On the other hand, the negative responses were most represented by:
- No because of how crowded it is ( 14%)
- there are no real attractions in China that I would be interested in seeing besides the Great Wall of China (10%)

To explore the Chinese image more, an attitude toward country questionnaire by Bojanic (1991) allowed additional exploration. This study adapted the 20 questions to 19 deleting "hardly any modern roads" and editing "many European tourists" to " Hardly any American tourists."

Table 1. Destination images for China

|  | Strongly agree | Agree |  | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sunny destination. | 37 | 31 | 19 | 10 | 0 |
| Beautiful architecture | 62 | 29 | 4 | 2 | 0 |
| Boring place to visit. | 40 | 2 | 17 | 50 | 25 |
| Beautiful beaches. | 37 | 4 | 27 | 25 | 4 |
| Food is different. | 52 | 42 | 2 | 0 | 20 |
| People are dishonest. | 2 | 4 | 33 | 33 | 25 |
| US$ does not buy much. | 0 | 17 | 48 | 21 | 10 |
| Cities are interesting. | 46 | 48 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| Not safe to visit. | 6 | 4 | 37 | 25 | 25 |
| Shopping Bargains. | 21 | 48 | 25 | 4 | 0 |
| Good night life. | 19 | 40 | 31 | 6 | 2 |
| Poor country | 0 | 12 | 33 | 35 | 17 |
| Not many American tourists | 0 | 10 | 33 | 42 | 8 |
| Hotels not as modern | 0 | 17 | 31 | 44 | 4 |
| People are hospitable | 23 | 31 | 31 | 10 | 2 |
| Out of the way site | 6 | 19 | 58 | 12 | 2 |
| People speak English | 17 | 35 | 25 | 21 | 0 |
| Historical sites | 33 | 56 | 8 | 0 | 0 |
| People don't like Americans | 8 | 6 | 35 | 29 | 19 |

Beautiful architecture, interesting cities, historical sites, and different food created a strong perception. Boring place to visit did not seem to be a concern. However, they were confused by how much the US dollar would buy, if China was a poor country, if Americans visited, and if it was too far out of the way. These would seem to be very relevant questions for an interested tourist since they relate to how much money is necessary to travel to and around China and whether there will be any Americans who can help if there is any trouble.

However, China is a big country and so two cities were selected to assess the similarity of the image: Beijing and Suzhou. Beijing was selected because after the winter Olympics, most Americans know something about Beijing. Sixty-seven% agreed to strongly agreed that they would like to visit Beijing, but 21% were undecided.  On the other hand, Suzhou the Venice of China, is probably not recognized by Americans. Therefore, Beijing perceptions should have some fact and images from the media coverage, while Suzhou only has the image of "Venice of China".

As expected, comments about Beijing were focused around the sights from the Olympics:
- I do not know about Beijing. If I knew more about the culture I might visit
- The smog levels in Beijing are toxic. (8%)
- I feel the language barrier would be difficult to overcome however, I still want to see the world so I am open to the idea. (8%)
- Forbidden City. The Great Wall (6%)
- Other than for the Olympics, I do not really have a desire to travel to Beijing. (8%)
- Its Olympics in 2012 showed that it is a beautiful city with lots to do and see (10%)
- It seems like a beautiful place with a rich culture. (36%)

These images about Beijing were expected however it is interesting to note that the millenials did not appear to broaden their images beyond the Olympics.

On the other hand, as expected, only 4% of the subjects had even heard of Suzhou. As a result most would not want to travel there because it is an unknown quantity. The typical response was: "No, because I know nothing about it or where it is located." But some of the more adventurous said, "Sure, every travel destination would be a learning experience."

Table 2. Destination images for Suzhou

|  | Strongly agree | Agree |  | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sunny destination | 35 | 35 | 23 | 2 | 0 |
| Beautiful architecture | 54 | 27 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| Boring place to visit. | 0 | 2 | 29 | 44 | 19 |
| Beautiful beaches. | 31 | 17 | 33 | 10 | 0 |
| Food is different. | 38 | 44 | 15 | 0 | 0 |
| People are dishonest. | 0 | 0 | 54 | 19 | 21 |
| US$ does not buy much. | 0 | 10 | 58 | 19 | 4 |
| Cities are interesting. | 35 | 42 | 15 | 2 | 0 |
| Not safe to visit. | 0 | 0 | 48 | 21 | 25 |
| Shopping Bargains. | 19 | 37 | 35 | 2 | 0 |
| Good night life. | 17 | 33 | 40 | 2 | 2 |
| Poor country | 0 | 2 | 50 | 35 | 6 |
| Not many American tourists | 0 | 17 | 48 | 23 | 6 |
| Hotels not as modern | 2 | 17 | 48 | 25 | 2 |
| People are hospitable | 23 | 31 | 37 | 2 | 0 |
| Out of the way site | 4 | 29 | 54 | 4 | 2 |
| People speak English | 12 | 33 | 33 | 15 | 0 |
| Historical sites | 23 | 50 | 21 | 0 | 0 |
| People don't like Americans | 2 | 6 | 46 | 23 | 17 |

Since these images were strictly guesswork by the subjects, it was interesting to observe the stereotypes of China. Like for China, beautiful architecture, different food, interesting cities, and historical sites still dominated the judgments. However, they were confused by how much the US dollar would buy, if China was a poor country, if Americans visited, and if it was too far out of the way. In addition, they were concerned about how honest the people were even though the subjects did think that the people were hospitable. The uncertainty also increased for the statement, "people don't like Americans." These would seem to be very relevant questions for an interested tourist since they relate to how much money is necessary to travel to and around China and whether there will be any Americans who can help if there is any trouble especially if the tourist wasn't sure whether the locals like Americans and were honest.

However, "if I tell you that Suzhou is called the Venice of China, what are your impressions about Suzhou, the Venice of China?" With the added descriptor, millenials were attracted to visit and they had a better visualization of what the location was like. As a result, they had more of a desire to visit.

- I would assume that it is a very beautiful area. I would assume that it is very rich in art
- I would assume that it is a busy flourishing city with a high tourist population
- If you told Suzhou was the Venice of China, then I would maybe consider because I've always wanted to go to Venice and when I hear Venice, I think very beautiful, romantic, historical, etc. So, I would imagine that Suzhou would be very similar in a sense.
- Surrounded by water, pretty architecture, a lot of buildings.
- My impression would change. I think it would be exciting to visit there if it is similar to Venice that would mean it is a pretty area
- I would think it was very beautiful with all of the water ways. I would love to go!
- It sounds spectacular; I am still interested but will always have reservations due to the language barrier
- Venice is known to be popular for its beautiful and unique architecture and historical buildings so if Suzhou is known to be the Venice of China, I imagine it to be similar with its beautiful architecture.
- That is a very popular destination and a place worth seeing.

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- This makes me think of it more romantic than I did when first hearing about this location.
- Yes, because I would like to visit Venice so now my impressions have changed and I am more interested in visiting there.
- That is beautiful, and a must see.
- It sounds fancy to me, of much importance to China.

Therefore it is again interesting to note that with an added descriptive "Venice of China", the desire to travel there has been heightened. More curiosity about the city has been generated.

CONCLUSIONS

This pilot study is based on the demographic and geographic segmentation of millenials. The underlying premise is each geographic region has its organic/induced images about places outside the United States that are based on historical events that have occurred within the region. As a result, each geographic region will have its own perceptions and images. This study is part of a series to assess how large each geographic segment is that have similar perceptions and images. In addition, this study explores the organic/induced images millenials have about China so that advertisers can understand what the starting point is to develop a promotional campaign.

As more countries compete for tourism dollars and fewer people are traveling because of the threatening economies and the increasing cost of transportation, countries need to be aware of their image in the eyes of different groups of consumers. Because of historically significant events in each age bracket and even each geographic region, different fears, perceptions and media hype have proliferated. Therefore, it is valuable to investigate what millenials in a specific region perceive as an image even when they have not been there. In order to reach each group of millenials, the perception of the individuals, not reality, will alter the desirability to travel to different countries.

Future research will include larger samples of millenials in the same region and expand to include samples in different regions across the United States to see if these differences in travel experiences are validated and to explore regional differences in destination images.

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# PERCEIVED SERVICE QUALITY AND ITS EFFECT ON VALUE, SATISFACTION AND DESTINATION LOYALTY

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ABSTRACT

The study uses partial least-squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) to test a comprehensive model of the effects of perceived quality on loyalty in a tourism destination context. Using a sample of 249 residents from the UK and USA who visited Australia from 2009 to 2012, results show that the destination attributes of 'accessibility' and 'natural and well-known attractions' have the greatest influence on visitors' perceived quality of Australia. Moreover, perceived quality has both direct and indirect effects on loyalty, with satisfaction fully mediating the impact of perceived value on loyalty.

Key words: service quality, destination loyalty, value, Australia, PLS-SEM.

## INTRODUCTION

In past decades, perceived quality, perceived value, and satisfaction has received much attention in the services marketing literature, in general (Howat & Assaker, 2013), and tourism literature, in particular (Yoon, Lee, & Lee, 2010), due to the implicit assumption that improved perceptions of quality, value, and satisfaction in a service encounter would ultimately lead to favorable outcomes, such as loyalty (repeat purchase) and positive word of mouth. In the service industries, loyalty helps service firms "secure future revenues, reduce the costs of future transactions, decrease price elasticities, and minimize the likelihood that customers will defect if quality falters" (Anderson, Fornell, & Rust, 1997, p. 129). In a tourism context, improvements in the perception of service quality and value results in higher satisfaction and leads to positive word-of-mouth endorsements, referrals, and repeat visits; this ultimately improves the performance of both tourism firms and destinations (Bigné et al., 2001).

This being said, the debate around service quality, service value, and satisfaction in the past two decades has evolved around two main axes. The first issue relates to the causal inter-relationships among the three constructs/variables (quality, value, and satisfaction) from one side, and customers' loyalty/behavioral intention from the other side. Although the second issue relates to the conceptualization and operationalization of the perceived quality construct, with the objective of improving the understanding of not only the perceived service quality construct itself and how perceived quality is formed, but also how it relates to other constructs (e.g., value and satisfaction) in ultimately driving loyalty/behavioral intentions.

The present paper aims to adopt a hierarchical (higher-order) formative model for the perceived quality  construct, as proposed in the service marketing literature, to conceptualize service quality in the tourism context and to investigate the relationships among quality value, satisfaction, and loyalty based on data collected from 249 visitors to Australia (measure retrospectively).  Using a higher-order formative model for perceived quality provides: (1) a better measure of the perceived quality construct in the tourism context and identifies the primary dimensions of destination quality, as well as the specific destination attributes within each dimension, that form visitors' overall quality perceptions, (2) evaluates the relationships among perceived quality, visitor satisfaction, and behavioral intentions at the level of a tourist destination.

Figure 1 illustrates the full hypothesized model to be tested in the context of this study. Perceived quality is conceptualised as a second-order formative construct determined by six first-order dimensions/factors: attractions, tourist services and culture, quality of general tourism atmosphere, entertainment and recreation, general environment, and accessibility.

Figure 1. Proposed high-order model
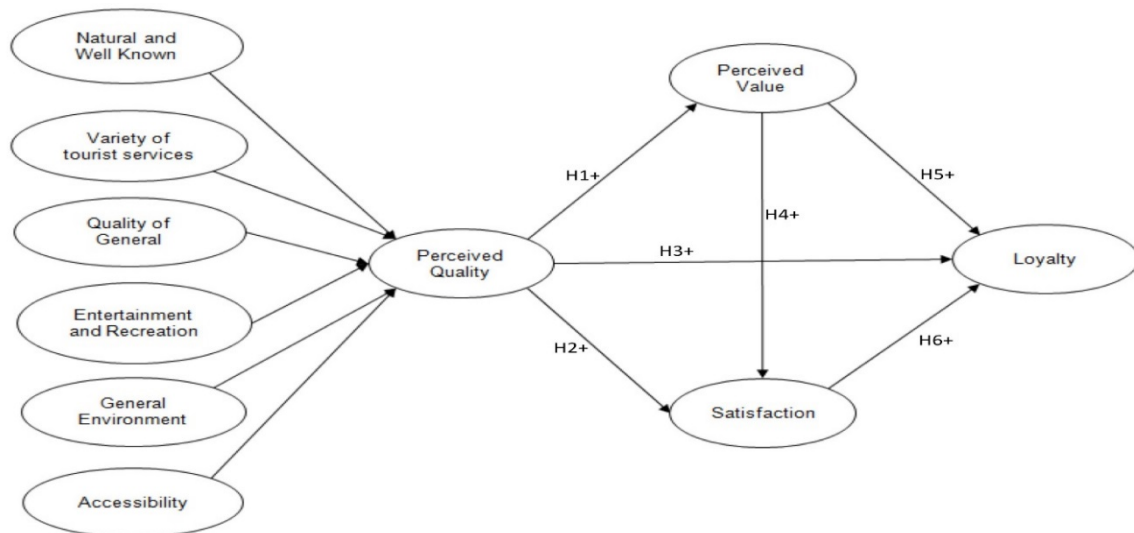


Hypothesis 1: Perceived quality has a direct positive influence on the prediction of perceived value.
Hypothesis 2: Perceived quality has a direct positive influence on the prediction of satisfaction.
Hypothesis 3: Perceived quality has a direct positive influence on the prediction of loyalty.
Hypothesis 4: Perceived value exerts a direct positive influence on the prediction of satisfaction.
Hypothesis 5: Perceived value exerts a direct positive influence on the prediction of loyalty.
Hypothesis 6: Satisfaction exerts a direct positive influence on the prediction of loyalty.

METHODS AND RESULTS

Data was examined through Exploratory Factor Analysis and partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). The two-step approach to PLS was followed: 1) validating the outer model(s) and 2) examining the inner (structural) model (Chin, 1998). The former was accomplished primarily by testing and checking convergent, discriminant validity, and reliability for the reflective factors (the first-order perceived quality/destination attribute factors, perceived value, satisfaction, and the loyalty factors) (Wetzels et al. 2009), followed by examining the content validity for the higher-order formative construct (i.e., perceived quality; see Assaker et al., 2012). The fit of the inner (structural) model was determined through a path analysis of the model for the full sample.

*Outer model analysis.* We examined the convergent and discriminant validity of the reflective constructs, followed by the content validity of the higher-order formative quality construct (Henseler et al. 2009). The convergent validity of the first-order constructs of perceived quality (the six destination attributes/factors) and perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty constructs were supported as factor loadings for the nine constructs exceeded the 0.7 threshold. Furthermore, the bootstrap test showed high significance levels for all loadings. In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) was 0.675, 0.694, 0.709, 0.705, 0.796, and 0.658 for the first- order constructs of perceived quality: (1) natural and well-known attractions; (2) variety of tourists' services and culture; (3) quality of general tourism atmosphere; (4) environment and recreation; (5) general environment; and (6) accessibility, respectively. It was 0.780, 0.812, and 0.737 for perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty constructs, respectively.

*Inner model analysis and path estimates.* The path coefficients among perceived quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty were examined using bootstrapping with 1000 iterations of resampling (Davison & Hinkley, 1997). The path coefficients showed that perceived quality had a significant positive impact on perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty (reg. coeffs. std. = 0.746, 0.373, and 0.142, respectively), thereby supporting hypotheses H1, H2 and H3; perceived value also had a significant positive impact on satisfaction (reg. coeff. std. = 0.389), thereby supporting hypothesis H4, and satisfaction had a significant positive impact on loyalty (reg. coeff. std. = 0.695), thereby supporting hypothesis H6. However, perceived value was found to have no significant impact on loyalty (reg. coeff. std. = 0.005), leaving hypothesis H5 unsupported.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Tourists form their overall evaluation of quality experience at a destination based on how they evaluate the different dimensions/attributes of a destination and the corresponding items/elements representing those service dimensions. In particular, the first-order service quality dimensions/destination attributes of accessibility (including items on costs/price levels, accessibility, and tourist information/communication; reg. coeffs. std. = 0.270) and natural and well-known attractions (including items on scenery/natural attractions, tourist sites/activities, beaches, and wildlife; reg. coeffs. std. = 0.214) were found to have the strongest influence on the higher-order perceived quality construct.

Results indicate that perceived quality has both direct and indirect effects on loyalty, with satisfaction fully mediating the impact of perceived value on loyalty—that is, perceived value impacts satisfaction directly, which in turn mediates their relationship with loyalty. These results partially support and build on the extant literature in services marketing and tourism, which presses toward the indirect effects that service quality and values have on loyalty; in addition, the relationships among quality, value, satisfaction and loyalty are consistent with the theoretical cognitive–affective–conative framework, whereby visitor satisfaction is sought to partly mediate the impact of quality appraisal and value on the intended behavior. The findings challenge previous research in tourism indicating that quality leads to both perceived value and satisfaction and that both of these factors are direct antecedents of loyalty (e.g., Chin & Qu, 2008).

It is argued that quality in tourism is the result of a consumer's view of a bundle of service dimensions (Zabkar et al., 2010), therefore destination managers need to pay attention to a wide range of destination attributes when managing destination offerings. In particular, these results demonstrate that the six first-order destination attributes (i.e., accessibility, natural and well-known attraction, general environment, variety of tourist services, entertainment and recreation, and quality of general tourism atmosphere, listed in order of importance) influence the perceived quality of a destination's offerings. Managers need to monitor and evaluate specific destination attributes to ascertain which ones predominantly influence overall quality perceptions. Therefore, the tourist supply at the destination level should not be looked upon as a bundle of destination attributes per se, but rather as a product of integrated marketing efforts directed toward creating visitor satisfaction and loyalty.

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# WHEN SPIRITUAL VALUES TRIUMPH OVER PERCEIVED COMMERCIAL GAINS IN TOURISM POLICY-MAKING: THE CASE OF BHUTAN'S URA-SHINGHKAR GOLF COURSE DEVELOPMENT

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## ABSTRACT

This paper argues that good governance in Bhutan's controlled tourism model occurred because of pressures on the government to preserve spiritual values, ahead of perceived commercial gains, in the Ura- Shinghkar Golf Course Development (USGCD) case. The USGCD project would impact livelihoods; derange water supply to a hydropower unit and pollute the water table and rivers downstream. More significantly, it would disturb the sanctity of hermits who meditate in this spiritual heartland. The study revealed that spiritual values triumphed and led to the rejection of the USGCD project, thereby protecting the villagers' grazing livelihoods.

Key words: Gross National Happiness, controlled tourism model, high value low impact, good governance

## INTRODUCTION

Good governance is key to positive tourism development outcome. Bhutan's tourism policy of *high value, low impact* is grounded in the notion of Gross National Happiness (GNH), premised on four Pillars: preservation and conservation of the natural environment; cultivation and promotion of culture; good governance and equitable and sustainable socio-economic development. This paper argues that good governance in Bhutan's *controlled tourism* model resulted because of pressures placed on the government to preserve spiritual values, ahead of perceived commercial gains in the Ura-Shinghkar Golf Course Development (USGCD) controversy. At the heart of the debate lies the perceived economic benefit of the golf course. To a greater majority of the Ura-Shinghkar villagers, the benefits of the golf course only serves a handful of tourist elites (Ben-Ari, 1998) and Foreign Direct Investors (FDI) at the expense of destroying their only means (dairy farming) to a livelihood. The study highlights Bhutanese spiritual values in their relationship with the Ura-Shinghkar wetlands

Controversy of the Ura-Shinghkar Golf Course Development (USGCD)
The USGCD controversy case concerns a 165 acres golf course development project located in the village of Shinghkar in Ura (see Figure 1). The Ura-Shinghkar village is situated at 3,400 metres above sea level, and is located around 9 kilometres from the nearest town of Ura, in the central district of Bumthang (see Figure 2). The main economic activity of the 35 households of around 300 villagers is pastoral farming (subsistence agriculture) and dairy grazing on the pastureland. Traditionally, tourists pass through this village, as it has no major significance in terms of tourism. However, more importantly Ura-Shinghkar has great spiritual significance, because it is the spiritual heartland of the region, and is regarded as one of the eight holy places in Bhutan (Wangchuck, 2009, p.317). According to the village headman, a motion favouring the USGCD project was taken: "we passed it because it's going to help in developing our place as a tourist destination" (Kuensel, October 27, 2011).

Figure 1. Ura-Shinghkar village  Source: Kuensel 1st October 2011, p.19.



Figure 2. Shinghkar in Ura, Bumthang



Source: www.google.com.au/ accessed February 18, 2014

However, the location of USGCD is problematic. It includes parklands, wetlands and marshlands. Studies have shown that chemicals such as herbicides and insecticides from golf course maintenance affect the water source, causing undisputed environmental impacts (Markwick, 2000; Tanner & Gange, 2005; Videira et al., 2006). Developing the USGCD would mean losing pasturelands in favour of tourism development.

The petition
A petition, in an open letter to the public through social media, by a highly respected critic and eminent historian, argued that the USGCD "will disrupt Shinghkar's pastoral culture and dairy farming. Imagine a large part of the valley cordoned off for the use of golfers, with no people and animal allowed to pass through it freely. Imagine what sore sight it can be for the hermits of Shamzur and Garkhai who meditate above the meadows" (Phuntsho, 2011). Furthermore, twenty-five households or seventy per cent of the village voted against the development, arguing that, "the people here don't want the golf course, because it's a pastureland for our

livestock" (Kuensel, October 27, 2011). This reflects grave concerns to preserve the environment and spiritual sacredness, as the USGCD would disturb not only farmers' livelihoods, but also the tranquillity in this spiritual heartland.

METHODOLOGY

The study used a qualitative approach using document analysis of social media, newspapers and interviews with 36 tourism stakeholders, which occurred between August and December 2012. Respondents consisting of urban based tour operators, hoteliers, tour guides, Tourism Council of Bhutan officials, government officials, non-government organizations officials, and public persons were asked "what are your views on the Shinghkar golf course development in Ura?"

FINDINGS

The study revealed tensions existed between the Department of Forest and Park Services (DoFPS), the Ministry of Agriculture and Forests (MoAF) and the Tourism Council of Bhutan (TCB). The MoAF stipulated that the Ura-Shinghkar wetlands must be protected, whilst the DoFPS confirmed that the golf course project was to proceed, whereas the TCB was reported as still waiting for an impact assessment report from the DoFPS. If successful, the USGCD project would have impacted the livelihood of the community because parklands, wetlands and marshes would be ecologically disturbed forever. Second, it would derange the supply of water to a hydropower unit. Third, the toxic chemical waste from the golf course maintenance would affect the water table and pollute rivers downstream. More importantly, the spiritual sanctity of Ura-Shinghkar would have been compromised. According to a local inhabitant "Shinghkar was the wrong place for the golf course for spiritual, ecological, historical, social and economic reasons, and I hope the authorities won't authorize it," (Kuensel, January 11, 2011). The study revealed that apart from concerns for the ecology integrity of the wetlands, it was the spiritual connections with the land that forced the government to reject the USGCD Project.

CONCLUSION

Losing wetlands and pasturelands would have compromised the first GNH Pillar of the preservation and conservation of the natural environment. The USGCD project revealed that spiritual values triumphed over perceived commercial gains in tourism policy-making. The government's decision to proceed with the USGCD was perceived as economically self-serving. But more importantly, the study revealed that the government was made accountable in its tourism development trajectory and pressured into preserving spiritual values ahead of perceived commercial gains. The study's urban representation is a limitation. Further study into ecotourism development in the Ura-Shinghkar valley is recommended.

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# HOW DOES KAZAKHSTAN COMPETE IN THE SPHERE OF TOURISM?

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## ABSTRACT

The article represents the research of modern condition in the sphere of tourism in Kazakhstan. The analysis of rating competitiveness in Kazakhstan is held, the problems which restrained the successful development of tourism sphere are investigated. The analytic and statistic data are used in the research, competitive advantages and potential are considered. The following research highlighted weak and strong sides, opportunities and threads of tourism sphere at market in Kazakhstan. The results of the research can be of great interest for state organizations, entrepreneurs, representatives of tourism business, and also for researches in the following field.

Key words: competitiveness, tourism, tourist product, Kazakhstan.

## INTRODUCTION

Kazakhstan obtains objective preconditions for active exit to world tourism markets. The main goal of tourism development in Kazakhstan is the formation of ecological and social oriented tourism, feasible and competitive tourism industry, with potential to respond to tourists demands in various tourist services, which produces profit and new jobs to the country including adjacent with tourism sectors of economy.

Competition at the market of tourist services is based on the knowledge of international regulatory basis, tourist management and marketing, full knowledge of tourist's demands (Nurmaganbetov, Kozhakhmetova & Nurgaliyeva, 2003).

The basic tourist product and competitive advantage of Kazakhstan are various natural resources, historical and cultural heritage.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The success of tourist destinations thus depends on their regional tourist competitiveness in terms of the attractiveness characteristics (or quality profile) that make up the tourist strength of a certain area (see also Agrawal, 1997; Butler, 1980; Hovinen, 2002). The dynamic nature of tourist channel competition requires destinations to be able to combine and manage their tourist resources in order to gain competitive advantage (see Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). The new needs of tourists impose destinations constantly to reconfigure, gain, and dispose of attractive resource able to meet the demand of a shifting market. This has led to the concept of dynamic capabilities; viz. organization's processes (in our case tourist destination) that ''integrate, reconfigure, gain and release resources to match and even

create market change'' (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000).

In the tourist field competition among territorial areas is usually not centered on the single aspects of the tourist product (environmental resources, transportation, tourism services, hospitality, etc.), but on the tourist destination as an integrated and compound set of tourist facilities for the client (Buhalis, 2000; Ritchie & Crouch, 2000). Consequently, in the recent literature the analysis and measurement of tourist destination competitiveness have attracted increasing interest (Alavi & Yasin, 2000; Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Enright & Newton, 2004; Kozak, 2002; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999; Ritchie & Crouch, 2000; Ruhanen, 2007).

Competitiveness of traveling and tourism sectors of the country is the set of factors and policy, which define the attractiveness for the development of tourism and traveling sector in this or that country.

COMPETITIVENESS ANALYSIS OF TOURISM SERVICES IN KAZAKHSTAN

Having a rich tourist potential Kazakhstan is characterized by poor level of tourism development. Its share in GDP is about 0.3 %. In 2011 the income from tourist activity was 145.3 b. tenge that is twice more than in 2008 (77.6 b. tenge). In January - September of 2012 the income was 91.8 b. tenge that is 11.5 % more than in January-September of 2011 (82.3 b. tenge). The number of employers in tourist organizations was 26 940. In 2011 1715 tourist organizations and tourist firms functioned in the country. 630.6 thousand people were served at that period, that is 29.6 % more (486.5 thousand people in 2010) than in previous year. In competitiveness rating in 2013 Kazakhstan took 88 position, getting 5 positions in comparison with 2011 (Table 1) (The travel and tourism competitiveness report 2013).

Table 1. Kazakhstan takes   in rating   2013

| Rating results | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 2013 | 2011 | Changes | 2009 | 2008 |
| Index of competitiveness in the sphere of tourism and traveling | 88 | 93 | 5 | 92 | 91 |
| *Regulatory basis of the sphere of tourism and* | *62* | *65* | *3* | *60* | *61* |
| Policy and regulation | 99 | 95 | -4 | 86 | 77 |
| Environmental stability | 124 | 129 | 5 | 117 | 120 |
| Safety and security | 99 | 108 | 9 | 76 | 73 |
| Healthcare and hygiene | 3 | 9 | 6 | 8 | 33 |
| Setting priorities in traveling and tourism | 90 | 93 | 3 | 101 | 83 |
| *Business-environment and infrastructure* | *79* | *88* | *9* | *96* | *96* |
| Infrastructure of air services | 82 | 86 | 4 | 89 | 85 |
| Infrastructure of surface transport | 80 | 96 | 16 | 87 | 91 |
| Infrastructure of tourism | 87 | 81 | -6 | 91 | 100 |
| Infrastructure of ICT | 48 | 61 | 13 | 72 | 77 |
| Price competitiveness in the sphere of tourism and | 73 | 92 | 19 | 93 | 80 |
| *Human, cultural and natural resources* | *119* | *123* | *4* | *121* | *112* |
| Human resources | 71 | 80 | 9 | 74 | 55 |
| Force of attraction to tourism and traveling | 121 | 126 | 5 | 112 | 79 |
| Natural resources | 120 | 107 | -13 | 106 | 115 |
| Culture | 117 | 118 | 1 | 116 | 101 |
| Total number of countries | 140 | 139 | | 133 | 130 |

Firstly, low rating is connected with problematic spheres in law regulation and policy of tourism development. Nevertheless, Kazakhstan improves its positions in such indexes as «Price

competitiveness» (+ 19 positions), «Quality of surface transport» (+16), but in such indexes as «Natural resources» Kazakhstan lost 13 positions, «Tourism infrastructure» l o s t 6 positions.

Kazakhstan's «tourist actives» (Table 2) should be considered as key competitive advantages. Totally 24 indexes were considered as competitive advantages in Kazakhstan. Among them such indexes as: «Healthcare and hygiene» (3 position), «Infrastructure of ICT» (48 position), «Cost of business setting up» (8 position), «Price for diesel gas oil» (14 position) and others (The travel and tourism competitiveness report 2013).

Table 2. Competitive advantages Kazakhstan

| 1 | Transparency of solved decisions in state sector | 32 |
|---|---|---|
| 2 | Cost of business setting up in % from GNI per capita | 8 |
| 3 | Solids concentration, mcg / м$^3$ | 27 |
| 4 | Combination  «Healthcare and hygiene» | 3 |
| 5 | Supportability of population by doctors for 1000 сітсерж горелыйіsens | 6 |
| 6 | Access to the improved sanitation, in  % of population | 48 |
| 7 | The number of in-patient beds for 1000 citizens | 7 |
| 8 | Government expenditure for the sphere of tourism and traveling, in % from state | 50 |
| 9 | Full-value of tourism and traveling   (0-120) | 28 |
| 10 | Seat availability in local air transport,    в местных авиаперевозках, million | 32 |
| 11 | Supportability of airports per million of population | 43 |
| 12 | ATMs, getting credit cards   Visa, per million of population | 30 |
| 13 | Combination «Infrastructure ICT» | 48 |
| 14 | Fixed telephone lines per 100 citizens | 46 |
| 15 | Mobile broadband subscriptions per 100 people | 29 |
| 16 | Mobile phone subscribers per 100 people | 11 |
| 17 | The price of diesel fuel | 14 |
| 18 | The scope and effect of taxation | 37 |
| 19 | Coverage of secondary education | 34 |
| 20 | The practice of hiring and firing | 24 |
| 21 | Spread SPID, in% of the adult population | 12 |
| 22 | Number of seats, which is part of the World Heritage | 45 |
| 23 | the quality of road infrastructure | 29 |
| 24 | Quality of ground infrastructure | 43 |

Domestic tourism is 32.2 %, inbound tourism is 5.7 %, international tourism is 62.1 % in the structure of tourist activity. If we compare these indexes to 2010 data, then we can notice the increase of international tourism from 56.4 % to 62.1 %, decline of domestic tourism from 35.4 % to 32.2 % in general structure of tourism service.

Growth in demand for domestic and inbound tourism in Kazakhstan is observed from 2000 till 2007, with consecutive recession in 2008 and 2009 according to the economic crises. Growth in demand for tourism  resumed in 2010 with the economic recovery a n d  reached the record level in 2011 with the increase of tourist arrival for 11.7 %.

Today, the domestic tourism market situation is characterized by the following factors: demand for tourism services in Kazakhstan is limited by citizens' financial potential, and small number of recreation facility, providing sufficient comfort level. Disagreement of interest in relationship of

domestic market tour operators and organizations of health-resort services of the country leads to the dissatisfaction in demand of Kazakhstan citizens.

In 2011 the structure of tourist arrival was characterized by the following indexes:
-    by the types of accommodation objects: 88.1 % of visitors stayed at hotels and 11.9 % of visitors in other places of accommodation; by the regions: 46.1 % of visitors are registed in Astana and Almaty cities, and then in Akmolinskaya, East Kazakhstan, Karagandy and other regions;
-    by the countries of origin: 79.5 % of visitors from Kazakhstan, 4.8 % of visitors from Russia, 2.4 % of visitors from the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland, 1.6 % of visitors from the USA, 1.4 % of visitors from Turkey, 1.3 % of visitors from Italy, 0.9 % of visitors from China, 0.9 % of visitors from Germany, 0.8 % of visitors from Holland and 6.4 % of visitors from other countries;
-    by goals of traveling: business and professional – 69.6 %, leisure – 25.0 %, visits of friends and relatives – 3.0 %, other goals – 2.4 %. Notably, that visitors from Kazakhstan travelled for leisure (30.7 %), and foreign visitors came to Kazakhstan for business and professional goals  (93.2 %).

It is clear, tourism in Kazakhstan generally depends on local population, and also business and professional trip of foreign visitors.

Analysis of inbound tourist flows in Kazakhstan shows that the Republic of Kazakhstan is still not so attractive for foreign tourists. Possessing the unique character, tourist product of Kazakhstan is not enough competitive and loses availability, service level and price of tourist services to foreign countries.

Astana and Almaty cities are the most important tourist centers. There is a great number of accommodation places in accordance with international standards. Places of accommodation which are offered beyond these cities do not respond to international standards of quality and aimed mostly at kazakh tourists. There is deficit of 3 star and 4 star hotels in big cities. Low level of international hotel business brands is observed at tourist market in Kazakhstan. All international hotel business companies are located in 4 business destinations: Astana, Almaty, Atyrau, Aktau.

Accommodation cost at hotels with high level of hotel business services is higher than at similar hotels in leading tourist destinations of other countries. The cost of a room at international brand 5 star hotels in Astana or Almaty is twice or thrice higher than in Europe. Price for services in other places of accommodation - pensionaries, tourist bases, lodgments, camping, hostels for visitors is much lower. Over-priced services are connected with low occupancy rate of accommodation, insufficient competitive environment and high depend from business tourists. The offered tourist services, including hotel business services, are provided with limited services and weak regulation.

It should be noted that high cost for accommodation and flight significantly increases the cost of a tour to Kazakhstan, and consequently decreases its price competitiveness at international market. Place accommodation facilities including hotels, pensionaries, resorts, and health resort institutions are characterized by high degree of depreciation. Today a great number of hotels offer services which do not respond to international standards because of category absence.   Basic level of tourist offers is still low because of insufficient level tourist product development and deficit of specialized services and conveniences for tourists. It is regarding of presence of visit-centers, installment of signs and pointers at tourists destinations.

Creation of developed competitive industry for provision of employment, stable growth of income for government and population by means of increase of inbound and domestic tourism volume, is impossible without corresponded investment. Investment to the basic capital in the sphere of tourism was 143.7 b. tenge in 2010, 178.9 b. tenge in 2011.

Table 3. Analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of tourism development in Kazakhstan

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|---|---|
| The favorable geographical position; a variety of natural resources; the variety of monuments of tangible and intangible cultural heritage; stable political environment and within the state; the state of the labor market; rapidly growing gross domestic product, the possibility of public funding; low cost of electricity and construction; the willingness of stakeholders to cooperate; willingness to create a public-private enterprise; the presence of national tourism / hotel chains. | Low density; shortage of skilled labor in the tourism sector; lack of investment in the tourism industry; insufficient state support tools,; administrative barriers to the development of tourism business; lack of infrastructure; lack of information about the tourist potential of Kazakhstan in the international market. |
| **Opportunities** | **Threats** |
| independent tourism; environmental and nature-based tourism; cultural tourism; active, sports and wellness facilities; low-budget trip to the region; implementation of tour packages through the Internet; development of unique local brands tourist destination, the potential development of small and medium-sized businesses; cooperation with the countries of the region for tourism development, public investment in the tourism, transport and logistics infrastructure, improving the quality requirements of the environment, nature and culture; transport technologies; introduction of innovative technologies in the field of communication and distribution | improving the quality requirements; long journey and passing control procedures at checkpoints on the state border of the Republic of Kazakhstan for a short rest; the high cost of traveling long distances; travel market fragmentation; similar tourism products in other regions; effective means of motivation and structure of entertainment; strong dependence on the volume of business travel; slow development of transportation; new global and regional crises; strong dependence on national funding; currency instability and high inflation. |

CONCLUSION

Analyzing the changes of the basic economic indexes of tourism development it is possible to make a conclusion that a potential of tourism in Kazakhstan is not entirely realized, because development of tourism sphere is directly depends on creation of modern competitive tourism complex including demanded infrastructure of transport and logistic system taking into account reconstruction of border entry points through State border of the Republic of Kazakhstan (automobile, air, railway), which will provide with wide opportunities satisfaction of domestic and foreign citizens demands in tourist services. Creation of such a complex will greatly contribute development of the country's economy by means of taxation in budget, flow-in of foreign currency, increasing of jobs, and also will provide control over maintainance and rational usage of cultural and natural heritage.

Tourist industry of Kazakhstan is able to realize its competitive advantages with bunching of market efforts at the definite kids of tourism and target markets. More competitive and attractive kinds of tourism are:
- resort or vacation tourism;
- alpine or mountain tourism;
- Great Silk Way tourism;
- business tourism.

These kinds of tourism are more perspective because of their attractiveness to tourists and have high economic returns from investment for a short period of time.

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# EVENT MANAGEMENT

# &

# RESIDENT ATTITUDES

# MEETING PLANNERS' PERCEPTION OF ATTRIBUTES OF CONVENTION SITE SELECTION

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## ABSTRACT

This study aims to identify the perceptions of meeting planners of important attributes of convention site selection. Focus group and on-site interviews were carried out from July 2012 to January 2013 with 11 meeting planners. Fifteen attributes of convention site selection and the reasons for their importance were identified: convention site accessibility, accommodation accessibility, local support, sightseeing/entertainment opportunities, shopping opportunities, food/ beverage accessibility, grade of accommodation, suitability of meeting facilities, suitability of exhibition facilities, experience, reputation, security/safety, destination image, period, and overall cost. The results of the study can be used to improve marketing strategies for hosting conventions.

Key words: attributes of convention site selection, meeting planners' perception, qualitative methods

## INTRODUCTION

The convention industry has evolved into one of the most important industries in many countries and cities. Indeed, the convention industry creates positive and direct economic impacts (Dimmock & Tiyce, 2001) on host countries and cities. The secondary effects of the industry (i.e., the indirect economic impacts)—notably, the brand improvement of host countries and cities, the expansion of political relationships, and improvement of self-esteem among citizens—are also remarkable (Fenish, 1992; Ghielman, 1995). Thus, many countries and cities continue to construct new convention centers, expand existing facilities, and establish professional institutions (e.g., the Convention and Visitors Bureaus) to hold and promote various conventions.

It is considered extremely important to understand "the attributes that meeting planners or Professional Convention Organizers (PCO) consider crucial" in selecting convention sites as these attributes play a significant role in the selection process (Comas & Moscardo, 2005). Accordingly, many previous studies have investigated the attributes of convention site selection (Tayor & Shortland-Webb, 2003; Chacko & Fenich, 2000; Crouch & Ritchie, 1998). However, while most of these studies highlight attributes that have significant impact on convention site selection and their relative importance, none address why certain selection attributes are considered more important than others.

This could be because the attributes of convention site selection investigated in these studies are exactly the same attributes and variables found in previous studies (Comas & Moscardo, 2005). Furthermore, these studies employed quantitative research methods that, therefore, cannot explain the "whys" of their results. Thus, the current study aimed to investigate the attributes that PCOs consider important when they are selecting convention sites, and to explain why these attributes are considered so important using qualitative methods, including a literature review, focus group interviews, and on-site interviews. Furthermore, this study aims to identify effective methods for establishing marketing strategies for hosting conventions.

RESEARCH METHOD

The current study was conducted by collecting and extracting attributes of convention site selection. Specifically, potential attributes were collected via the content analysis of 10 international studies, such as those by Crouch et al. (1998), who had extracted attributes of convention site selection from 64 previous studies. The collected attributes were then refined using primary, secondary, and tertiary group interviews and on-site interviews of PCO groups. The reasons why these attributes of convention site selection were important were determined by analysis of the interview responses.

The focus group interviewees were professionals in relevant industries and fields, with 10 or more years of professional experience. The focus group consisted of six PCOs who had selected convention sites in Asian regions—particularly Korea, China, and Japan—in the previous five years. The on-site group consisted of five meeting planners from South Korea's BEXCO, ICC JEJU, COEX, KINTEX, and EXCO. Consent was obtained from the interviewees and the interviews were recorded.

COLLECTING ATTRIBUTES OF CONVENTION SITE SELECTION

Attributes of convention site selection were collected from five international studies (Crouch & Ritchie, 1998; Couch & Louviere, 2004; Chen, 2006; Dipietro et al., 2008; Shonk et al., 2012), five Korean studies (Jun & Oh, 1999; Lee & Choi, 2003; Hong, 2004; Shin et al., 2008; 2006; Kwon, 2006), and the paper by Crouch et al. (1998) which is considered a foundational study in the research field of convention site selection. The analysis consisted of gathering and sorting selection attributes from nine different studies according to the 8 categories and 35 dimensions outlined by Crouch and Ritchie (1998). As a result, 8 categories with 68 attributes were listed as attributes of convention site selection.

MEETING PLANNERS' PERCEPTION OF ATTRIBUTES OF CONVENTION SITE SELECTION

The 8 categories and 68 attributes were reduced to 8 categories and 15 attributes by focus group interviews and on-site interviews with 11 meeting planners. The interviews also revealed why each attribute was considered important.

*Accessibility (convention site accessibility, accommodation accessibility)*: Attributes associated with accessibility, such as frequency and geographical location, were considered in previous studies to overlap in meaning with other attributes, such as time, airfare, and cost. Thus, these attributes were combined into one overarching variable: convention site accessibility. For example, one interviewee said:

> "The availability of an airport or train station near the convention site and the distance between the said stations and the convention site are important factors for the participants to decide whether to attend a convention. Further, when the convention committee must arrange shuttle buses traveling to and from the nearest airport or train station, the managing cost of convention is greatly increased."

Based on the results of the focus group interviews, some of these attributes, such as on-site/off-site accommodation, were integrated into a single attribute called accommodation accessibility. For example:

"The distance between the convention site and the participants' accommodation facilities immensely affects the rate of convention participation. It is particularly critical that such facilities are located within 20 minutes walking distance of the site."

*Local Support (local support):* Several attributes, such as a local chapter, a CVB/convention center, subsidies, and bureau assistance, were integrated into a single attribute called local support.

"It is impossible to hold conventions without local support. Such support is essential when holding large-scale conventions."

*Extra-conference Opportunities (sightseeing and entertainment opportunities, shopping opportunities, and food and beverage accessibility):* Sightseeing and entertainment opportunities garnered particular interest.

"Convention participation rates were highest when conventions were held at sites with many tourist attractions, such as Europe—particularly Italy and France—because participants preferred to attend conventions and enjoy tourist attractions at one location. In these cases, convention participants seemed to feel less financial pressure than they expected, even when the cost of attending such conventions was high."

Participants seem to pay great attention to food and beverage opportunities because conventions nowadays rarely provide three meals a day."

"Many participants considered shopping opportunities important because most convention-goers hardly have time to buy souvenirs for their family and friends."

*Accommodation Facilities (grade of accommodation):* The accommodation cost and accommodation convenience were combined into one attribute called the grade of accommodation.

"Accommodation is one attribute that cannot be neglected when selecting convention sites. This factor was particularly crucial for conventions where the number of female participants was high."

*Meeting Facilities (suitability of meeting facilities, suitability of exhibition facilities):* Both Meeting facilities and exhibition facilities were considered important attributes. In particular, PCOs who had experiences holding conventions for familiarizing and socializing considered exhibition facilities important.

"Whether for socializing or for exchanging information, a convention is meaningless without social interaction. Thus, all convention sites should have meeting facilities."

"In conventions focused solely on familiarizing and socializing, exhibition facilities may be used to hold banquets."

*Information (experience, reputation):* The holding experiences and reputation of the convention sites were also found to be important factors that PCOs considered when selecting convention sites.

"Sites holding many conventions in the past are adept at managing new conventions, whether or not the past conventions are similar to the present one. I personally consider this factor immensely important."

"The reputation of the convention sites greatly affects participation rates and is especially important when the convention runs on the registration fees of participants."

*Site Environment (security and safety, destination image):* Destination image is yet another important attribute to consider when selecting convention sites, as are the security and safety features of the site environment. The importance of the destination image depends on the nature of the convention.

"In the case of selecting the site for a convention focusing on the environment, it may be advantageous to choose an eco-friendly convention site."

"Convention sites that do not guarantee security and safety are exempted from site selection.

This is one way by which convention participants and sponsors make sure the sites they choose are secure and safe."

*Other Criteria (period, overall cost):* The hosting period and overall cost are also important attributes in selecting convention sites. In particular, the attributes of convention site selection may change depending on the hosting period.

"Convention site selection depends on the hosting period of each convention because convention-goers may engage more in tourism, shopping, and other similar activities near the convention site when hosting periods are longer. As for participation fees, they may be more flexible if the convention site is near tourist attractions: the fewer attractions there are, the smaller the number of convention attendees may be."

CONCLUSION

The present study aimed to identify the attributes that meeting planners consider important when selecting convention sites, and the reasons why they consider them so. It conducted a literature review, and held focus group and on-site interviews. As a result, eight categories of attribute of convention site selection were identified: accessibility, local support, extra-conference opportunities, accommodation facilities, meeting facilities, information, site environment, and other criteria. Fifteen attributes were also identified: convention site accessibility, accommodation accessibility, local Support, sightseeing/entertainment opportunities, shopping opportunities, food/ beverage accessibility, grade of accommodation, suitability of meeting facilities, suitability of exhibition facilities, experience, reputation, security/safety, destination image, period, and overall cost.

The reasons why each attribute was important were identified by analyzing the interviews held with 11 meeting planners. As a result, several marketing strategies for countries and cities who desire to hold conventions will be proposed. For instance, to host conventions anticipating a high female participation rate, countries and cities should promote their accommodation facilities located near the convention sites. In addition, countries and cities with relatively impressive exhibition facilities would be better able to target conventions focusing on familiarizing and socializing.

A better understanding of meeting planners' perception of attributes of convention site selection may enhance international competitiveness to host conventions, reduce wasteful expenditure, and result in improved services for both participants and organizers of conventions.

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# RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EXPECTATIONS AND VISITING BEHAVIOURS OF ACADEMIC MEETING PARTICIPANTS: IN LIGHT OF DESTINAION ATTRIBUTES

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## ABSTRACT

This study investigated relationships between academic meeting participants' expectations about hosting destinations' attributes and sites they visited. Questionnaires were delivered to academic meeting participants, and the respondents were classified based on their pre-trip expectations about the destination attributes and the sites they visited. The results showed that participants who expected to appreciate historical sites tended to visit diverse sites, while those who expected to enjoy the widest range of sites did not show a particularly tendency to visit various places. Types of attributes they expect to appreciate are suggested to be important for expanding their visiting areas.

Key words: academic meeting, destination attributes, expectation, visiting behaviour

## INTRODUCTION

MICE, which stands for meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions (Robinson et al., 2014), is a form of event tourism that targets business travellers, and is often considered contributory for acquisition of repeaters to the hosting destination (Kondo, 2007). Hence, MICE participants' experiences regarding not only event-related elements, such as facilities and services, but also the characteristics of hosting destinations are crucial for those who wish to leverage MICE to foster regional tourism.

Many tourism studies that focused on conventions investigated elements that might affect planners' choice of venues as well as participants' decision to participate or their satisfaction. Among these elements are accessibility and costs (Chen, 2006; Crouch & Louviere, 2004; Severt et al., 2007; You & Chon, 2008), safety and health (You & Chon, 2008), facilities and accommodation (Chen, 2006; Crouch & Louviere, 2004), events/ progarmmes and opportunities for networking (Breiner & Milman, 2006; Severt et al., 2007), services offered by staff (Severt et al., 2007), tours and cuisines (Chen, 2006), opportunities outside venues (You & Chon, 2008) , image of venues (Chen, 2006; You & Chon, 2008 ) and destinations (Breitner & Milman, 2006; Chen, 2006; You & Chon, 2008).

Most of these elements relate to the quality of the events. Although opportunities outside venues, image of venues and destinations seem relevant to the characteristics of the hosting destinations, their details were not focused on by the above-mentioned studies. Altogether, the meanings that the features of hosting destinations have for MICE participants have been insufficiently investigated. Therefore, this study aims to elucidate relationships between academic meeting participants' expectations about the attributes of hosting destinations and the sites they visited.

METHODS

Okinawa Convention Centre (OCC), the biggest convention centre in Okinawa prefecture, was selected. The prefercture is in the westernmost part of Japan and lies wholly within the subtropical oceanic climatic zone. The area in and around the prefecture used to be the independent Ryukyu Kingdom until the middle of the 19th century. Probably because of its remoteness, daytrips to Okinawa are not popular. Indeed, a recent survey report by the prefecture shows that tourists' average length of stay in Okinawa in 2011 was 2.75 nights. Therefore, OCC was considered s suitable location to contact participants, who would spare time to visit around some sites.

An academic association concerning health problems agreed to cooperate with the survey at their two-day academic meeting in November 2014. Three hundreds and eleven questionnaires were delivered to the participants, and 172 (55.3%) were returned and found usable. The respondents were asked whether they had expected to enjoy 18 elements of Okinawa, which were taken from Miyamori's (1995, 2001) and Nakamura's (2008) studies of Okinawa's images, before their trips and whether they had visited nine types of sites (Yes or No) during their stay.

RESULTS

Males and females comprised 44.8% and 51.2% of the total, respectively, and 20.3%, 28.5% and 28.5% were in their thirties, forties and fixities respectively. Their origins of departure were distributed uniformly with Tokyo accounting for the highest percentage of 14.0%. All the respondents stayed in Okinawa at least overnight with the average length of 2.19 nights. No one had resided in Okinawa. While 77.9% had visited Okinawa before, 75.6% had never participated in academic meetings held in Okinawa.

Table 1. Fisher's Exact Test (ratings for 18 elements concerning expectations by cluster)

| Item | Adjusted residual:positive (+) or negative ($-$) (only when absolute value $\geqq$1.96) | | | | $p$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Cluster 1-1 | Cluster 1-2 | Cluster 1-3 | Cluster 1-4 | |
| Music | - | - | | + | $p < .01$ |
| Traditional Dance | - | | | + | $p < .01$ |
| Culture/History | - | + | - | + | $p < .01$ |
| War/Peace | - | + | - | | $p < .01$ |
| Architecture/Heritage | - | + | - | + | $p < .01$ |
| Scenery | - | | | + | $p < .01$ |
| Subtropical Climate/Temperate | | - | | + | $p < .01$ |
| Marine Sports/Recreation | | - | | + | $p < .05$ |
| Sea/Beach | - | | + | + | $p < .01$ |
| Pavements with Stone | | | | | |
| Local Cuisines | | | - | + | $p < .01$ |
| Calm Atmosphere | | - | - | + | $p < .01$ |
| Safety | | | | | |
| Kindness of People | | | | + | $p < .05$ |
| Shopping Facilities | - | | | + | $p < .01$ |
| Resorts | - | - | + | | $p < .01$ |
| Dialects | | | | + | $p < .01$ |
| Customs | - | | | + | $p < .01$ |

The respondents were classified with the use of cluster analysis based first on their ratings about the 18 elements concerning their expectations and then on ratings about the nine sites that they had visited. The analyses generated four and two clusters respectively. Fisher's exact test was conducted to elucidate the characteristics of each cluster using cross tabulation that compared their ratings for each element with the clusters (see Tables 1 and 2).

As for Table 1, Cluster 1-1 tended not to expect any items. Cluster 1-2's tendency to expect history and culture and not to expect nature-related elements is illustrated, while cluster 1-3 tended to expect sea/beaches and resorts and tended not to expect history and culture. Cluster 1-4 tended to expect a wide range of elements. Turning to Table 2, Cluster 2-2 tended to have visited many sites, whereas Cluster 2-1 showed the opposite tendency. Fisher's exact test was also conducted to check whether each cluster was relevant to the respondents' profiles, their past visits and the length of their stay, but no significant results were obtained.

Finally, Fisher's exact test was conducted to examine the relationship between the clusters. It is observed in the results that the characteristics of Cluster 1-1, who tended to have had little expectation, relate positively to the characteristics of Cluster 2-2, who tended to have visited few places. Conversely, the characteristics of Cluster 1-2, who tended to have expected to enjoy historical elements related positively to the characteristics of Cluster 2-2, who tended to have visited various sites ($p < .05$).

Table 2. Fisher's Exact Test (ratings for nine sites by cluster)

| Item | Adjusted residual: positive ($+$) or negative ($-$) (only when absolute value $\geqq 1.96$) | | $P$ |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Cluster 2-1 | Cluster 2-2 | |
| U.S. Military Bases | - | + | $p < .05$ |
| Memorial Halls of History/Museums | | | |
| Theatres for Traditional Music or Dances | - | + | $p < .05$ |
| Architectures/Heritage | - | + | $P < .01$ |
| Sea/Beach | - | + | $p < .05$ |
| Parks | | | |
| Restaurants That Serve Local Cuisines | - | + | $P < .01$ |
| Local Bars | | | |
| Shopping Facilities | | | |

CONCLUSIONS

The results show that participants who expected to appreciate historical sites tended to visit diverse sites. Conversely, the tendency to expect to enjoy no or very limited elements can be considered relevant to a narrow range of places that participants visited. Nevertheless, participants'' expectations about various attributes of hosting destinations may not necessarily broaden the range of places they visit. Indeed, those who expected to enjoy the widest range of sites did not particularly tend to visit various places. Thus, types of destination attributes participants expect were suggested to be important for expanding their visiting areas. The absence of significant differences between clusters and the respondents' profiles, their past visits and length of stay also points to the necessity to focus on psychological tendencies, such as perceived importance of the events or attachment to the hosting destination.

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# ETHNIC ENCLAVE TOURISM AND EMPOWERMENT OF RESIDENTS: THE CASE OF BRAZILIAN AND JAPANESE RESIDENTS IN OIZUMI, JAPAN

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ABSTRACT

While the importance of resident empowerment has been acknowledged in the literature of sustainable tourism, a difficulty of putting the concept into practice is also identified because of heterogeneity of a community. The goal of this study is to compare levels of empowerment between two different ethnic groups residing in one community; namely Japanese and Brazilian residents in Oizumi. Data were collected from Japanese (N=444) and Brazilian (N=174) residents in Oizumi. The analysis indicated that Brazilian residents living in Oizumi feel more psychologically and socially empowered than do Japanese residents living in the same town, suggesting a shift of  the balance of power through tourism.

Key words: Resident empowerment, heterogeneous community, Ethnic neighborhood tourism, Japan

## INTRODUCTION

In the discussion of sustainable tourism, empowerment of the residents has been a core aspect (Ryan 2002). Empowerment broadly refers to gaining the "mastery over one"s affairs" (Rapparport 1987). Cole (2006) also explains empowerment as the top end of the community participation ladder. "Community," however, is not always a homogeneous entity; rather, it is often fractured along lines of kinship, gender, age, and ethnicity (Crehan, 1997). Such division, then, may influence who participates in the tourism development as well as those who are empowered versus those who are not.

The goal of this study is to compare levels of empowerment between two different ethnic groups residing in one community; namely Japanese and Brazilian residents in Oizumi Town, Gunma, Japan. Oizumi has been known as a manufacturing town, estimating 55% of residents work to some capacity within the industry (Tsuzuki, 2000). At the same time, the town has also been known for its high concentration of Brazilian immigrants (approximately 15% of the total population) since the early 1990. With the decline in the manufacturing industry, the town established a tourism bureau in 2007 in hopes to revitalize the town"s economy. To attract tourists, the town identified Brazilian culture as a unique resource upon which to capitalize. While some of past studies show that, in "ethnic neighborhood tourism," minorities feel disempowered by being excluded from the planning process of representing

their own culture, some cases illustrate that ethnic minority populations feel empowered through tourism development (Drew, 2010; Henderson, 2000). However, few studies empirically compare levels of empowerment between different ethnic groups within the same community. Therefore, this study examines whether Japanese and Brazilian residents differ in the levels of empowerment through development of ethnic neighborhood tourism centered on Brazilian culture.

TOURISM, RESIDENT EMPOWERMENT, AND HETEROGENEITY OF COMMUNITY

Resident empowerment has long been identified as a critical aspect of the sustainable tourism (e.g. Cole, 2006; Scheyvens, 1999, 2000). Sofield (2003), for example, acknowledges that without resident empowerment, sustainable tourism is difficult to achieve. Cole (2006, p. 631) also describes empowerment as the "top end of the participation ladder where members of a community are active agents of change and they have the ability to find solutions to their problems, make decisions, implement actions and evaluate their solutions."

The concept of empowerment has been broken down into several dimensions within the sustainable tourism literature (Ramos & Prideaux, 2014; Scheyvens, 1999 &2002). Particularly, when considering the empirical measurement of resident empowerment, scholars have focused on tourism development"s influence on the psychological, social and political empowerment of residents (Boley & McGehee, 2014; Ramos & Prideaux, 2014). Psychological empowerment within a tourism context relates to tourism"s impact on resident pride and self-esteem. Because of tourists traveling to their community to experience their natural and cultural resources, residents reevaluate the value of their community, which leads to increased general confidence (Di Castri, 2004; Scheyvens, 1999). Social empowerment, within a tourism context, is concerned with cohesion and collaboration of a community. It ensues when the community"s equilibrium is maintained or enhanced from tourism development (Boley & McGehee, 2014; Scheyvens, 1999). Finally, political dimension of empowerment has the closest ties to Rappaport"s (1987, p. 122) definition of empowerment focused on "gaining mastery over one"s affairs." Within a tourism context, political empowerment moves beyond the mere inclusion of residents to a focus on real distribution of power by providing residents with the opportunity to raise questions about tourism development, share their concerns, and ultimately influence the direction of tourism development (Scheyvens, 1999).

Although the importance of resident empowerment has been well rehearsed in the literature, scholars have also pointed out whether and how it can take place in practice considering heterogeneous nature of community (Caffyn & Lutz, 1999; Cole, 2006; Van der Duim, et al., 2006). It is argued that "community" is fractured along lines of kinship, gender, age, and ethnicity, and depending on a social position where ones are located, people have different set of interests and needs in tourism development as well as different levels of access to resources. Such division, then, may determine who participates in tourism development as well as those who are empowered versus those who are not. Indeed, gender inequality in participation and elite domination in decision making have been identified (e.g. Van Der Duim et al. 2006; Dogra & Gupta, 2012).

Ethnicity has also been a dimension that influences opportunities of empowerment through tourism (Buzinde, Santos, & Smith, 2006; Gallardo & Stein, 2007). Particularly, in the process of developing ethnic neighborhood tourism, local minorities are often excluded from the process because the development is led by the state or regional government as a part of a larger urban revitalization plan (Pang & Rath, 2007; Shaw, Bangwell, & Karmowska, 2004). On the contrary, Drew (2010) illustrates that local tour guides in urban ethnic neighborhoods in Chicago obtain a control on forms of information to share with tourists, bringing about a shift in the balance of power.

*Brazilians in Oizumi Town*

According to the Census conducted in 2010, 40,257 people, including 5,223 foreign-born residents, reside in Oizumi (Oizumi-town, 2014). Among the registered foreigners, 3,678 people are Brazilians, which is the highest concentration in Japan. Because of the high concentration of Brazilians, Oizumi

became to be known as a model of "multi-cultural community." However, in reality, there is a clear social boundary between the two groups within the town of Oizumi, much like other parts of Japan (Roth, 2002). Because many Brazilians accepted positions as unskilled factory workers, Japanese residents tend to have negative stereotypes of Brazilian immigrants as uneducated people of low social class, and keep their distance from Brazilians (Tusda, 2003). Ironically, in Brazil, Japanese Brazilians maintained a strong sense of identity as a racially and culturally distinct "Japanese minority" (Tsuda, 2000). However, in Japan, they were excluded as "foreigners." As a result, Japanese Brazilian immigrants became aware of their Brazilian orientation, and strengthen their Brazilian national identity as a counter-identity.

Immigration of Brazilians to Oizumi began in the late 1980s. To solve the serious labor deficiency caused by the booming economy at the time, the Japanese government amended the Immigration Control and Refugee Recognition Act in 1989, granting long-term residence visas to all Japanese emigrants, their descendants, and family members up to the third generation (Tsuda & Cornelius, 2004). Oizumi town, with the serious needs of a large number of factory workers, actively recruited Brazilian immigrants. With the severe decline of the manufacturing, in 2007, the tourism bureau was created by the chamber of commerce in Oizumi with the intent to revitalize the town"s economy. From its onset, the bureau identified Brazilian culture as a primary resource for tourism. To attract tourists, several events regarding Brazilian culture were organized by the tourism bureau, including „Gourmet Yokocho" and „Oizumi Samba Festival." An occasional walking tour and bus tour are also organized by the tourism bureau.

METHODS

Heads of households or their spouses residing in Oizumi were sampled from November 2013 to June 2014. An on-site, a self-administered survey instrument was distributed door-to-door to residents. Oizumi was reduced to 30 administrative areas designated by the town office of Oizumi, and 28 of them were visited. In total, 467 completed by Japanese residents and 183 completed by Brazilian residents.

To measure resident empowerment, the authors adopted 11 items from the *Residents Empowerment through Tourism Scale* (RETS) developed by Boley and McGehee (2014). The 11 items comprised the three factors including psychological empowerment (5 items), social empowerment (3 items), and political empowerment (3 items).

FINDINGS

To determine whether perceived empowerment differed across Japanese and Brazilian residents, three ANOVAs were undertaken (one for each dimension of empowerment). Significant differences were found across resident populations on two of the three RETS factors (Table1). The ANOVA for the psychological empowerment factor was significant ($F(1,625) = 237.54$, $p < 0.001$), revealing that Brazilians ($M = 5.50$) indicated a significantly higher degree of perceived psychological empowerment than their Japanese resident ($M = 3.91$) counterparts. The ANOVA for the social empowerment factor was also significant ($F(1,625) = 158.77$, $p < 0.001$), again showing that Brazilians ($M = 5.43$) claimed a significantly higher degree of perceived social empowerment than Japanese residents ($M = 4.04$). The final ANOVA concerning political empowerment was not significant ($F(1,625) = 0.20$, $p = 0.66$), as can be shown in nearly identical mean scores for Brazilian residents ($M = 3.49$) and Japanese residents ($M = 3.43$).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study examined the differences in levels of resident empowerment between Japanese and Brazilian residents in Oizumi Town, where ethnic neighborhood tourism centered on Brazilian culture has been developed. The findings indicated that Brazilian residents in Oizumi scored significantly

higher on the psychological factor than Japanese residents. Presumably, while the Brazilian identity was initially developed as a form of resistance to negative ethnic experiences in Japan among Brazilian immigrants (Tsuda, 2003), through tourism, Brazilians may now positively reevaluate their culture and identity and gain a greater sense of confidence. On the contrary, the Japanese residents do not feel an increased sense of pride through tourism. According to Tsuda (2003), Japanese residents have negative perceptions towards Brazilian residents because of the various conflicts in their everyday lives. If so, relying on Brazilian culture to represent their town may not heighten a sense of pride in their town among Japanese residents. Brazilian residents in Oizumi also had a higher score on the social factor of empowerment than Japanese residents. Arguably, having a common goal of being successful in tourism may strengthen the connection within the Brazilian community (Jamison, 1999). On the contrary, Japanese residents may feel a loss of cohesiveness because of tension between those who support tourism focusing on Brazilian culture and those who do not (Cole, 2006; Van der Duim et al., 2006).

Table 1. Differences in RETS factors and items[a] between Oizumi resident participants

| Factor and Item | Japanese Residents Mean | Brazilians Residents Mean | F | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Psychological Empowerment* | *3.91* | *5.50* | *237.54* | *0.00* |
| *Tourism in Oizumi...* | | | | |
| Makes me want to tell others about what we have to offer in Oizumi | 3.73 | 5.58 | 238.62 | 0.00 |
| Reminds me that I have a unique culture to share with visitors | 3.47 | 5.43 | 127.09 | 0.00 |
| Makes me want to keep Oizumi special | 4.03 | 5.55 | 166.13 | 0.00 |
| Makes me proud to be an Oizumi resident | 4.33 | 5.52 | 94.00 | 0.00 |
| Makes me feel special because people travel to see my city's unique features | 3.47 | 5.44 | 265.80 | 0.00 |
| *Social Empowerment* | *4.04* | *5.43* | *158.77* | *0.00* |
| *Tourism in Oizumi...* | | | | |
| Fosters a sense of 'community spirit' within me | 4.03 | 5.46 | 154.57 | 0.00 |
| Makes me feel more connected to my community | 3.95 | 5.41 | 148.71 | 0.00 |
| Provides ways for me to get involved in my community | 4.17 | 5.41 | 112.89 | 0.00 |
| *Political Empowerment* | *3.43* | *3.49* | *0.20* | *0.66* |
| *I feel like...* | | | | |
| I have a voice in Oizumi tourism development decisions | 3.41 | 3.33 | 0.25 | 0.62 |
| I have the opportunity to participate in the tourism planning process in Oizumi | 3.40 | 3.52 | 0.68 | 0.41 |
| I have an outlet to share my concerns about tourism development in Oizumi | 3.48 | 3.62 | 0.86 | 0.35 |

[a] MANOVA model Wilks's $\Lambda = 0.61$, $F(11,615) = 35.59$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.39$

[b] Items were rated on a 7-point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*.

There were no significant differences on the political factor between the two groups. The scores on this factor are relatively low in both groups. Shibasaki (2008) maintains that the importance of community participation was not recognized in Japan until recently. Therefore, it can be argued that residents in Oizumi perceive a general lack of opportunities to participate in tourism planning processes.

This study was the first to quantitatively compare perceived empowerment between dominant ethnic group and ethnic minority group within the same community. Ethnic neighborhood tourism in Oizumi is, however, still at a developing stage. Therefore, future studies need to compare levels of resident empowerment at areas where ethnic enclave tourism is successful. Such study may allow us to learn more about changes in power structure in destinations of various developmental stages across Butler's (1980) life-cycle. In addition, while levels of empowerment between Brazilian residents and Japanese residents in this study differ, the reasons for the differences were not explored.

Thus, it would be significant to investigate why they feel the way they do regarding their perceived level of empowerment.

Overall, the findings of this study showed that levels of empowerment can differ within a single community depending on social position and type of tourism promoted. When only one group is empowered, however, it may stimulate tension with other group(s) over access to limited resources (Jamison 1999). Therefore, the next step for tourism development in Oizumi may be involving more Japanese residents in the tourism planning process even though the product is predominantly Brazilian themed.

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# 2014 FIFA WORLD CUP IN BRAZIL: LOCAL RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF IMPACTS, EMOTIONS, ATTACHMENT, AND THEIR SUPPORT FOR THE EVENT

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationships between local residents' attachment and their emotions 'positive and negative' towards the World Cup, residents' emotions and their perceptions of impact from the FIFA 2014 World Cup Games, and residents' perceptions of impact and their support for the event. For conducting this study, data collection was carried out using a stratified random sampling approach from a sample of residents (n=3770) located in 12 cities in Brazil that hosted the World Cup games during the spring of 2014. The LISREL 8.7 structural equation analysis package was used to analyse the data. The results suggest that there is a direct relationship between residents' attachment and both positive and negative emotions towards the event; between positive emotions and both the perceptions of positive impacts and the perceptions of negative impacts and so forth. The study also identified a direct significant impact between positive impact perceptions and support for mega-event and between positive negative perceptions and support for mega-event.

Key words: FIFA 2014 World Cup, positive and negative emotions, impacts of and support for the event

INTRODUCTION

Mega-events such as FIFA World Cup, Olympic Games, Rugby World Cup etc. have an impact on long term tourism and are one of the major contributors of tourism growth. They also act as a catalyst in stimulating economy and also contribute to social and cultural change to the host nations (Pappas, 2014; Fourie & Gallego, 2011; Hiller, 2000; Hiller, 1998). Such events are also expected to provide massive opportunity and challenges for tourism service providers and local communities. While mega-events give an impetus for local development, revenue generation, city branding, innovation and enterprise; they also

involve substantial capital and lead to negative environmental impacts. In spite of possible negative impacts, prospective host communities invest significant amounts of time and resources in preparing the bids and winning the competition to host such mega-events (Gursoy et al., 2011; Ritchie & Aitken, 1985) as some countries consider such successes as a means of global image creation to make the destination more attractive to future tourists (Lee et al., 2005), their international publicity, recognition and an opportunity to showcase their economic maturity (Smith, 2005). Pre-event process e.g. bid preparation, submission and award processing can be complex, time consuming and costly. Such events can lead to the forward linkage e.g. short or long-term employment generation and enhanced tourism infrastructure through improved transport, backward linkage such as mega-event idea generation and development of background objectives, and parallel linkages e.g. side-effects of the mega-event (Hiller, 1998).

Studies related to residents' perceptions of tourism generally suggest that tourism's positive influence on social and environmental impacts might enhance resident's support for tourism and negative influence might lead to resident's withdrawal of support for tourism activities (Long & Kayat, 2011). Events such as sports, business, and festivals are some of the important motivators of tourism and they play a major role in the development and marketing of tourist destinations (Getz 2008). However, the research on the impact of mega-events on local communities and the extent of community support for those events is still limited (Kim & Petrick, 2005). Organising such events involves the construction of facilities and infrastructure and the analysis of events includes the cost of building infrastructure and event associated facilities, revenue generation from visitor spending, receipts from event, media exposure, capital accumulation through corporate sponsorships and the commodification of entertainment (Hiller, 2000; Whitson & Macintosh, 1996). Hosting mega-events such as World Cup, Olympics, Winter Olympics involves host region's/country's commitment of resources e.g. financial, physical, managerial and technical in a significant way (Jeong & Faulkner, 1996). The planners and architects of such events normally make decisions for such investments in the hope that successful implementation of mega-events can led to positive outcomes such as enhancement of the profile of the city/region 'image' in the international arena, development of infrastructure, unity within the host community, increased opportunities to meet foreign travellers and enjoy sports, and the promotion of tourism globally (Kim & Petrick, 2005; Jeong & Faulkner, 1996). Generally it has been reported that such events have a long-term tourism and urban development benefits including community building, urban renewal, and cultural development in fostering national identity (Getz, 2008). However, such events also cause considerable inconvenience to the local community resulting in short-term economic costs (Jeong & Faulkner, 1996).

Some of the recent studies that have focused on mega-events include impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on urban development (Pillay & Bass, 2008; Bob & Swart, 2009), impacts of the Beijing 2008 Olympic games (Zhou & Ap, 2009; Gursoy, Chi & Chen, 2011; Jin, et al., 2011), impacts of the ICC Cricket World Cup 2007 on Barbados (Lorde, Greenidge & Devonish, 2011), hosting mega-events and Londoners' support for the 2012 Olympic games (Pappas, 2014; Prayag et al., 2013), understanding of residents' perceptions throughout a mega-event's full life cycle (Li, Hsu & Lawton, 2014), examination of the residents' perceptions of psychic income and social capital before and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (Gibson et al., 2014) and so forth.

Based on the perceptions of residents past studies have generally reported positive impacts of mega events (Jones, 2012). However, the residents' perceptions of impacts before and after the games can change (Kim & Petrick, 2005). For example, based on a study of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, changes in local residents' perceptions of impacts suggested that benefits generated were less than they had expected and the costs associated were higher than they had anticipated (Gursoy et al., 2011). Contrary to these findings, Lorde et al. (2011) reported that in Barbados the perceived benefits after the ICC Cricket World Cup 2007 had outweighed the costs although pre-games expectations were that the costs would outweigh the cost of hosting the event. In terms of psychic income measured as event related pride for hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, there was a significant increase in the perceptions of residents of five host cities which, however, was not the case with social capital dimension (Gibson et al., 2014). In the case of Tour de France Cycle Race 2007

event organised in the city of Canterbury, residents' support for the decision to host the event was remarkable despite the potential for various negative impacts as the City Council launched a very successful campaign for the event (Bull & Lovell, 2007). Pre- and post- games perceptions of Barbadian residents on the direct and indirect impacts of hosting the ICC Cricket World Cup 2007 found significant statistical differences between their pre- and post-games perceptions for various impact factors including benefits of cultural exchange, social problems, economic benefits, natural resource and cultural development, traffic congestion and pollution, price increases, and construction costs (Lorde et al., 2011).

Although there are several studies dealing with mega-events, there is not much available that deals with the residents' emotions regarding such events. Therefore, this study has the objective of advancing theoretical understanding of local residents' support for mega events incorporating their emotions both positive 'loving, caring, glad, inspired' and negative 'increased littering, destruction of natural environment, increased noise, pollution and crime'. This study examines these relationships using data from the 2014 FIFA World Cup event in Brazil.

METHOD

In achieving the above research objectives, a structural modeling approach was employed on a data set collected from a sample of the residents located in 12 cities that hosted the 2014 World Cup games in Brazil during the spring of 2014. The sample population consisted of individuals who reside in the cities that hosted the 2014 World Cup games in Brazil. The 12 cities that hosted at least one World Cup game included  Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Belo Horizonte, Porto Alegre, Brasília, Cuiabá, Curitiba, Fortaleza, Manaus, Natal, Recife, Salvador. First, the number of usable responses was determined from each city based on the margin of error estimations. Researchers aimed to collect at least 250 usable responses from each city. The number of targeted usable responses was higher in cities with larger populations. Afterwards, a stratified random sampling approach was utilized to determine the sample from each city. Gender, age and location of the principal residents were used to determine the number of responses from each population strata. The usable number of responses were 3770 from the 12 cities.

Survey instrument used in this study was developed following the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991). A number of items to measure each construct were identified from the literature. Using a back translation approach, items were translated into Portuguese. Afterwards, a group of tourism experts assessed the content validity of these items. They were asked to provide comments on content and understandability of those items. They were then asked to edit and improve those items to enhance their clarity and readability. They were also asked to identify any of those scale items that are redundant and to offer suggestions for improving the proposed scale. After checking the content validity of the survey instrument, two pretests were conducted on local residents in Sao Paulo, Brazil. Based on the outcome of the pretests, the survey instrument was finalized.

The survey instrument consisted of eight sections. This study, however, utilized data from four sections that focused on community attachment to the event, residents' emotions toward the event, residents' perceptions of the event and their support for the event. A total of five items were used to measure community attachment to the event. Local residents' emotions towards the 2014 World Cup were measured with 13 items; seven measuring positive emotions and six measuring negative emotions. A total of eleven items were used to measure local residents perceptions of mega event impacts and three items were used to measure support for mega events. Items for measuring perceptions of mega event impacts and support for mega events were adopted from Prayag et al. (2013), Gursoy & Kendall (2006) and Kim, Gursoy & Lee (2006). All of the items were measured on a five-point Likert type scale with "strongly disagree" at the low end and "strongly agree" at the high end.

Data for this study were collected using personal interviews from the residents of the 12 selected cities in Brazil utilizing an intercept approach. A professional data collection company was contracted to collect data from each of the selected cities. Sample frame included residents who reside in those 12 cities. The interviewers were properly identified with the badge of the company and tablets were used for data collection. Interviewers were asked to approach every tenth person passing through. They were instructed to ask the person if s/he was interested in participating in a survey that measures local residents' perceptions of the 2014 World Cup. If the answer was a no, interviewers were instructed to intercept the next person and ask the same questions until they identified an individual who agreed to participate in the survey. After the individual agreed, the purpose of the study was explained in detail by the interviewer and a personal interview using a structured survey instrument was conducted. Each question was asked to the respondent by the interviewer and his/her responses were recorded on a tablet. The survey company called back around 20 percent of respondents from each city to confirm the validity of the responses after each interviewer submitted the data they collected. A total of 3,770 valid questionnaires were obtained from the residents of 12 cities that hosted at least one 2014 World Cup game.

RESULTS

The fit of the measurement model and the fit of the structural model were tested using the LISREL 8.7 structural equation analysis package. The maximum likelihood (ML) method of estimation in combination with the two-stage process was utilized to analyze the data (Nunkoo, Gursoy & Ramkissoon, 2013). As fit indices, the chi-square statistics (and associated 'p' values) were examined first. However, because of the large effect of sample size on the chi-square values (and associated 'p' values), other fit indices were also selected to assess the fit of the models (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, & Gursoy, 2013). These fit indices were the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI); the normed-fit index (NFI), the non-normed-fit index (NNFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), the incremental Fit Index (IFI) and the relative fit index (RFI). Two indices that are proposed to measure the parsimony of the model were also reported: parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI).

All of the composite reliabilities were found to be above 0.70, indicating that each construct had acceptable reliability. The overall fit indices of the measurement model were as follows: $\chi^2$ (446) = 1,712.05 (p = 0.0); goodness-of-fit index = 0.97; adjusted goodness-of-fit index = 0.97; the normed-fit index = 0.99; the non-normed-fit index = 0.99; the comparative fit index = 1.00; the incremental fit index = 1.00; the relative fit index = 0.99; the parsimonious goodness-of-fit index = 0.82; and the parsimonious normed-fit index = 0.89. Further, the indicators of two residuals, root mean square residual (RMR) and standardized root mean square residual (standardized RMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were 0.070, 0.030, and 0.027 respectively.

Two types of validity measures, convergent and discriminant validity, were examined. Convergent validity was tested by examining 't' values of each item's factor loading on its underlying construct (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). All t-values associated with each completely standardized factor loading for each indicator were found to be higher than 1.96; suggesting significance at 0.05 significance level, which indicated that convergent validity of all the indictors were established. Discriminant validity was tested by comparing intercorrelations of factors with the square root of the average variance (i.e. variance extracted estimate) for each factor (Hatcher, 1994). Since the estimate for variance extracted for each factor was at least 0.50 and exceeded any of the intercorrelations of the factors, discriminant validity of all constructs were established (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Most of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the proposed theoretical model were found to be above the recommended threshold values. The $\chi^2$ value with 452 degrees of freedom was 2,546.97 (p = 0.0), which was lower than the acceptable level. However, all other fit indices indicated that the proposed hypothesized structural model fits well to the data: goodness-of-fit index = 0.96; adjusted goodness-of-fit index = 0.95; the normed-fit index = 0.99; the non-normed-fit index = 0.99; the comparative fit index = 0.99; the incremental fit index = 0.99; the relative fit index = 0.99; the parsimony goodness-

of-fit index = 0.82; and the parsimony normed-fit index = 0.90. Further, the indicators of two residuals, root mean square residual (RMR) and standardized root mean square residual (standardized RMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were 0.088, 0.037, 0.035 respectively.

Both the direct and indirect estimated standardized path coefficients for the proposed model were also determined. The results indicated direct relationships between attachment and both positive (direct effect = 0.39, *t-value* = 10.04, *p* < .05) and negative emotions (direct effect = 0.84, *t-value* = 48.04, *p* < .05); between positive emotions and both the perceptions of positive impacts (direct effect = 0.69, *t-value* = 31.32, *p* < .05) and the perceptions of negative impacts (direct effect = -0.37, *t-value* = -6.97, *p* < .05); between negative emotions and both the perceptions of positive impacts (direct effect = -0.33, *t-value* = -20.23, *p* < .05) and the perceptions of negative impacts (direct effect = 0.32, *t-value* = 3.14, *p* < .05). As expected, a direct significant impact was identified between positive impact perceptions and support for mega events (direct effect = 0.88, *t-value* = 35.38, *p* < .05) and between positive negative perceptions and support for mega events (direct effect = -0.09, *t-value* = -5.16, *p* < .05). A direct negative relationship between positive impact perceptions and negative impact perceptions was also identified (direct effect = -0.21, *t-value* = -3.14, *p* < .05).

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the relationships between local residents' attachment and their emotions 'positive and negative' towards the FIFA 2014 World Cup Games, along with their emotions and perceptions of impact from the Games, and their support for the event. The aim of this study was to advance theoretical understanding of local residents' support for mega events by developing a mega-event support model using data from a sample of residents located in 12 cities in Brazil that hosted the World Cup games during the spring of 2014. The analysis was carried out using the LISREL 8.7 structural equation analysis package. The results from this analysis indicated that there is a direct relationship between residents' attachment and both positive and negative emotions towards the event; between positive emotions and both the perceptions of positive impacts and the perceptions of negative impacts; between negative emotions and both the perceptions of positive impacts and the perceptions of negative impacts. The study also identified a direct significant impact between positive impact perceptions and support for mega-event and between positive negative perceptions and support for mega-event. The results also indicate an evidence of direct negative relationship between positive impact perceptions and negative impact perceptions. To get further insights into these relationships and determine why different people perceive the impact of such events in different ways, it will be interesting to extend this study in other mega-events such as the Olympics or the World Cup Cricket.

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# A STUDY ON HONG KONG RESIDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARD MAINLAND CHINESE VISITORS

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## INTRODUCTION

China's outbound tourism increased from 20.2 million departures in 2003 (China Economic Net, 2004) to 98.2 million in 2013 (China National Tourism Administration, 2014), averaging a 17 percent annual growth. The large volume of Chinese travelers spent a record US$102 billion in 2012, making them the largest spender in international tourism globally (World Tourism Organization, 2013). The major drivers behind the rapid growth in Chinese outbound travel are the relaxation of government restrictions on international travel, growing disposable income, increased leisure time as a result of an overhaul of the timing of public holidays and relaxation in foreign exchange controls (Prideaux & Tse, 2014). Hong Kong has been consistently the top destination for Chinese travelers since 2006 (China National Tourism Administration, 2006-2013). Over 40 percent of outbound Chinese visitors chose Hong Kong as their destination in 2013 (China National Tourism Administration, 2014). The popularity of Hong Kong as a destination among Chinese visitors is due to the geographical proximity, historical connections, family networks, convenience of travelling, and Hong Kong's long standing reputation of being a shopping paradise. In fact, mainland China that has been the major source market driving tourism growth in Hong Kong. Mainland China visitor arrivals have grown at an average annual rate of 17.4 percent, from 1.9 million in 1994 to 40.7 million in 2013. By 2013, the number of mainland Chinese visitors has risen to such a level that they account for over three-quarter of the total visitor arrivals in Hong Kong. While tourism is recognized as a pillar industry making a direct contribution of 8.9 percent to the GDP (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2014) in Hong Kong, the rapid growth in mainland Chinese visitors has also created various concerns and conflicts within the destination. The concerns range from air pollution and traffic congestion generated from the awaiting tour buses, to the nuisances created by large crowds of tour groups, to the perceived price hikes as a result of tourist shopping and parallel trading. The attitude of Hong Kong residents toward mainland Chinese visitors has become an issue which may become an impediment to tourism growth in the destination.

It is against this background that this study was conducted with the overall aim of gauging the Hong Kong residents' attitude toward mainland Chinese visitors. It has been noted that the concerns and conflicts were mostly reported by newspapers and in social media as individual cases and the communication subsequently became viral. The reports can be described as anecdotal in nature, and it would be helpful to find out the extent of such concerns and conflicts. A question to be answered is whether the negative sentiments are due to the sheer volume of visitors in general or related specifically to the origin of visitors. The objectives of this study are (1) to gauge Hong Kong residents' attitude toward inbound

tourism, (2) to gauge Hong Kong residents' attitude toward Chinese visitors in particular, and (3) to draw policy implications from the findings. The findings of this study will have implication not only in Hong Kong but to other governments and policy makers who are interested in opening up their destinations to more Chinese visitors as well.

MAINLAND CHINESE VISITORS IN HONG KONG

Hong Kong has experienced strong growth in inbound tourism in the past two decades: visitor arrivals increased from 9.3 million in 1994 to 54.3 million in 2013, averaging an annual growth rate of 9.7 percent. The visitors can be categorized by source markets into (1) Long Haul including the Americas, Europe, Africa, the Middle East, Australia, New Zealand and South Pacific; (2) Asia excluding mainland China; and (3) Mainland China. A closer look at the arrival statistics shows that among the three source markets it is mainland China which has been driving the growth. Mainland China visitors have grown at an average annual rate of 17.4 percent, from 1.9 million in 1994 to 40.7 million in 2013, accounting for three-quarter of the total visitor arrivals. In the same period, visitors from Long Haul markets and Asia excluding mainland China have grown by an average annual rate of 3.1 percent only. In recent years, the growth of mainland Chinese visitors was so strong that it was able to lift the total visitor arrivals despite the drop of visitors from the other two markets. Figure 1 shows the trend of visitor arrivals by source market in the 20 years from 1994 to 2013.

Figure 1. Visitor arrivals by source market in Hong Kong, 1994 – 2013
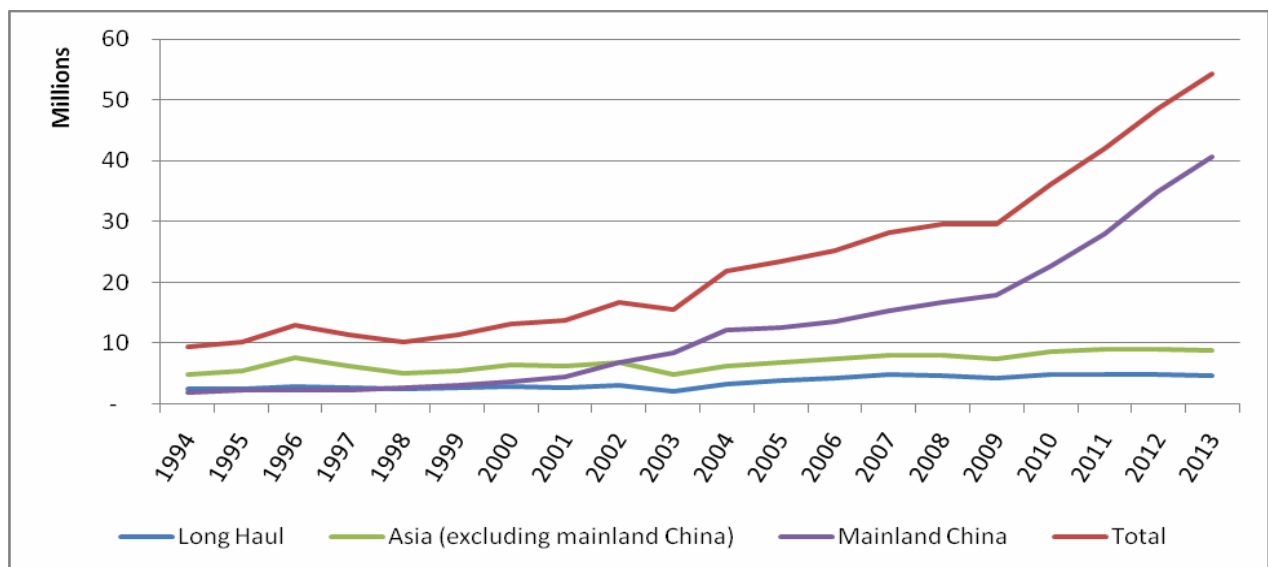


Source: Hong Kong Tourism Board (1994-2013)

The introduction of Individual Visit Scheme (IVS) in 2003 is the key contributing factor for the influx of mainland Chinese visitors in Hong Kong. While the original intention of IVS introduced by the Chinese government was to add impetus to the weak economy after the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) pandemic in 2003 (Tse, 2013), the policy turns out to have significant impact on the tourism landscape. Prior to the enactment of IVS, Chinese residents can only travel to Hong Kong via group tours or with special purposes such as business, education, and cultural exchange. In contrast, the IVS allows residents in approved cities to travel to Hong Kong as independent persons. The IVS was first granted to ten cities in 2003, and by 2007, it was extended to include a total of 49 mainland cities (Tourism Commission, 2014). The scheme was further relaxed in 2010 allowing 2.4 million Shenzhen residents multiple-entries effectively unrestricted access to Hong Kong (Shenzhen Government, 2010).

The introduction of the Individual Visit Scheme in 2003 was in fact a turning point in inbound tourism

in Hong Kong. By the end of 2003, the number of mainland Chinese visitors had grown so much that it overtook the number of non-mainland Chinese visitors. Not only did the IVS contribute to the strong growth of mainland Chinese visitors, it has also given rise to a particular type of travelers - the same-day visitors. While tourist is defined as visitor who stays in a destination overnight (World Tourism Organization, n.d.), these same-day Chinese visitors return to the mainland or leave for another destination on the same day of crossing the mainland-Hong Kong border. It is noted that while both overnight and same-day visitors have been rising, the rate of growth for same-day visitors is much higher than that of overnight visitors. By the end of 2011, the number of same-day visitors surpassed that of overnight visitors. In 2013, the number of same-day visitors is 38 percent higher than that of overnight visitors.

The same-day Chinese visitors and the overnight Chinese visitors have quite distinct profiles. While vacation is the main reason to visit Hong Kong for both overnight and same-day visitors, the overnight visitors tend to travel to Hong Kong for the purpose of visiting friends and relatives more than same-day visitors. In addition, more same-day visitors pass through Hong Kong en route to other destinations compared to overnight visitors. Their spending and spending pattern also differ. Overnight visitors spend triple the amount of what same-day visitors would spend per capita. Overnight visitors tend to spend more on luxury goods such as jewelry, garments and leather goods, while same-day visitors spend more on daily necessity items such as food, alcohol and tobacco, personal care items and cosmetic goods (See Figure 2). It is believed that most of the same-day visitors are commuting for employment or shopping for daily necessity items, and they are not regular tourists for leisure or business travelers.

Figure 2. Shopping items of overnight and same-day mainland Chinese visitors
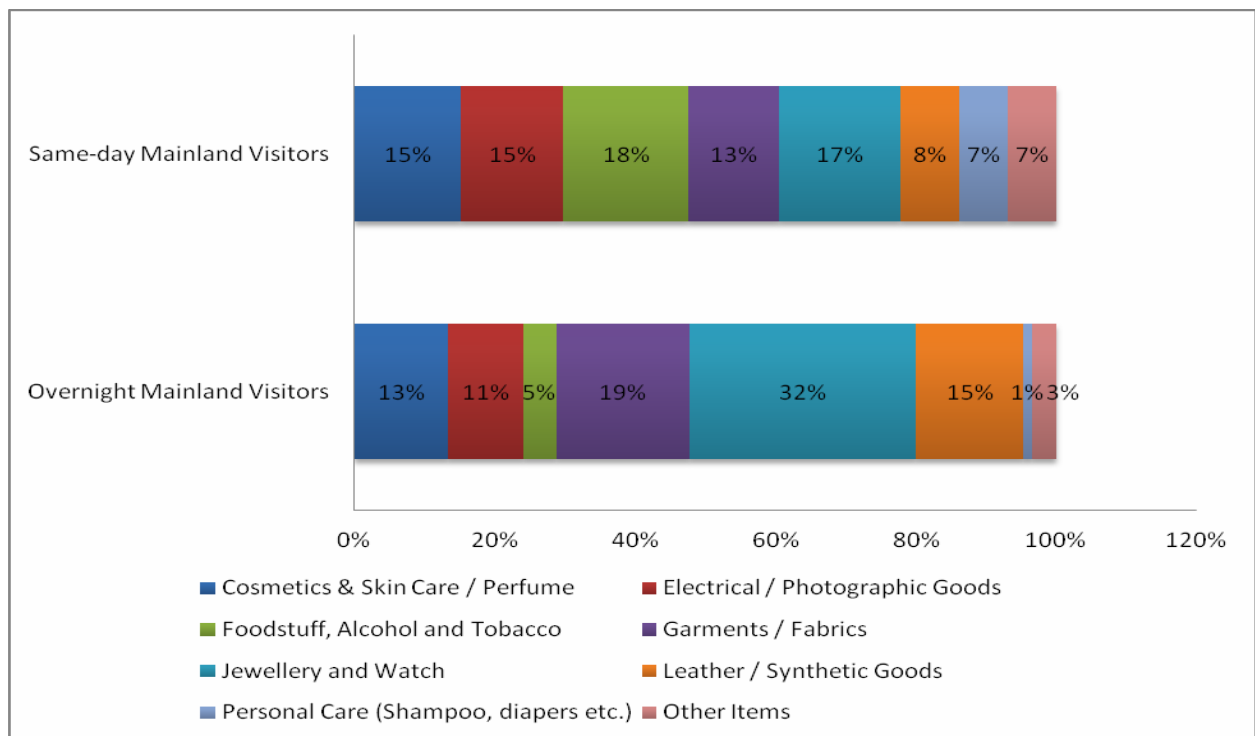


Source: Hong Kong Tourism Board

The spending power of the mainland Chinese visitors and their contribution towards Hong Kong's economy has been well recognized. In 2013, they spent a total amount of HK$217 billion (US$28 billion): HK$153 billion (US$20billion) by overnight visitors and HK$64 billion (US$8 billion) by same-day visitors (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2014).

Despite the economic benefits, the sheer volume of mainland Chinese visitors has created various concerns and conflicts within the community. It was reported that tour buses and tour groups caused nuisance to local community in other areas such as Tokwawan. Tokwawan is one of the designated shopping areas for mainland Chinese tour groups and there were incidents of tour groups alighting at prohibited areas, and at times, causing inconvenience to local residents as the entrance to the building were blocked off. While waiting to be seated at restaurants, or waiting for tour buses, the large crowds of tourists often occupy the pavements, create a great deal of noise and left litter behind, causing nuisance to the locals (Luo, 2013). In addition, Chan (2014) pointed out that the large tour groups often occupy pavements and the passers-by have to resort to walking on the road, endangering their safety. Border shopping by same-day visitors tends to target daily necessity products and have created negative impacts to the locals, such as increase in product prices and shortages. Some of these same-day visitors are parallel traders and they make a number of trips each day in order to ship as much as goods as possible. Areas where same-day visitors and parallel traders are more concentrated, the prices of products were found to be up to 20 percent higher than the respective products from other districts (Lu, 2013). Moreover, retailers and residents blamed these same-day visitors and parallel traders for shortages of goods, and they wish to see restrictions on the IVS multi-entry scheme (Lau, 2013). There have also been reports on illegally parked tour buses with engines running while waiting for the return of tourists at scenic spots such as Repulse Bay (Kao, 2014).

The issues have led some extremists to take up anti-mainland visitors movements and even harass mainland Chinese visitors during their protests (Chan, 2014). In one of the protests organized to urge the government to curb the number of mainland Chinese visitors, the protesters branded the mainland Chinese visitors as 'locusts' for overwhelming the city and its resources, and scuffles broke out between them and passer-bys in Canton road, where luxury stores are concentrated (Siu, 2014). A survey revealed that over 60 percent of the citizens in Hong Kong admitted that the volume of mainland China visitors has reached such a level that they caused inconvenience towards their daily lives, 57.2 percent believed that the number of mainland Chinese visitors should be controlled, and 61.8 percent agreed to place a cap on the number of mainland China visitors (Hong Kong Institute of Asia-Pacific Studies, 2014).

It is forecast that Hong Kong's inbound tourism will reach 70 million by 2017, with the bulk being Mainland Chinese visitors (Shadbolt, 2014). Therefore the trend of rapid growth in mainland Chinese visitors is likely to continue in Hong Kong, and the perceived concerns and conflicts in the community may well persist. It would be helpful to find out the extent of such concerns and conflicts, and whether they are due to the sheer volume of visitors in general or related specifically to the origin of visitors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There have been a large number of studies conducted on China's outbound tourism in the past two decades: some 80 papers covering various aspects of Chinese outbound tourism, and among them 18 papers on Chinese visitors in Hong Kong.

Zhang and Heung (2002) gave a historical perspective of the Chinese outbound tourism in first commencing with granting visitations to Hong Kong and Macau for business purpose in the mid-1980s. In 1990, relaxation in tourism policy then allowed Chinese citizens to travel for leisure purpose to Hong Kong, Macau and several Southeast Asian countries such as Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand. From then onward, the outbound tourism policy became more liberal and non-Asia countries such as Australia and New Zealand are also recognized as approved destinations to visit. Wang and Sheldon (1996) and Zhang and Qu (1996) attributed the increasing trend of mainland Chinese traveling to Hong Kong to the higher disposable income generated by the growing economy and also the relaxation of travel policy. The growth potential of this market was also recognized Zhang and Qu (1996) and Zhang and Heung (2002), given that there will be continued liberalization of travel policies and economic boom. Qu and Lam (1997) concluded that 'disposable income per capita' and 'relaxation of visa requirements' are two significant factors which influence the travel demand to Hong Kong, amongst the other variables such as 'cost of travel', 'relative price levels in the two

countries and in alternative destinations' and 'currency exchange rates'. In the study of motivation, Zhang and Lam (1999) found that knowledge, prestige and enhancement of human relationships were recognized as the most important push factors, while hi-tech image, expenditure and accessibility were considered the most important pull factors. Also using push and pull theory, Hsu and Lam (2003) confirmed that sight-seeing was the most important motivation factor and expensiveness a barrier factor. Li, Wen and Leung (2011) investigated the travel motivation and behavioral patterns of Chinese female travelers to Hong Kong and concluded that knowledge, prestige, social relationship, rest and relaxation, and adventure and excitement are the push factors, while modern image, natural environment and attractions, safety and cleanliness, ease of tour arrangement and shopping are the pull factors. Huang and Hsu (2005) found that the main motivation of visiting Hong Kong was shopping, and other motivations include knowledge enhancement, curiosity, family togetherness and kinship enhancement, sightseeing, experiencing different culture and lifestyle, and visiting friends and relatives. Factors which discourage mainland Chinese from visiting Hong Kong included time, money, language, complexity of getting travel documents and improper accommodation supplies.

There have been various studies on mainland Chinese tourists' destination image of Hong Kong. Law and Cheung (2010) conducted a study on travel experience and destination image of Hong Kong based on the visitors' comments on the Internet, and the results indicated that the destination image of Hong Kong was overall positively perceived. The main strengths of Hong Kong were found to be transportation, the harbor, and outlying islands, while there is room for improvement in the price of meals outside hotels, rooms in five-star hotels, and the quality of cosmetics and skincare products. Tse and Zhang (2013) also found that the overall destination image of Hong Kong was positive among mainland Chinese visitors, and attraction, food, shopping, transportation, accommodation, and people were mentioned favorably. On the other hand, Chinese visitors found that Hong Kong's destination image lacks distinct attributes and shares many similarities with other destinations such Japan, Vietnam and Taiwan, South Korea and Macau (Hsu & Song, 2012).

Satisfaction level of the visitors has also been a topic of interest. Qu and Li (1997) found that mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong were quite satisfied with all aspects of their journey except for the prices. Song, Li, Veen and Chen (2011) used the tourist satisfaction index to measure the satisfaction level of the mainland Chinese visitors on three industry sectors in Hong Kong: hotel, retail and local tour operators. The findings showed that the visitors are most satisfied with the hotel sector, followed by retail and then local tour operators. Li, Song, Chen and Wu (2012) compared mainland Chinese tourists' satisfaction with the United Kingdom and Hong Kong, and found that they have a higher satisfaction level with Hong Kong as a destination.

In more recent years, there were emerging signs of dissatisfaction among mainland Chinese visitors in Hong Kong. According to Huang and Hsu (2005), the visitors expressed dissatisfaction of Hong Kong citizens displaying superiority over them. Similarly, Ye, Zhang and Yuen (2012) investigated the discrimination of mainland Chinese visitors in Hong Kong, and concluded that intercultural competence, i.e. ability to think and act appropriately in accordance with people of different cultures, has a significant role in influencing anticipated and perceived discrimination. Yeung and Leung (2007) gauged the host side's perception of mainland Chinese visitors by surveying hotel employees. While the employees are fairly positive on the economic and financial benefits which the mainland Chinese visitors bring to Hong Kong, they also expressed negative perception and attitudes towards the guest appearance, personalities and behavior.

Siu, Lee and Leung's (2013) study was probably the first study conducted to gauge the community's perception toward the rapidly increasing number of mainland Chinese visitors. The researchers found that the residents recognized more positive impacts than negative in the economic aspect, and more negative impacts than positive in environmental aspects. As for social-cultural aspect, only negative impacts were identified. The study concluded that while the significant economic impact led the residents to perceive the influx of mainland Chinese visitors positively, the social-cultural and environmental impacts had the opposite effect. The limitation of the study was that it involved a small sample of interviewing 18 respondents only, and as a qualitative research, it did not give a

representative view.

While there is abundant literature in the motivation, destination image and satisfaction aspects of Chinese outbound tourism in Hong Kong, there is very limited research on the host community's view of the growing number of mainland Chinese visitors. As China becomes the dominant source market in a destination, a representative and deeper understanding of the local residents' views on the visitors is certainly important in help shaping tourism policy and planning.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study is to gauge the Hong Kong residents' view towards visitors in general and mainland Chinese visitors in particular. Quantitative survey method has been used to ensure that the results are representative of the community and the findings can be compared statistically. Telephone survey is adopted because it is a practical method to achieve a relatively large sample size. A quota sampling method is used based on the proportion of population in the three main residential areas (HKCSD, 2013): Hong Kong Island (17.9%), Kowloon (30.0%) and New Territories (51.1%). Consequently, the survey successfully interviewed 1,839 Hong Kong permanent residents aged 18 or above, with 338 in Hong Kong Island, 549 in Kowloon, 941 in New Territories, and 11 unidentified.

The process of data collection was outsourced to the Computer-Assisted Survey Team (CAST) under the Centre for Social Policy Studies of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. CAST conducted the telephone interview from 6:00pm to 10:30pm on Mondays to Fridays and 2:00pm to 10:30pm on Saturdays and Sundays over the period 15th July 2014 to 14th August, 2014. For each sample, the telephone number dialed was chosen using Simple Random Sampling and the respondent was selected by the last-birthday method within the sampled household. The enumerators were required to attempt at least three times to reach each sampled respondent until the interview was successfully completed or could not be pursued any further.

The survey questionnaire consisted of a total of 63 close-ended questions, where 10 questions were demographic and general questions, 25 questions were about perceptions on Hong Kong's tourism in general, 28 questions were about views related to mainland Chinese visitors. In the questions regarding perceptions and views, the participant would be required to indicate his/her opinion according to a five point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree. An extra category 9 is included if the information is not available. The data collected from the 1,839 respondents were cleaned and analyzed by Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

FINDINGS

Among the 1,839 respondents, 55.5 percent were female and 44.5 percent are male. They were distributed in all age groups, and the age group of 50-59 is the largest, accounting for 23.9 percent of the total. A high percentage of respondents held secondary/matriculation qualification (44.5 percent), followed by those holding bachelor or above qualification (31.9 percent). More than half of the respondents (56.6 percent) were working and among them the two largest groups are managers and administrators (20.7 percent) and clerks (19.8 percent). Among those who were working, 23.4 percent claimed that their work is directly or indirectly related to tourism industry. The two largest personal income groups are HK$10,000-14,999 and HK$20,000-29,999 accounting for10.3 percent and 10.4 percent respectively.

The results show that Hong Kong residents are generally favorable toward inbound tourism. They tend to agree that inbound tourism is important to the city economically (mean score = 3.65), socially and culturally (mean score = 3.55). They believe that the city provides a rich supply of tourism products (mean score = 3.47), and they would like to see more visitors coming to Hong Kong (mean score = 3.29). The community as a whole is neutral in the satisfaction with the protection of tourism resources (mean score = 2.93), provision of medical facilities (mean score = 3.13) and transport facilities (mean score = 3.07) despite many visitors. In fact, they are also neutral with whether there is conflict of

interest between residents and visitors (mean score = 3.05). However they believe that the city has become too crowded (mean score = 4.08) and tourism has changed the local appearance (mean score = mean score = 3.79); they tend to agree that visitors bring challenges to local governance (mean score = 3.29); and many do not feel comfortable in tourism attractions during peak season (mean score = 2.24). The local residents are of the view that the city's competitiveness in tourism is weakening (mean score = 3.64), and the government should impose restrictions to preserve the environment and to conserve tourism resources (mean score = 4.04), and to suppress price levels (mean score = 3.21). They agree that Hong Kong has to limit the number of visitors (mean score = 3.28) and the government should impose tourist tax to improve community welfare (mean score = 3.47). Table 1 summarizes Hong Kong residents' view on inbound tourism and visitors in general.

Table 1. Hong Kong residents' view on inbound tourism and visitors in general

| Opinions | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| Hong Kong has become overcrowded because of tourism. | 4.08 | 1.10 |
| Government should impose restriction to preserve the environment and to conserve tourism resources. | 4.04 | 1.08 |
| The development of tourism has changed the local appearance of Hong Kong. | 3.79 | 1.07 |
| Overall, inbound tourism is important to Hong Kong economically. | 3.65 | 1.03 |
| The competitiveness of Hong Kong's tourism industry is weakening compared with other tourism destination markets. | 3.64 | 0.98 |
| Overall, inbound tourism is important to Hong Kong socially and culturally. | 3.55 | 1.06 |
| I think more tourists will visit Hong Kong in the future. | 3.52 | 0.99 |
| Hong Kong provides a rich supply of different tourism products. | 3.47 | 1.02 |
| Do you agree the Government should impose tourist taxes to improve community welfare? | 3.47 | 1.36 |
| The increase of taxes related to the tourism industry has raised the government revenue. | 3.34 | 1.11 |
| Overall, visitors bring challenges to local governance. | 3.29 | 1.09 |
| I would like to see more visitors coming to HK. | 3.29 | 1.17 |
| A great number of Hong Kong residents will lose their jobs when the | 3.28 | 1.17 |
| Hong Kong has to limit the number of visitors. | 3.28 | 1.27 |
| The Government should impose restriction to suppress price levels. | 3.21 | 1.23 |
| I am satisfied with medical facilities provided by the government | 3.13 | 1.13 |
| I am satisfied with transport facilities provided by the government | 3.07 | 1.20 |
| There are obvious conflicts of interest between Hong Kong residents | 3.05 | 1.12 |
| The seasonal variation in tourism industry is significant in Hong | 3.02 | 1.04 |
| The tourism in Hong Kong is developed in a fair and socially just | 2.96 | 1.09 |
| I am satisfied with the protection of tourism resources in Hong Kong, | 2.93 | 1.17 |
| The tourism market is more competitive than other tourism | 2.86 | 1.02 |
| The tourism attractions in Hong Kong have become more and more | 2.63 | 1.08 |
| I feel comfortable in tourism attractions even in the peak tourist | 2.24 | 1.14 |

Note: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree.

Table 2: Hong Kong residents' view on mainland Chinese visitors

| Opinions | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|
| I heard a lot of complaints on mainland visitors. | 4.00 | 1.05 |
| Mainland visitors cause a great number of social problems. | 3.88 | 1.13 |
| Hong Kong should not depend too much on goods and services from foreign countries but should provide more local products to satisfy mainland visitors' needs. | 3.84 | 1.07 |
| Hong Kong has to limit the number of mainland visitors. | 3.72 | 1.29 |
| I guess a great number of mainland visitors will visit Hong Kong many times. | 3.70 | 1.07 |
| I saw some uncivilized behavior of mainland visitors. | 3.66 | 1.20 |
| Mainland visitors negatively impact local price levels. | 3.63 | 1.17 |
| I have been treated with less courtesy than mainland visitors. | 3.60 | 1.09 |
| Hong Kong residents are more willing to go overseas for holiday to avoid mainland visitors. | 3.51 | 1.15 |
| The Individual Visit Scheme brought economic benefits to Hong Kong. | 3.49 | 1.07 |
| Visitors from Mainland China bring challenges to local governance. | 3.48 | 1.14 |
| There are obvious conflicts of interest between Hong Kong residents and mainland | 3.42 | 1.19 |
| Mainland visitors bring more job opportunities. | 3.41 | 1.10 |
| Community resources are occupied by mainland visitors. | 3.35 | 1.18 |
| Mainland visitors foster the tourism development in Hong Kong. | 3.32 | 1.09 |
| The Individual Visit Scheme brought social benefits to Hong Kong. | 3.22 | 1.12 |
| Mainland visitors cause many security problems. | 3.05 | 1.14 |
| The Hong Kong Government should continue the Individual Visit Scheme policy in future. | 3.05 | 1.25 |
| I seldom heard complaints from mainland visitors. | 2.92 | 1.10 |
| I think most mainland visitors are satisfied with travelling in Hong Kong. | 2.88 | 1.04 |
| The positive impacts brought by mainland visitors are greater than negative influence on Hong Kong. | 2.81 | 1.17 |
| Mainland visitors can help Hong Kong residents understand diversity of culture. | 2.80 | 1.19 |
| Hong Kong has to impose restriction to mainland visitors' activity area to save public facilities for the local. | 2.78 | 1.32 |
| Most mainland visitors follow rules, keep order, and maintain public hygiene. | 2.49 | 1.10 |
| I am satisfied with the measures taken by the Hong Kong Government for dealing with the problems caused by mainland visitors. | 2.41 | 1.21 |
| The increase of my income was related to the development of tourism industry after the Individual Visit Scheme. | 1.81 | 1.11 |
| I bought some extra commodities, due to the demonstration effect of mainland visitors. | 1.59 | 0.90 |

Note: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree

The findings show that Hong Kong residents realize that mainland Chinese visitors are important economically because they create jobs (mean score = 3.41), they enhance tourism market (mean score = 3.32), and a great number of them will visit Hong Kong (mean score = 3.70). The residents' views

are somewhat negative on whether Chinese visitors can help Hong Kong people understand diversity of culture (mean score = 2.80); whether Chinese visitors follow rules, keep order, and maintain public hygiene (mean score = 2.49); and whether the measures taken by the government for dealing with the problems caused by mainland visitors are satisfactory (mean score = 2.41). They agree that there is uncivilized behavior of mainland visitors (mean score = 3.66); they cause social problems (mean score =3.88); and there are a lot of complaints on them (mean score = 4.00). The local residents also feel that they are treated with less courtesy than mainland visitors (mean score = 3.60), and the visitors have brought negative impacts on price levels (mean score = 3.63). They agree that there are obvious conflicts of interest between local residents and mainland visitors (mean score = 3.42), the visitors bring challenges to local governance (mean score = 3.48), and community resources are occupied by mainland visitors (mean score = 3.35). As a result of the negative sentiments, the residents agree that Hong Kong has to limit the number of mainland visitors (mean score = 3.72). Nevertheless, the Individual Visit Scheme is viewed positively in bringing economic benefits (mean score = 3.49) and social benefits (mean score = 3.22) to Hong Kong. Table 2 shows Hong Kong residents' view on mainland Chinese inbound tourism and visitors.

The above analysis indicates that the local residents' views on inbound tourism are positive in terms of economic benefit, and they believe that tourism helps create jobs, more so because of mainland Chinese visitors. However their other views on mainland Chinese visitors in particular are more negative when compared to the views on visitors in general. The findings (in Table 3) show that the views (on visitors in general and on Chinese visitors in particular) are significantly different in the following opinion areas. The local residents agree that inbound tourism is important to Hong Kong culturally, but not among mainland Chinese visitors. They think that visitors bring challenges to local governance, more so among mainland Chinese visitors. They tend to agree that there are obvious conflicts of interest with visitors, more so with mainland Chinese visitors. They believe that tourism causes price increases, more so because of mainland Chinese visitors. They would like to see some measures to limit the number of visitors, more so in the case of mainland Chinese visitors.

Table 3: Paired t-test of Hong Kong residents' views on visitors in general and mainland Chinese

| Opinion | Mean of ratings toward visitors in general | Mean of ratings toward mainland Chinese visitors | Paired Differences | | t-value | df |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | | Mean | S.D. | | |
| Inbound tourism is important to Hong Kong culturally. | 3.55 | 2.81 | 0.75 | 1.24 | 25.33* | 1780 |
| More tourists will visit Hong Kong. | 3.52 | 3.70 | -0.18 | 1.25 | -6.04* | 1774 |
| Visitors bring challenges to local governance. | 3.29 | 3.48 | -0.20 | 0.86 | -9.75* | 1779 |
| There are obvious conflicts of interest between residents and visitors. | 3.06 | 3.42 | -0.36 | 1.01 | -15.18* | 1798 |
| Tourism helps create jobs. | 3.28 | 3.41 | -0.13 | 1.12 | -4.90* | 1809 |
| Hong Kong should limit number of visitors. | 3.28 | 3.73 | -0.45 | 1.03 | -18.50* | 1803 |
| Tourism impact negatively on price levels | 3.21 | 3.63 | -0.42 | 1.17 | -15.16* | 1773 |

Note: visitors 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree
*Significance at p< 0.01

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As Hong Kong is at the forefront of mainland Chinese travel destinations, what happens in the city could serve as good reference for other destinations which would like to welcome more Chinese visitors. The following discussion analyzes the issues arising from the rapid growth in mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong, using Doxey's Irredex Model concerning the impacts of tourism on host residents' attitudes.

Doxey found that over time, when tourist numbers approach and pass a destination's social carrying capacity, the attitudes of hosts toward guests go through a sequence of stages (as cited in Leiper, 2004, p.236). These changing attitudes vary in duration and from destination to destination, depending on how long they have been receiving visitors. The four stages portraying the progression of a host community's responses to tourism are labeled as (1) Euphoria, (2) Apathy, (3) Annoyance, and (4) Antagonism (Reisinger, 2009). Martin and Usyal (as cited in Johnson, Snepenger & Akis, 1994) in their study of the relationship between carrying capacity and tourism lifecycle made similar assertion that there is an inverse relationship between the development stages of tourism area and the residents' responses. The local residents are ecstatic with tourism in the initial stages because of the perceived economic benefits. However, as the physical environment and type of tourist being attracted underwent unwanted changes, their attitudes towards tourism will become more and more negative. Craik (1995) superimposed the Irredex Model on Butler's (1980) cycle of tourism area evolution, and made similar contention that where a destined area will go through stages of involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation and decline as tourists increase over time, residents will become ambivalent towards tourism.

Based on the findings of this research, Hong Kong residents' attitude toward visitors in general can be described as transiting from the first stage of Euphoria to the second stage of Apathy. As mainland China is such a dominant market and the host residents' views on Chinese visitors are so different as compared to the overall views, the destination can be described as transiting from the second stage of Apathy to the third stage of Annoyance. This presents a more complex version of Doxey's Irredex Model, in the sense that the progression is not necessarily linear and singular. The stage of progression could be different depending on the strength and situation of a source market. Theoretically it is feasible that, with appropriate tourism policy and planning, the first stage of Euphoria and the second stage of Apathy can be prolonged, thus preventing or delaying the appearance of the third and fourth stages. This kind of tourism policy and planning would mean continued community involvement and sustainable development in a destination. Drawing on lessons of what has happened in Hong Kong and the research findings, governments should take into consideration the following issues to sustain tourism growth while minimizing the potential negative impacts.

*Role of host government.* The government should anticipate the rapid growth of inbound Chinese visitors given the more liberal travel policy adopted by the Chinese government. China is a very large potential market which could become a dominant source market in a short period of time. The allocation of funding for promoting the Chinese market should be considered vis-à-vis other markets in terms of likely impacts and consequences. There is a need to avoid over-reliance on a single market. Issues related to aviation, visas, business relations and security should be handled at a diplomatic level with the receiving country using its equivalent to the China National Tourism Administration to undertake negotiations and build long-term relationships.

*Role of private sector.* To maximize the opportunity presented by the Chinese market while minimizing the level of conflicts, the public and private sectors should discuss and, if possible, reach a consensus on the level of reliance that will be placed on China as a source market. One needs to realize that the destination is likely to be dealing with inexperienced first-time tourists in the early stage of growth and the profile of Chinese visitors is changing rapidly. The pace of change might vary over time and from destination to destination, depending on political and diplomatic relationships.

*Destination marketing.* China is far from being a homogenous source market. There is much diversity

offering destinations the opportunity to focus on specific cities and provinces. Given the changing lifestyle and wants of the Chinese visitors, they exhibit very wide range of shopping needs from inexpensive items to valuables, from daily necessities to luxury goods. Destination should consider the strength and sustainability of its shopping sector and other tourism resources. Chinese tourists are becoming more experienced, more discerning, and more demanding. It is essential that destinations target Chinese segments that best suit the destinations' suite of experiences rather than letting the tourist flow develop without planning.

*Long-term destination sustainability.* Destination may consider social carrying capacity and infrastructure enhancement if receiving destinations are likely to encounter problems with supplying essential services or the quality of the tourist experience is compromised because of large tourist numbers. Host government should take into consideration not just economic benefits but other issues such as community harmony, law and order, transportation, and border control points, in support of the anticipated tourist flows.

*Human resources.* To maximize available opportunities, destinations need a skilled and well educated workforce. As the Chinese market could grow rapidly and pose pressure on human resources with the appropriate language, communication, and emotional skills, destinations should open up the market in line with the availability of human resources in the tourism industry.

*Legal aspects.* As tourism phenomena are often cross-jurisdictional (source market and destination) social processes, it is also important to consider the reciprocity of any legal implications across the jurisdictions. Given tourism's increasing commercialization, it is paramount that the relevant legal aspects be taken into consideration in tourism policy and planning. A comprehensive understanding and appreciation of the nuances in the Tourism Law of China (China National Tourism Administration, n.d.) would be helpful for destinations to prepare for the Chinese market.

*Responses and views of the local community.* This is particularly important when there is a rapid and large increase in the number of Chinese tourists. Issues that need to be considered include physical carrying capacity of key attractions, visitor management strategies, the need to expand existing infrastructure or build new infrastructure and the emotional tolerance level of the host community. Where there is evidence of push-back from the local community there may be a requirement to mount education campaigns to bridge any cultural gaps that may arise. (Prideaux & Tse, 2014).

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# THE DYNAMICS OF TRUST AND TOURISM IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND SUPPORT

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between residents' trust and their perceptions of tourism as well as their support for its development, particularly in developing countries. Multiple regression analysis is used to investigate three measures of trust; political, institutional and interpersonal trusts, and their relationship with the positive and negative impacts of tourism development and support. The findings indicate that residents' perceptions of both the positive and negative impacts of tourism predict their support for its development and institutional trust predicts residents' positive impact perceptions. The social exchange theory was able to explain these relationships. One of the main theoretical contributions of the study relates to the examination of the relationship between three forms of trust and tourism development in one study. Additionally, the data is obtained from residents in Jamaica, which is a developing country that is highly dependent on tourism. The practical implications of the findings, limitations of the study and areas for future research are also presented.

## INTRODUCTION

With the anticipated growth in tourism, countries are being encouraged to place more emphasis on its development. The residents of developing countries, however, want to be able to trust the government and other tourism policy makers to make the right decisions regarding tourism development which will take their interests into consideration (Shi, 2001). The purpose of this study therefore, is to examine the impact of residents' trust on the perceptions residents have of tourism development and consequently their support for its development.

Residents' trust is assessed within the context of an individual having positive expectations of another's intentions and behaviors (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995). It is measured using political trust which is residents' trust in government (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013) to implement political systems that will govern tourism development to benefit them (Shi, 2001); institutional trust which is residents' trust in government institutions to execute policies and implement decisions without abusing the use of their power (Luhiste, 2006); and interpersonal trust, being the level of trust residents have in other persons (Luhiste, 2006). Perceptions of tourism development are measured in terms of the perceived positive and negative impacts.

Data collected from residents in Jamaica were analyzed using multiple regression analyses. The social exchange theory provided theoretical support for this study because it explains the core principles involved in the exchange of resources between individuals and groups (Ap, 1992). Using political, institutional and interpersonal trusts as constructs in the tourism support model will advance the literature and provide more theoretical justifications. It is also important for government and tourism planners to realize that there are other considerations that can influence residents' perceptions of and support for tourism development.

HYPOTHETICAL MODEL

Figure 1 shows the hypothetical trust and tourism support model, which presents the proposed relationship between residents' trusts and the perceptions they have of the impacts of tourism development and subsequently their support. The model proposes a direct and significant relationship between political, institutional and interpersonal trusts, and the positive and negative impacts of tourism development. It also proposes a direct and significant relationship between the positive and negative impacts of tourism development impacts and the support residents have for its development

Figure 1
Proposed hypothetical trust and tourism support model
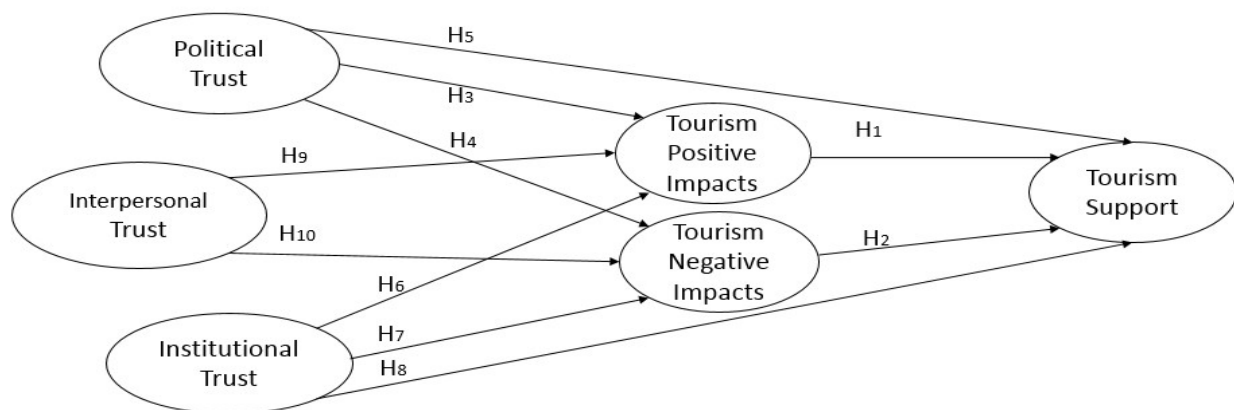


H$_1$: There is a direct positive relationship between residents' perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism development and their support for its development.
H$_2$: There is a direct negative relationship between residents' perceptions of the negative impacts of tourism development and their support for its development.
H$_3$: There is a direct positive relationship between political trust and residents' perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism development.
H$_4$: There is a direct negative relationship between political trust and residents' perceptions of the negative impacts of tourism development.
H$_5$: There is a direct positive relationship between political trust and residents' support for tourism development.
H$_6$: There is a direct positive relationship between institutional trust and residents' perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism development.
H$_7$: There is a direct negative relationship between institutional trust and residents' perceptions of the negative impacts of tourism development.
H$_8$: There is a direct positive relationship between institutional trust and residents' support for tourism development.

METHODOLOGY

Convenience sampling was used to obtain a substantive number of respondents in Jamaica who were available and willing to participate in the survey (Dallas & Chen, 1998). Of the 710 questionnaires distributed 539 were collected, resulting in a response rate of 76 percent. The six check items included in the survey as control mechanism were assessed for conformity. Those that did not comply with the given instructions were removed from the analysis; resulting in 353 (49.7%) usable instruments. A total of 30 items were used for the survey instrument. They were anchored on a 5-point Likert scale which ranged from 1 being 'Strongly Disagree' to 5 being 'Strongly Agree'.

RESULTS

Three multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the overall support for tourism development in Jamaica based on residents' trust and their perceptions of tourism development. The first analysis included the positive and negative impacts of tourism development, political trust and institutional trust as the predictor variables and residents' support as the criterion variable. The other two models examined the predictive role of the three measures of residents' trusts (political, institutional and interpersonal) in respectively determining the positive impacts and negative impacts of tourism development. Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations of the constructs in the analyses.

Table 1. Correlation matrices

| Measures | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Tolerance | M | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N=301 | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Tourism support | | | | | | | 4.10 | .95 |
| 2. Political trust | .036 | | | | | .914 | 2.56 | .90 |
| 3. Institutional trust | .108* | .655* | | | | .952 | 2.88 | .80 |
| 4. Positive impact | .225* | .126* | .225* | | | .570 | 3.28 | .68 |
| 5. Negative impact | -.175* | -.037 | -.104* | .159* | | .540 | 3.07 | .70 |
| N=295 | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Tourism impact | | | | | | | 3.28 | .69 |
| 2. Political trust | .135* | | | | | .579 | 2.57 | .90 |
| 3. Institutional trust | .238* | .637* | | | | .593 | 2.89 | .78 |
| 5. Interpersonal trust | .123* | .184* | .098* | | | .966 | 2.93 | .59 |
| N=302 | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Negative impact | | | | | | | 3.05 | .70 |
| 2. Political trust | -.045 | | | | | .567 | 2.58 | .90 |
| 3. Institutional trust | -.107* | .646* | | | | .582 | 2.90 | .78 |
| 4. Interpersonal trust | .054 | .188* | .097* | | | .964 | 2.94 | .59 |

*p<.05

There was good model fit for two of the analyses. The analysis comprising the positive and negative impacts of tourism development, political trust and institutional trust as the predictors of residents' support is statistically significant at $F_{(4, 296)} = 8.032$, p<05). The $R^2$ value of 0.098 suggested that 9.8 % of the variance in residents' support for tourism development was explained by the model. The analysis explaining the predictive role of the three measures of residents' trusts (political, institutional and interpersonal) in determining the positive impacts of tourism development is also statistically significant at $F_{(3, 291)} = 7.109$, p<05) and as indexed by the $R^2$, explained 5.9 % of the variance in residents' perceptions of the positive impact of tourism development. However, the analysis which examined the trust constructs with the negative impacts of tourism development as the criterion variable is not statistically significant at $F_{(3, 298)} = 1.609$, p=.187. Likewise, it only explained 1.6 % of the variance in residents' perceptions of the negative impact of tourism development.

As presented in Table 2, H1 predicted that there was a direct positive relationship between the perceptions residents have of the positive impacts of tourism and their support for its development. This hypothesis is supported as there is a statistically significant relationship between both constructs ($\beta$ = .252, p<.05). H2 is also supported as there is a direct negative and significant relationship between the perceptions residents have of the negative impacts of tourism and their support for its development ($\beta$ = -.210, p<.0

Table 2. Regression coefficient results

| Measures | | Coefficients | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | B | SE | $\beta$ | t-score | sig. |
| Tourism Support | | 3.746 | .361 | | 10.379 | .000 |
| Positive impact | | .348 | .080 | .252* | 4.356 | .000 |
| Negative impact | | -.285 | .077 | -.210* | -3.719 | .000 |
| Political trust | | -.041 | .077 | -.039 | -.533 | .594 |
| Institutional trust | | .065 | .089 | .055 | .728 | .467 |
| $R^2$ | 0.098* | | | | | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | 0.086 | | | | | |
| SE | 0.904 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Positive impact | | 2.346 | .235 | | 9.969 | .000 |
| Political trust | | -.039 | .057 | -.051 | -.682 | .496 |
| Institutional trust | | .231 | .065 | .260* | 3.544 | .000 |
| Interpersonal trust | | .125 | .067 | .106 | 1.846 | .066 |
| $R^2$ | 0.068* | | | | | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | 0.059 | | | | | |
| SE | 0.670 | | | | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Negative impact | | 3.125 | .244 | | 12.814 | .000 |
| Political trust | | .021 | .060 | .027 | .360 | .719 |
| Institutional trust | | -.118 | .068 | -.130 | -1.730 | .085 |
| Interpersonal trust | | .073 | .070 | .061 | 1.044 | .297 |
| $R^2$ | 0.016 | | | | | |
| $\Delta R^2$ | 0.006 | | | | | |
| SE | 0.670 | | | | | |

*p<.05

Both H3 and H4 are not supported. There is no significant relationship between political trust and the perceptions residents have of the positive impacts ($\beta$ = -.051, p =.496) and the negative impacts ($\beta$ = .027, p =.719) respectively. H5 also did not predict a significant relationship between political trust and residents' support for tourism development ($\beta$ = -.039, p=.594). H6 is supported; there is a positive relationship between institutional trust and the perceptions residents have of the positive impacts ($\beta$ = .260, p<.05). The result for H7 did not indicate a relationship between institutional trust and the perceptions residents have of the negative impacts ($\beta$ = -.130, p=.085). H8 proposed a direct positive relationship between institutional trust and support but this is not significant ($\beta$ = .055, p=.467). The relationships between interpersonal trust and the perceptions residents have of the positive ($\beta$ = .106, p=.066) and negative ($\beta$ = .061, p=.297) impacts of tourism development are not statistically significant. Hence, both H9 and H10 are not supported.

DISCUSSION

Overall, the findings of this study show that the residents have both positive and negative perceptions of tourism development. This is confirmed by Kim, Ursal and Sirgy (2013) who state that there are mixed perspectives pertaining to tourism development in developing countries, especially as they relate to the economic, social, cultural, and environmental impacts it has on the residents as well as their communities. As a developing country, Jamaica strives to improve its economy and especially as a mature destination, tourism planners have to be constantly diversifying its tourism product and maintaining its competitive advantage (Sinclair-Maragh, 2012). Therefore, residents' support for further tourism development to accomplish these objectives is important to tourism planners.

As indicated by the findings, the residents will support tourism development because they perceive it as a mechanism to generate jobs and tourism investments; and provide better roads and other public amenities, parks and recreational facilities. Other perceived benefits include the preservation of their local culture and the natural and physical environment. Conversely, they will not support tourism development because of the negative implications; the awareness of which according to McGehee & Andereck, (2004) increases among residents as the destination becomes more dependent on tourism. These residents specifically alluded to the high prices charged for goods and land, the erosion of the local culture, traffic congestion, overcrowding and pollution as concerns they have of tourism development. The findings are consistent with the social exchange theory as the residents will support tourism development if there are benefits to be derived from it (Gursoy, Chi & Dyer, 2010; Latkova & Vogt, 2012).

Not only will the antecedents of tourism impact perceptions directly affect residents' perceptions of tourism development but they will also directly impact their support for tourism development (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy et al, 2010). Therefore, as indicated by this study, political trust is not an antecedent of the positive and negative impacts of tourism development and this justifies the insignificant relationship between political trust and residents' support for tourism development. This result is, however, not consistent with the literature which indicated that if there is trust in the government, then residents will support development (Hetherington, 2005; Rudolph & Evans, 2005). These studies were, nonetheless, focused on welfare and racial issues rather than tourism development, thereby indicating situational differences. This is a reasonable comparison since political trust within the context of tourism development refers to the trust residents have in government to do what is right and to make the best tourism decisions in their interest. It specifically takes into account the ability of government to look after the interests of the community pertaining to tourism development and to effectively use tourism to deal with current economic problems.

Despite this, Gabriel and Trudinger (2011) argued that residents will generally support policies that are considered to be trustworthy independent of the features of the specific programs, even when they are considered to have negative implications. Possibly, political trust did not influence residents' support because this relationship is considered to be complex, being influenced by several factors (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). For instance, residents' power influences their trust in government in order for it to significantly predict their perceptions of tourism development (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Likewise, trust requires that there is confidence in the exchange partner that they will perform (Nguyen & Rose, 2009) and the reliability of a partner is important as the level of trust will be based on previous experience and interaction (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Trust is also associated with perceived sacrifice or risk (Hetherington, 2005).

The study finds that there is a direct positive relationship between institutional trust and residents' perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism development. There are several institutions in Jamaica that are responsible for the planning and execution of tourism policies. The Ministry of Tourism and Entertainment is the main governmental body responsible for the development of tourism policies. Its agencies include the Jamaica Tourist Board (JTB) which markets the

destination; the Tourism Product Development Company (TPDCo) which develops and improves the tourism product: and the Jamaica Promotions Corporation Limited (JAMPRO) which coordinates and develops plans and policies for economic growth and development (Jamaica Tourist Board/ JTB, 2014). The study finds that when the residents have trust in these government actors to allow them adequate representation in the tourism planning process and to effectively make decisions without corruption or bribe, then they have favorable views of the positive impacts of tourism development. According to Hetherington (1998), the residents expect the institutions to perform satisfactorily and work effectively. The finding shows that the residents expect the government actors to effectively use tourism to deal with future economic problems and reduce unemployment. In support, the literature points out that that the level of public trust in government actors depends on how well they are able to boost economic growth (Campbell, 2004; Luhiste, 2006; Nunkoo, Ramkissoon & Gursoy, 2012; Wong, Wan & Hsiao, 2011) to create employment (Mackuen, Erikson & Stimson, 1992). This finding is also supported by the social exchange theory as the level of trust the residents have in these institutions will influence their perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism because of the benefits to be derived, especially the economic gains from tourism development.

Noteworthy, residents' trust in government institutions did not significantly influence their negative perceptions of tourism development. This insignificant negative relationship between both constructs is also found by Nunkoo and Smith (2013) but a significant negative relationship is reported by Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012). The latter is in keeping with the literature which emphasized the importance of generating economic benefits from tourism development. Based on the social exchange theory, if there is no economic benefit, tourism development will be perceived negatively by the residents. The finding therefore, suggests that the residents do not consider economic growth as it concerns tourism development in Jamaica an issue. Hence, their trust in the institutions had no relation to how they perceive the negative impacts of tourism development.

However, a closer examination of the significance level of this result showed that a p- value of .08 is not substantially different from the absolute value of .05. There is 92% probability that the hypothesis can be supported. The insignificant negative relationship can also indicate low predictive power which according to Nunkoo and Smith (2013) results from theoretical limitations. In support Nunkoo et al., (2012) argue that although trust is an important constituent of tourism politics, it is not frequently examined in the literature. The low predictive power can also be due to inadequate sample size used in the multiple regression analysis (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010) as well as the presence of common method v ariance which according to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee and Podsakoff (2003) can substantially have an effect on the relationship between measures of different constructs.

Additionally there is no significant relationship between institutional trust and support despite it being positive. This result contradicts the findings of Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) who reported a positive significant relationship between resident's trust in government actors and their support for tourism. It is expected that since institutional trust influences residents' perceptions of the positive impacts, it would likewise directly and positively impact their support. This is based on the indication that residents who are dependent on tourism for economic benefits are more likely to have positive attitudes toward its development (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002) and this leads to them having support (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). However, as noted earlier, positive attitudes toward tourism do not necessarily propose support for tourism development (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). Additionally, it is suggested that residents' attitude towards tourism development may be directly related to the stage of tourism development within the destination (Butler, 1980). A destination with a long history of tourism development has the capacity to absorb tourists (Allen, Long, Perdue & Kieselbach, 1988) thereby reducing negative perceptions such as overcrowding. Therefore, further tourism development in Jamaica may not be a major concern of the residents since it is already established, having begun in the 19th century (Taylor, 2003). This was supported by Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) who reported that the residents' of Crete, which is at the maturity stage, has a

relatively strong support for tourism development without any substantial anti-tourism perceptions.

The residents' perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism development are not influenced by their trust in other individuals. This is an interesting finding as it is believed that they are likely to trust the decisions and actions of family, relatives and friends because they have the same values and norms (Levi & Stoker, 2000). However, a significance level of .066 could suggest that the construct of interpersonal trust has low predictive power due to the reasons alluded to earlier. Actually, there is a 93.4% probability that interpersonal trust could have significantly impacted residents' perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism development.

This study considered the concept of trust as it relates to the residents in developing countries, since it forms the premise of social relations and is a very important conclusion of the social exchange theory (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). However, the findings reflect the view that studies on trust are fragmented (McEvily, Perrone & Zaheer, 2003) and support the call for more empirical research on this construct to advance the literature.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

It is imperative for tourism planners to understand the dynamics of residents' trust and how it influences their perceptions of tourism development. Hence, within the context of this study, three dimensions of trust were examined as they relate to residents' perceptions and support of tourism development, using the premise of the social exchange theory. They are political, institutional and interpersonal trusts. Ten hypotheses were developed based on the review of literature and tested using residents of Jamaica. Results of the multiple regression analyses conducted showed support for three of the hypotheses. Both the positive and negative impacts of tourism development directly and significantly influence residents' support for tourism development. This is a very important finding for tourism policy and planning decisions in Jamaica, especially since this destination has a long standing history of tourism development.

The tourism policy makers need to have a better understanding of residents' perceptions of tourism development and how these impact their support for future tourism development.
Another important finding is that institutional trust influenced residents' perceptions of the positive impacts of tourism development. This a very fundamental as the government actors or representatives are the ones who actually implement the tourism policies and having trust in them shows that they have taken the residents' interest and needs into consideration. The findings also confirm the premise of the social exchange theory which indicates that the benefits and costs of tourism are considered by residents for them to support its development. The social exchange theory likewise supports institutional trust as a predictor of the positive impacts of tourism development.

One of the main contributions of the study is that it examines the construct of trust in relation to residents' perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of tourism development and also their support for its development. This focus of study has not received much attention from tourism scholars. Additionally, the examination of institutional trust as a separate construct from political trust is fairly new to the literature. The synthesis of the literature from political science, management, marketing, sociology and economics with tourism shows the dynamic relationship between these disciplines and tourism, and will advance the tourism literature.

Despite these contributions, there are several limitations to the study. The use of convenience sampling may cause the sample not be representative of the general population and this can limit the generalizability of the study. Generalizability may also be impacted by the small sample frame analyzed by multiple regression analysis. Future studies should consider the use of another sampling technique, larger sample size and another sample frame to validate results. Only one item was used to measure residents' support although the finding of its relationship with the impacts of tourism development is confirmed by previous studies. This item measured residents' attitude and

is not consistent with other studies which used development measures representing the forms of tourism such as culture and heritage, and eco-tourism. Although the stage of the destination life cycle can also impact the results, this study did not investigate its role and so scholars can examine this variable in relation to the constructs in this study.

Future research suggestions in relation to tourism development are the relationship among the types of trust, trust and power, residents' trust in private sector and foreign investors; and the mediating role of the impacts of tourism development between the types of residents' trust and their support. Scholars can examine the use of other theories such as stakeholder theory and collaborative stakeholder theory in explaining the relationship between residents' trust and tourism development.

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# HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

# CASE STUDY: LEADERSHIP COMPARISON BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL LEADER AND LOCAL LEADER IN HOTEL INDUSTRY

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## ABSTRACT

Globalization has encouraged more intense competition among service organizations and according to Schneider and Bowen (2011) organizations need to go beyond customer expectations in order to 'win the service game'. Fulfilling customers' variable and idiosyncratic needs is difficult and relies on the co-ordination of highly motivated employees. More and more hotels are shifting their focus from national to *international* markets, resulting in a dramatic increase in the proportion of revenues generated. How to take the opportunity to be the first choice of shareholders, customers and employees? Hotel leader, especially C-level leader is a decisive position for the hotel, and even whole hotel chains.

This paper compares two C-level leaders with different hotel groups who have acquired a strong reputation. After the information collecting and informal interview, then the author identified the leadership constructs on the basis of definitions and investigation, and also addressed how leadership succession occurred in the companies associated with these two leaders. This might mean presenting good news about the future of the organization.

Key words: Leadership, Process Leadership, Trait Leadership, International Leader, Local Leader

## INTRODUCTION

Globalization has encouraged more intense competition among service organizations and according to Schneider and Bowen (2011) organizations need to go beyond customer expectations in order to 'win the service game'. Fulfilling customers' variable and idiosyncratic needs is difficult and relies on the co-ordination of highly motivated employees. More and more hotels are shifting their focus from national to *international* markets, resulting in a dramatic increase in the proportion of revenues generated. How to take the opportunity to be the first choice of shareholders, customers and employees? Hotel leader, especially C-level leader is a decisive position for the hotel, and even whole hotel chains.

This paper compares two C-level leaders with different hotel groups who have acquired a strong reputation. The first is Mr. Lee, General Manager of InterContinental Hangzhou, Lee started his career in hospitality as a trainee at Le Meridien Singapore in 1994 after graduating from hotel school. Later he joined Shangri-la Hotels Group and worked in Singapore,

Hangzhou, Chengdu and Tokyo. In 2009, he worked as hotel manager and acting general manager at Mandarin Oriental Sanya before he joined InterContinental Hotels Group in 2010, as resident manager of InterContinental Hong Kong. The second leader is Mr. Chen, Communist Party Secretary and Chairman of Shangri-La Hotel Hangzhou, China (SLH), after he served in the army he joined the hotel industry back in 1984, when this first Shangri-La hotel opened in Mainland China.

Lee was reported to Chen at Shangri-La Hotel Hangzhou, when Lee was still Front Office Manager of SLH, and Chen was Deputy General Manger during 2004 to 2006. The author had the pleasure to work with Lee and Chen during those two years and real experienced their leadership and humanity. Expect for the real experience, the author also contact themselves and their co-workers, subordinates and business partners. It is not only formal telephone interview, but also like a heart-to-heart talk between junior hoteliers with two idols.

After the information collecting and informal interview, then the author identified the leadership constructs on the basis of definitions and investigation, and also addressed how leadership succession occurred in the companies associated with these two leaders. This might mean presenting good news about the future of the organization.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leading people has never been an easy task. And today, leaders have the immensely difficult job of forging a path into uncharted territories of global proportion. Amid a constantly changing business environment, sometimes confusing and often overwhelming information, and a requirement to please a variety of stakeholders, leaders are understandably often uncertain as to the right thing to do, the best avenue to take, the precise decision to make that will lead to success—and during some periods, especially of late, even survival.

*What is leadership?*

What is it that drives leaders? Are they natural or created? Most people define leadership as the ability to set the direction of a business, organization or entity. However, there is more to it. Leadership has been also described as "a process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task" (Chemers, 1997). An old Chinese proverb which states that:" He who thinks he leads and has no one following him is only taking a walk." The key point is how the leader attracts "followers" to support them. It possess a loyal team committed to fulfilling a vision display real leadership.

Leaders apply leadership related knowledge and skills in carrying this out (Process Leadership) (Jago, 1982). Actions may also influenced by traits. Trait Leadership (Jago, 1982) was once a commonly held believe that leaders are born rather than made. These two leadership types are shown in the chart below (Northouse, 2007, p5):

When leadership is learnt, the skills and knowledge processed by the leader can be influenced by his or hers attributes or traits, such as beliefs, values, ethics, and character. Knowledge and skills contribute directly to the leadership process, while the other attributes give the leader certain characteristics that make him or her unique.

In the modern era, leadership will change with the advance of the new age of social media. In today's society is that there appears to be a loss of confidence and trust in traditional institutions. The leaders really set a mark will be those that enable change. They are seen to be in charge and in control of events today. The leaders we all admire will also generally dance to their own tunes. In good times this is easy. In challenging days this is far harder (Sheppardson & Gibson, 2011). Hotel management is both an art and a skill, and successful hoteliers retain a strong relationship with their customers and staff.

Figure 1: The different views of leadership
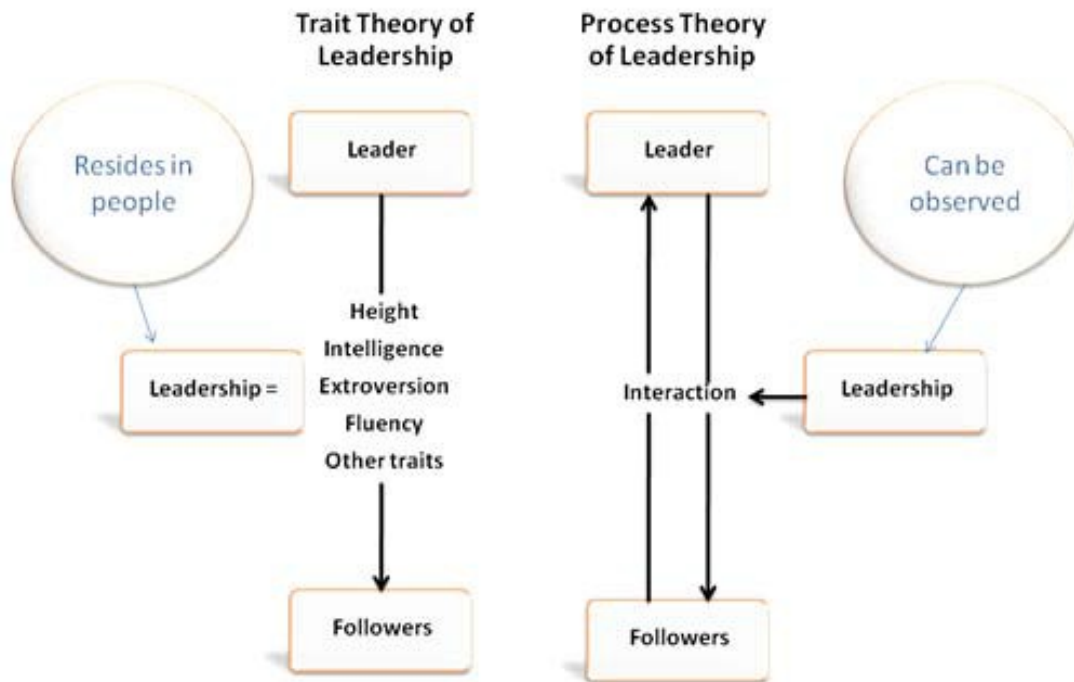


*Leader 1: Mr. Lee* - General Manager of InterContinental Hangzhou

Mr. Lee is a Singapore national and a passionate dedicated hotel professional with over 20 years of international experience in top luxury hotels spanning across Singapore, China, Hong Kong and Japan. He assisted in two major hotel openings in Japan and China. After graduated from Singapore Hotel and Tourism Education Centre (SHATEC) in 1994, Lee became a trainee at Le Meridien Hotel Changi, Singapore, and 5 years later he promoted to Front Office Manager (FOM). In 2002, he transferred to Shangri-La's Rasa Sentosa Resort, Singapore. This was his first encounter with a top hotel brand. His previous superior Ms. Tan said:" Lee was a good leader at Rosa Sentosa Resort. As front office manager, he has a good leadership style and his staff enjoys working with him. He asserts authority at times to get his things done but overall he handles problem with tact. He is a problem solver and is always willing to help colleagues when they need it. He is pleasant to be with and is capable of getting things done through his vast network of friends and colleague."

Two years later, Lee transferred to Shangri-La Hotel Hangzhou, China (SLH) also as Front Office Manager. For Lee, it is first time working overseas and also his first experience of working in China, at a time when hotel industry development was in its infancy. One of the authors of this paper worked with him during that period. In the author's opinion, "Lee is a real hotelier, he was showing unique transformational leadership skills in order to achieve highest quality standards in Hangzhou, and he has worked for more than a manager, a real leader... and most of all, a truly great boss in my hotelier life. Hope to work with him by any chance."

After two-years in SLH, Lee was promoted to Director of Rooms (DOR) in Shangri-La Hotel Chengdu, China (SLCD). Lee was part of the pre- & post -openings team of the Shangri-La Hotel Chengdu. Lee's previous superior - Mr. Holman – stated that Lee was a dedicated manager, who leads by example and manages his teams". Front Office Manager Ms. McArdle stated that:"Mr. Lee was

always very patient and encouraging. He knows how to build and motivate a team, and always shows a lot of care to his staff. He's not afraid to get down and help the front line staff whenever needed. Given an opportunity, I would love the chance to work with him again."

After experiencing Sichuan Wenchuan earthquake near Chengdu, in the summer of 2008, Lee was promoted to Executive Assistant Manager (EAM) in Shangri-La Hotel Tokyo, Japan (SLTY). Duty Manager Mr. Hatori said:" I worked together with Lee-san at Shangri-La Hotel, Tokyo as pre-opening & opening team member. He always demonstrates strong leadership with his great deal of experience, clear instruction, quick wit and fairness. He always finds the most efficient way at any business. He is also dedicated to team-building with his gentleness and humor. He is very rich in humanity. It would be a great pleasure to work again with him in the future." As Lee's previous colleague, Executive Chef Mr. Weber also said:" I had the pleasure to work with Lee at Shangri-La hotel Tokyo. Lee is highly skilled in all aspects of pre-opening activities including setting up the Chi Spa and of course all rooms related aspects. As the first manager on site of the hotel, he coordinated the transition from pre-opening office to hotel flawlessly. During our opening Lee showed extensive leadership, being calm under fire, and became a mentor to the entire team. I wish him all the success in the future and would be a pleasure to work with him again."

One year later, after the great opening of SLTY, Lee left the Shangri-La family for the Mandarin Oriental hotel group, who promoted him to Hotel Manager of Mandarin Oriental Hotel Sanya, and Acting General Manager for a period of 3 months. Restaurant manager Mr. Linnbark stated:" I came in contact with Lee while doing my management training at the Mandarin Oriental in Sanya. Lee became my personal role model from start, being a highly experienced professional who will take charge in demanding situations and always be there to guide the team. Leading by example is another great characteristic that can describe Lee. I truly hope that our paths will cross again in the future."

Providing evidence that Mr. Lee's hotel career was advancing in 2010, he became Resident Manager (RM) at InterContinental Hong Kong, an iconic flagship hotel of the InterContinental Hotels Group (IHG). Reporting directly to the Managing Director, he had responsibility for overseeing the entire hotel operations including the Food and Beverage division. This features some of the finest dining establishments in Hong Kong such as the 1 star Michelin Ranked Chinese restaurant and 2 star Michelin Ranked French restaurant. Over a period of 2 years, employee survey score improved by about 10% year on year from 2010 to 80.8% in April 2011, further improved the score to 82.3% in November 2011, the highest score ever achieved by the hotel since 2008.

Two years ago, Lee was appointed as General Manager of InterContinental Beijing Financial Street. This property is located in the prestigious western business district of Beijing and features 318 well-appointed rooms and suites. It has a wide range of top class restaurants including a contemporary style 3 meal restaurant, award- winning steak restaurant and the famous Cantonese restaurant. Since then, the Singapore native has been adapting instantly into the culture of this historical and vibrant city. He sees Beijing's culture as playing a vital role in the successful running of a hotel.

After one year, Lee was transferred back Hangzhou as General Manager of InterContinental Hangzhou, where his overseas career had started. Located next to the famous Qiantang River and right in the middle of Hangzhou CBD. With its unique Golden Globe design and magnificent architecture, InterContinental Hangzhou has become the city's newest landmark. With 393 rooms and suites and an array of diverse dining options, and a convention center that houses a 1,780sqm, the largest pillar-less grand ballroom in Hangzhou, a video conference hall, a grand auditorium, a media broadcaster room and more than 20 meeting rooms. "Everything is changeable in prosperity and decline." An old Chinese proverb which states. While the local hospitality scene has become more competitive with the arrival of more international brands, Lee sees that a good opportunity to push all the upscale hotels to provide even better services. "You just need to know the market, analyze the market and know what you want to go for. Have the right strategy and move with the right strategy."

From Singapore, Hangzhou, Chengdu, to Tokyo, and then Sanya, Hong Kong, Beijing, Hangzhou, Lee

experienced different hotel management in different cities with different background and culture. Although each hotel has different strategy aims, they have something in common, like best location, high quality service and fair team. As the General Manager of InterContinental Beijing Financial Street, he indicated his job is to make people feel happy, not only the guests but also the employees. He always believes that happy employees will make happy guests. The GM needs to know how to motivate his employees and when they feel good about themselves; they can serve the guests better in return.

"I'm really passionate about meeting people from different places and cultures. This is what attracted me to join the industry. One person that I particularly respect is the managing director of InterContinental Hong Kong. I've known him for two years and he taught me a lot about developing people not only in their work and also in their personal lives. Other than him, I've met a lot of great people that have helped me along the way, otherwise I wouldn't be here as the person I am. I've always wanted to create a very happy and cozy working environment for my employees. In this hotel, people are working hard together and they form a strong bond between themselves. And the working vibe makes them feel like they're at home."

*Leader 2: Mr. Chen* - Party Secretary and Chairman of Shangri-La Hotel Hangzhou, China (SLH)

Shangri-La Hotel Hangzhou (SLH) was the first Shangri-La Hotel in Mainland China. Opened in 1984 this grand property sits on the north bank of the famous Hangzhou West Lake. Starting business in 1956 and re- furnished in 2006, Shangri-La Hotel Hangzhou is composed of two single buildings and three separate villas. It is equipped with 382 guestrooms and suites and guests may sample international buffet, gourmet Italian dishes and authentic Chinese cuisine there.

SLH is a joint-venture company, Shangri-La Hotels and Resorts Group holds the 45% registered capital and is the second shareholder followed by Zhejiang Tourism Group Co., Ltd. This means that the government has the leading role in hotel operations, and there are dual leader positions in every department, as Deputy General Manager, Chen has the concurrent authority with General Manager who is assigned by Shangri-La Hotels and Resorts Group.

Unlike a hotel industry "icons", Chen always keeps a low profile. He and his subordinates rarely give interviews. He operates SLH using his own leadership style. After serving in the army he joined the hotel industry as a member of engineering department staff in 1984 and joined the Communist Party two years later. He was promoted to Director of Engineering Department in the 1990's, and was Deputy General Manager in the 2000's.

This indicated that he has held the real power of SLH already for two decades. He works diligently, watches the p's and q's of staffs'. After worked with him more than five years, the author observed that Chen is self- disciplined and never abuses power for personal gains. He always come to the staff canteen for duty meal (actually he can use any hotel outlet for duty meal), and has never involved his family or relatives in hotel business activities.

Chen believes that some leaders are born with inherent genes, but also that success is based on hard work and that the correct executive decisions are based on past experiences. He is a real example of this. Chen thinks that leadership can be taught. Leaders must for example know about market trends. One aspect however which is not the result of training is attitude. His fundamental leadership philosophy is very open minded and believing in two-way communications. He uses a "mixed" leadership style because he is leading a mixed team of new and experience colleagues. During the author's interview, Chen indicates that the common denominator of a good leader includes self-motivation, social skills, clear vision and hard work.

As a result of his efforts, SLH is a leading hotel industry company in Zhejiang Province, China. SLH has generated economic returns as well as social benefits, and achieved the net profit of RMB¥ 30,680,000.00 in 2010, the best result of hotel history.

COMPARISON

There is no one way to be a leader. It cannot be easily taught. "I do not believe you can teach someone to be an entrepreneur…because you cannot change an individual's personality" (Naupaul & Wang, 2009).

Can leadership be taught? Though there are many ways to lead an organization, it is common essence that excellent leaders should be of good character. Great leaders give their team confidence and trust and the result is cultures and teams that grow and excel. Many great leaders are relatively quiet characters. Leadership is not about achieving day-to-day tasks and objectives. It is about setting an agenda or strategy for an organization to reach and then enabling that the organization to achieve those goals.

Hotel industry leaders exhibit some common traits (Sheppardson & Gibson, 2011):

*Honesty*. They are honest to themselves. Chen always come to the staff canteen for duty meal (actually he can used any hotel outlet for duty meal).

*Principled*. They are often very understanding of other's failure.

*Fairness*. Leaders will be objective and broad-minded. Chen never assigned his family or relatives to a high position in the hotel.

*A belief in people and training*. They commonly believe in the development of their teams and people. They are also team builders who understand that they cannot achieve success alone but only via those around them.

Lee has always wanted to create a happy and cozy working environment for his employees. In his hotel, people work hard together and form a strong bonds between them.

*A desire to contribute to the wider community*. The leader will often be involved in key projects that have no direct relation to their own business but to the greater benefit of the whole. Chen never involved his family or relatives into hotel business activities.

*A desire to learn.* As with all intelligent people, leaders understand that the more they know, the more they need to know. Lee joined hotel industry 20 years ago as he is a traveler, he is really passionate about meeting people from different places and different cultures. This is what attracted him to join the industry.

*Courage.* Successful leaders are easy to accept new things and challenges.

*Competence.* Leaders possess capable.

*Presence.* A leader needs to have standing in a group and this will not just be about what they say. Their physical behavior and actions are very important. Unlike an industry "icons", Chen always keeps a low profile, he is diligent in his work, watch staffs' p's and q's, self-disciplined and never abused power for personal gains. Straightforward with no hidden agendas.

*Clear communications.*

*Endurance.* A leader will not be a weak character. They will be strong and resilient. They have been proven over years and in many situations.

*Tact and empathy.* A good leader will be observant and will be able to influence via many methods. Chen uses a "mixed" style of management as he is leading a team a mix of new and experience

colleagues.

*Dependable.* Trust in a leader will often come from how that leader has acted in adversity.

*Vision.* A leader will understand where the end of a journey is situated, also understand how and where to. In Lee's opinion, the day-to-day challenges of a hotel GM are about how you manage both your time and yourself because your schedule is not fixed. Different things might come to your table, and it's absolutely crucial to know when you should schedule your time for your guests and when to meet your employees. It's about how to organize things (agenda, 2013).

CONCLUSION

The common traits between the leader and the entrepreneur may be character and vision but how these traits are used and implemented creates the difference.

Lee and Chen are two admired leaders and industry "icons". Both are honest, humble and full with humanity. But Lee is a mobile hotelier with more than 20 years of experience in top class luxury hotels in China, Japan, Hong Kong and Singapore. He experienced the opening of two top class hotels in Japan and China and has also been involved major renovation and rebranding of hotels. He has frequently moved to another location for his further career development. He has not remained in any overseas location for more than two years. Moreover he has not stuck to a single hotel property. He has moved between different top class luxuries hotels to achieve his goal of personal career development. Chen is also an experienced hotelier, but he has stuck with SLH over for 30 years. He developed from the engineering department to Chairman of the property. In other words, he was born and bred in the property. For him, SLH is more like a home, and the employees are like his family.

Many theories states that character is formed via one's genes and early environment; that character is formed in the early years of one's life. Whatever the leader's background, organizational cultures will soon expose a leader's weakness and substance is necessary - especially in this modern age when every word and action is reported. Building a career takes strengths and strong characters will often possess drive, energy and determination. Good leaders can only achieve success if they are trusted and followed by their teams.

LIMITATION

The author should be careful to avoid being subjective and one-sided because worked with these two leaders several years. The author collected some secondary data from their subordinates, maybe they are reluctant to criticize, and it might be stated as another research limitation.

A famous dictum states that: "Who judges best of a man, his enemies or himself?" A true saying from French writer Mr. François de La Rochefoucauld:" Our enemies come nearer the truth in their opinions of than we do in our opinion of ourselves." The key point is spectators see clearly while the participants are often lost in the maze, the most insight into the strengths and weaknesses of their proposition is their enemies. For the purpose of objective assessment, except for personal interview, the author should also interview their enemies or competitors.

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# THREE SUGGESTIONS: FROM INDUSTRY TO HUMANITY COMPARING SERVICES IN JAPAN AND SINGAPORE

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## ABSTRACT

I would like to suggest three approaches to recover humanity in Hospitality Industry comparing services in Japan and Singapore. Firstly, I will touch on greater productivity for more fundamental innovation. In some accommodation companies in Japan, the part-time worker can join the management meeting and give their ideas and feedback regarding their daily operations. As a result, many breakthrough improvements can happen and this can be shared among all staffs. So under this management system, people can contribute not only physically but also add to better ideas and systems improvement. On the other hand, under western styled management practised mostly in Singapore, jobs are strictly confined to the respective positions. Managers do mostly administrative and management job and workers are hired mostly to do mundane work in service industry. They are not expected to work with creativity even if they are creative or have good ideas to improve their job. I think it is a waste not to tap their other talents. "Holistic Management," using the service staff totally is the best way to increase productivity and bring about more   innovative services for the guests. Secondly, it is the perception of "Irregular is Regular." Customers' needs are becoming more diversified by the day. A service provider is required to handle many people who are from different cultures and background and hence have different preferences. Even the information data gathered by the company, it has to be up date often. This information shared with all staff via manuals and regular meetings may not be sufficient training in today's competitive environment. The "Irregular is regular" concept can make the guest feel his worth so he gets to feel the "place" is a special for him. Finally, we have to distinguish between "service" and "hospitality". Service is a relation between one and many people that is efficient and Hospitality is a one to one relationship that is not efficient but rational. These are conflicting concepts but both are important for running a business. However, most of companies don't have their   own standards of judgment of "Service" and "Hospitality" for themselves. I would like to show how two different companies see and practice "Service" and "Hospitality." I am considering a low service productivity in Japan due to confusing these two concepts. It is required to introduce the strategic hospitality for more improvement in Singapore.

In this paper, I would like to share new perspective of hospitality filed to recover humanity in emerging service industry with comparing services between in Japan and Singapore.

Key words: Holistic Management, field-oriented, Irregular is regular, Distinguishing Service and Hospitality

## INTRODUCTION

If you have ever lived far from your hometown, you must be surprised at the difference of the services that you get in the new place for the first few weeks. Two years ago, when I just moved to Singapore from Tokyo, I was so puzzled with the local service. For example, the clothes shop cashier is eating while sitting on the floor even when a

customer is waiting or a taxi driver who often refuses his fare after learning of the customers' destination. I feel that Singapore is a modern city but its service level is still poor. A few months later, however, I noticed I could have misunderstood this because I was personal touched by kindness of a Singaporean in an emergency situation. When my son was sick, a home doctor gave me first aid advice via Email. If I were in Tokyo, I would have to go to a large hospital far from home at midnight to see the night duty doctor. Also here in business, communication is much simpler and honestly, we don't waste time and cost for superficial politeness. I find that each place has its own unique context and this becomes a basis of own service culture. Though my working experience in global chain hotel, I have often had the feeling that service is now divided and impoverished by the emphasis for efficiency and the service industry is losing the "humanity" aspect. In this paper, I would like to share how to recover humanity and how to prevent human alienation by the rapid progress of globalization and IT in service industry.

HOLISTIC MANAGEMENT

Under general western style hotel management, employees are hired under contract and showed their job description so if someone is hired as a Receptionist, that person can't serve dishes or clean up the room. In a hotel in New York, if a restaurant staff finds litter on the floor, he can't pick it up because it's not his job. If he does it, the staff should pay penalty to the cleaning team because the former has stolen the latter's job. However, if you are the guest, cleaning up as soon as possible is needed and who does it does not matter at all.

We can find opposite style in the service of Ryokan, a traditional Japanese hotel. In Ryokan, one particular staff called Nakai is in charge of all services of the guests. Nakai prepares the meals, bed and lines, baths, teas and sweets and guides for sightseeing. It is similar to a Buttler service in a western hotel, but the difference is Nakai's service is provide not only to the special guest staying in a suite room but to all the Ryokan guests. It means the owner or General Manager of Ryokan has been known that a one to one relation service is actually much more productive and can give satisfaction to the guest. Taking over this field-oriented culture, in some accommodation hotels in Japan, the part-time worker can join the management meeting and give ideas and operational feedback they noticed in daily operation. As a result, many breakthrough improvements can happen and this can be shared among all staffs. So under this Holistic human management system, people do both physical and brain work. On the other hand, under western styled management practised mostly in Singapore, jobs are strictly confined to the respective positions. Managers do mostly administrative and management job and workers are hired mostly to do mundane work in service industry. They are not expected to work with creativity even if they are creative or have good ideas to improve their job. I surprisingly found there are some cleaning staffs that can only clear the plates in every food court in Singapore. I think it is so wasteful to bringing out small part of talent of the hired person. "Holistic Management," bringing out all talent of service staff is the best way to increase productivity and it would be caused the innovative services for the guest.

"IRREGULAR IS REGULAR"

What is the meaning of "Manual" in service? It is to share the value and provide a certain level of service to meet customer satisfaction. However, I often see many people are forced to do manual routine work in Japan, which is far from the original meaning of manual.

When I just moved to Singapore, I found a nice bookshelf in MUJI, one of Japanese furniture & general brands. It was on Japanese catalog, but I couldn't find it on Singapore one. So I contacted the customer centers of both MUJI Japan and MUJI Singapore. After 3 days, I got a response from Japan but the answer was so stereotypical like "Thank you for inquiry. At this time, we do not offer the product you are inquiring about in Singapore. We are sorry that we can't send it to you. We look forward to your continued support in the future." These superficial words sound very polite but empty message for me. 2 days later, I surprisingly got a different response from

MUJI Singapore. "We are pleased to inform you that we can prepare your favorite book shelf which is sold only in Japan. Details below… " I received different response from the same company. I often find these kinds of flexibility response in hospital, restaurant, and school in Singapore. I presume that these flexible services in Singapore have roots in heterogeneous and economical rationally based culture. We are living in a globalized world and have a lot   of chance to service people who have a different culture and background including foreigners and of different ages. Service industry in Japan should learn these flexible ways to meet various needs. Some managers say accepting irregular orders takes too much cost and effort, however, if the irregular happens regularly, your perspective towards "regular" would be wrong. The phase of "Irregular is regular" should be written on the manual. Now, MUJI has a new rule that they will revise 1% of the whole operation manual every month.

In other case, hotels believe in recording the preferences of their guests so the same services can be accorded to the same guests anywhere in the world within the same group. This service looks all for guests but hotels have much merit with this because they don't need think again if they had a data. They treat the guest as just one of their consumers and not too concerned about the guest's changed preference by situations.

The large-scale companies like infrastructure or public service in developed society tend to force unpleasant services without thinking of the customers' satisfactions. Routine manual work is not meant for the customer but not for the staff. Monotonous job without thinking is reducing the sensitivity of hospitality and finally humanity will be lost in the workplace. Rules and manuals are effective for efficient operations in keeping with a certain level of quality, however, they sometimes limit creativity. People are losing their motivation if they are suppressed for a long time. If they know that they can change the manuals to modify the customer needs in advance, they may think they are esteemed. So I think MUJI's new rule revising 1% of their manual every month is good for change and it will not cause strain and impact to the workplace. The "Irregular is regular" concept can make both guest and staff to feel worth so they get to feel the "place" is a special for themselves.

DISTINGUISHING "SERVICE" AND "HOSPITALITY"

Finally, we have to distinguish between "service" and "hospitality". This idea may effective to develop service both of Japan and Singapore. I think most problems like preventing improvement of service and causing human alienation in workplace fundamentally comes from confusing these two conflicting thoughts. However, most of companies don't have their own standards of judgment of "Service" and "Hospitality" for themselves. Mr. Tetsuji Yamamoto defined these words as below[1].

Service: A relation between one and many persons: homogenous integration, indirect, efficient, equal, measurable, the satisfaction of needs, friendly, disciplined, productive, a social behavior.

Hospitality: A one to one relation: heterogeneous multiplicity, direct, not efficient but rational, unequal, not measurable, pleasurable, hospitable, dignified, convivial, a cultural action.

However, they are frequently confused and it misleads the staff working there. For example, some companies say their mission is providing customer satisfaction, but actually most of them have only "service" operation manuals and evaluation system just based on sales or profit in a short time not based on customer satisfaction. So most of investors and managers don't understand why their staff can't do customer-oriented action. Add business factor to above Mr. Yamamoto's defines, "Service" is easier to standardize and monetize in short time. So staffs on the floor have to focus on "Service" even if recently consumer required more "Hospitality" now. It can cause not just confusion for staffs but losing brand identity.

Kagaya Ryokan, one of the best accommodations in Japan is very good at switching the efficient

service and individual hospitality. At the dinnertime, they deliver the meals automatically by belt conveyor to more than 200 guest rooms and finally the staffs get the tray in front of the door and serving one by one with smiling without sweating. They use separately service for process and hospitality for the moment of touching directly (Table 1).

Table 1. Dinner operation, Kagaya Ryokan

|  | Delivery | Setting the table |
|---|---|---|
| Service | ○ | |
| Hospitality | | ○ |

Not only in hotel industry, we can find another good example of switching of service and hospitality in IT service industry. Apple Inc. uses "Service" and "Hospitality" very effectively according to their management processes. They design the products with based on human technology so that we can use them without instructions. We can say that is hospitality design that can activate the person's sense. Subsequently, the processes of manufacturing and sales would be conducted on service logic as we can see same advertising and store all over the world and the products will be made in the most proper factories on the earth. After once the customer get the Apple products, they start to support the user with IT professionals (Table 2). We can see Apple Inc. model of uses of "Service" and "Hospitality" is one of best style of IT service.

Table 2. Management Process, Apple Inc.

|  | Design | Manufacturing | Marketing | Sales | Customer Support |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Service | | ○ | ○ | ○ | |
| Hospitality | ○ | | | | ○ |

As above two examples, I hope the method of distinguishing "Service" and "Hospitality" will be more penetrated to various field.

CONCLUSION

Singapore, a government-initiated developed country has focused on "Service" so that almost all people can live in urban houses and can take high education and proper public service. However, between 2013 to 2014, people's satisfaction rate towards several sectors including F&B, Tourism, Transport & Logistics, and Retails significantly
Decline[2]. I expect Singapore need more "Hospitality" logic to cover people's multifaceted requests with using cost and manpower saved by "Service". Originally they have "Irregular is regular" sense in local service, now is the time to use their "Hospitality" strategically for improvement of their services.

The fundamental problem of service in Japan caused from confusing "Service" and "Hospitality". I believe that separating the part of seeking efficiency and holding human approach may be the solutions.

In this paper, I shared new perspective to recover humanity in the service industry. I would like to continue further on the development of service with more meaningful research and action with

three suggestions, Holistic Management, "Irregular is regular", Distinguishing "Service" and "Hospitality".

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# A TYPOLOGY OF CHALLENGES IN HOSPITALITY REVENUE MANAGEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Revenue Management has been attracting increasing attention from practitioners and scholars as a viable strategy to improve financial effectiveness of firms. Because of perishability characteristics of its services, tourism industry (e.g. airlines, hotels, restaurants) emerges as a popular user of revenue management systems. However the dynamic, competitive and multi-dimensional structure of the industry creates problems in balancing supply and demand at optimum price levels. Revenue managers particularly has a critical role in hospitality as they are responsible for ensuring the hotel prices match guests willingness to pay. The main objective of the study is to identify the challenges that are faced by hotel revenue managers during their duty of managing inventory and prices. In order to reach this aim a qualitative method was adopted and revenue managers of five-stars hotels located in Istanbul were interviewed concerning their interpretations of those problems. The content analysis of transcribed data revealed a typology of revenue management challenges, which are conceptualized under environmental, organizational and internal factors. Practical implications and suggestions for future research are proposed.

Key words: revenue management, yield management, strategic pricing, dynamic pricing, revenue managers.

## INTRODUCTION

Revenue management (RM) is a strategy deployed by service companies with perishable inventories (e.g. airlines, hotels, restaurants, car rentals, spas, etc.) to maximize their revenues. The term RM (in the past more widely discussed as Yield Management) is used to describe a variety of strategies that allocates limited resources (e.g. hotel rooms) among different customer segments (e.g. business travelers). Application of RM have been widely discussed scholarly in various services contexts such as airlines (e.g. Smith, Leimkuhler, & Darrow, 1992), hotels (e.g. Cross, Higbie, & Cross, 2009), car rental companies (e.g. Geraghty & Johnson, 1997), restaurants (e.g. Susskind, Reynolds, & Tsuchiya, 2004), spas (e.g. Kimes & Singh, 2009), casinos (e.g. Hendler & Hendler, 2004), resorts (e.g. Pinchuk, 2006), bars (e.g. Bujisic, Hutchinson, & Bilgihan, 2014) and entertainment events (e.g.

Volpano, 2003). RM continues to attract increasing attention from both industry and academia alike due to the financial advantages it yields to organizations.

Sophisticated RM techniques' contribution on profits has been acknowledged in the literature and RM is proven successful in range of industries (Cross, Higbie, & Cross, 2011). Working within a RM culture allows organizations to develop a greater understanding of the dynamics of the demand. Such discipline puts the hotel in a position to be able to take advantage of opportunities that may exist to deploy rate and inventory restrictions on nights when demand is high. Additionally, systematic observation of booking trends and benchmarking allow hotels to make more informed decisions regarding the rates that are offered, products and the channels of business that are opened for sale.

Despite the advantages that RM offers to hotels, the lodging industry still shows resistance or delays to adopt RM solutions. Mainzer (2004) discusses the reasons that appear as obstacles to the spread of RM use in the lodging industry. First, the structure of ownership and management in the lodging industry has slowed the adoption of sophisticated RM systems. The lodging industry is highly decentralized and fragmented compared to airlines. In other words, there are a number of larger brands and many individually operated independent hotels or smaller hotel groups. Second, the number of players that need to be integrated with RM is high. Another issue that slows down the adoption of RM systems in the lodging industry is that hotel brands associate airline RM practices with fare wars, consumer confusion and dissatisfaction. Moreover, staff expertise and resources at the individual property level are often insufficient in applying advanced RM or overcome the persistent problems in centralizing controls in pricing across various distribution platforms. Usually, only larger hotel properties have a staff member designated as a revenue manager (Mainzer, 2004).

Hotel managers are concerned that demand based variable pricing may also damage customers' perceptions of fairness (Choi & Matilla, 2004). Last, hotels have unique issues that need to be considered in RM such as length of stay and revenue from ancillary services (Cross, Higbie, & Cross, 2009). To put this differently, the dynamic, competitive and multi-dimensional structure of the industry creates problems concerning such issues as pricing, management of distribution channels, forecasting, developments on ICT, integration with other systems and strategies, sheer volume of data to be processed for better decision making, price fairness, human resources, long term contracts, allocations and so on. Literature on hotel RM is focused on different models of revenue management (e.g. RM systems, rate fences, pricing models) or demand side of the issue (e.g. perceptions of customers, CRM) and has so far neglected the overall perspectives of professionals involved in RM decision making process. Revenue managers has a critical role in hospitality as they are responsible for ensuring the hotel prices match guests willingness to pay while minimizing consumer surplus. They need to understand concepts such as value, supply and demand, consumers' willingness to pay by following the trends in the marketplace. The profession is both a science (e.g. algorithms) and an art (e.g. intuition).

Perspectives of revenue managers are important for a better design of overall revenue management process including adaptation and integration of new technologies and identification of areas that need improvement. It should also be acknowledged that for a successful employment, RM must be integrated into all aspects of hotel management, marketing and operational activities (Mauri, 2012). Thus, the slow adoption of RM in the lodging industry is also a reflection of challenges and barriers that revenue managers face. Identifying potential barriers and offering solutions to challenges would help hotels to adopt RM strategies. Therefore the goal of this research is to identify the challenges that are faced by hotel revenue managers during their duty of managing inventory and prices. The next sections discuss the existing literature on hotel RM, RM systems and RM challenges.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The core of RM is the concept of demand-based variable pricing (Choi & Matilla, 2004). RM is an approach to maximizing revenue (Jauncey, Mitchell, & Slammet, 1995). It is the art and science of selling products and or services to the right customers, at the right prices (Cleophas & Frank, 2011), at

the right time. It is a method that deals with managing capacity profitability (Kimes, 2008). RM is also defined as the practice of obtaining the highest possible revenue (Burke & Ng, 2006). Because of complex nature of the decisions they make, revenue managers are usually supported by expert software and automated systems (Mauri, 2012). Such software assists managers to make better RM decisions. RM systems support accurate demand assessments and decisions to optimize revenue. Prices of competition, occupancies, historical demand patterns, events and occurrences affecting demand could be scanned electronically to provide critical information. RM systems can also alert organizations about excess capacity or demand.

It is well-known that technology investments such as successfully implementing and running a RM system can help hotels to achieve competitive advantage (Bilgihan, Okumus, Nusair, & Kwun, 2011). However, it is also acknowledged that system implementation, changes and updates can be costly (Yeh, Leong, Blecher, & Lai, 2005), further, technology implementation may have major implications on hotel operations (Sigala, 2005), customer service (Meuter, Ostrom, Roundtree, & Bitner, 2000), and human resources management practices (Burke & Ng, 2006) which may trigger resistance from various departments. Although hotel managers may recognize the importance of integrating RM systems into their properties, such changes may face major barriers and resistance from both internal and external sources.

Challenges to innovation and organizational change have been widely investigated in the literature. The most commonly mentioned challenges include high costs, lack of skills and resources, time limitations, priority of other businesses, technical difficulties, internal politics, commitment to the current practices, and strong organizational culture (Okumus and Hemmington, 1998; Overhot, Kroegor & Prager, 1994). Stewart, Mohamed and Marosszeky (2004) claim that technology implementation challenges occur in three different levels: *industry level, organization level* and *project level.* RM is expected to create similar problems.

Kimes (2008) mentioned volatile global economy and dramatic big events were considered as one of the biggest challenges faced by revenue managers. Discounting room rates is the main strategy to sell rooms during difficult economic times such as 9/11 and it could be used as a tool to capture market share from competitors. However increasing the rates back into original level is another challenge (Enz, Canina & Lomanno, 2009). It is also very difficult to forecast demand in today's multichannel and multi device environment. Shorter booking windows affect accuracy of forecasts. Lead times vary depending not only on different channels but also different cultural backgrounds (Gupta, 2014).

Technology, integration issues and gathering data are other challenges for optimum pricing. All key stakeholders should be considered by revenue managers so that they can give effective decisions. Data should be complete, accurate and should be driven by consumer behavior focusing on revenue per available guest rather than total room nights (Hoisington, 2014). Revenue managers also believe that group decision making techniques should be improved (Kimes, 2008). Another related factor discussed in the literature concerning RM challenges is inadequate RM systems. McGuire (2012) discusses that current RM systems are not able to match up with the technology both in processing power and integration with other systems. RM systems are also criticized to focus on short term results and ignore the life time value of clients (Patrick, 2010).

Advances in electronic distribution also create a challenging environment for RM executives; global distribution channels, online travel agencies and wholesalers (Carroll & Siguaw, 2003). Another emerging challenge is the evolution of electronic reservations. It was recommended that hotel revenue managers should make necessary investments to provide adequate photography, specific and detailed information on hotel web site (Mayock, 2009) to continue attracting direct reservations and decrease dependency on Online Travel Agencies (OTAs). Search engine optimization have also become a challenge for RM. Carroll and Siguaw, (2003) state that pricing structures became more transparent with the advent of internet resulting in commoditization of hospitality services. Social media is also important for driving traffic and booking conversion. Revenue managers are also expected to monitor online reviews and review trend reports, have knowledge about all distribution channels, current

competition and new investments and contribute in implementing a suitable marketing strategy to gain market share over their competitors (Spencer, 2012). The workload that is required for effective data mining therefore is another challenge.

Hotel RM executives are also expected to balance various sources of businesses (e.g. group and transient demand), depending on clients' ancillary room revenues like meeting room, catering, spas and golf. Integrating ancillary spending to RM through group analysis is not an easy task and there are several variables that should be considered as food and beverage sales, complimentary rooms for meeting organizers and opportunity cost of displacing potential future groups and transient room nights (Noone, Breffni, Kelly, McGuire & Cristin, 2011). Hence hotel companies started to implement a more holistic approach which is also referred to as *Total Hotel Revenue Management* focusing on profitability by customer segment, channel costs and function space and other extra spending besides the rooms.

Thus communication between revenue department and sales department is very important. Sales department is usually more focused on *heads on beds* whereas revenue management is more profit oriented (Noone et all, 2011). Coordination particularly between these two departments is especially deemed important in developing and implementing RM strategies (Easdale, 2010). Marketing, reservations and other frontline employees are also crucial in reaching RM goals. Hence another challenge is to educate, participate and motivate different actors that have different roles (Samantha, 2014). Human resources is particularly difficult to plan and manage. Turner (2014) also state the difficulty of finding talented revenue analyst, revenue managers and directors of revenue.

Another problem discussed in literature concerning RM is customers' acceptance level of price changes. Rate restrictions, packaging, cancellation periods and payment policies are used to explain such differences Therefore revenue department and marketing department should be careful when designing the restrictions since poorly designed restrictions may prevent customers to book the room and affect their future patronage behavior (Guillet et al, 2014). Managing pricing and availability strategies, achieving rate accuracy and availability, organizing rate structure effectively, employing consistent, proper reservation terms and conditions and following up with competition are considered difficult tasks (Carroll & Siguaw, 2003). To conclude revenue managers are faced with various complications that prevent them from reaching the optimum pricing.

METHODOLOGY

This study aims to identify the challenges that are faced by hotel revenue managers during their duty of managing inventory and prices. Since the research is exploratory in nature a qualitative process involving semi-structured interviews with revenue managers in Istanbul was adopted. This qualitative method allows participants to reveal thoughtful insights about the meanings of their experiences and knowledge. Interviews with key decision makers are one of the best ways to identify the key symptoms (Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2009). Hospitality industry in Istanbul can be considered as a good domain to analyze these challenges because there are hundreds of five-star hotels within a very condensed geographical area serving more than 10 million tourists per year. Although the annual hotel room demand in the city is ever increasing, demand also fluctuates to extremes during different periods. Hencerevenue management strategies become crucial for effective financial hotel operations considering high fixed costs of hotel operations in Istanbul.

Seven revenue managers of five-star hotels in Istanbul, Turkey were interviewed between Jan.-Feb.2015. The sample is limited with revenue managers of brand affiliated hotels since these chains are usually active users of revenue management systems. All interviews were electronically recorded and transcribed before the next interview was conducted. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967) interviews should continue until data saturation is reached. After conducting seven interviews and reading the transcribed data several times independently; authors agreed data started to repeat itself and additional interviews would not reveal major findings. 87 pages of data were created at the end of this process. Transcriptions were then re-read multiple times by each author, significant themes were

color coded and classified under higher order dimensions. At the final phase authors discussed their grouping, compared it with existing literature and agreed on the final framework as depicted in figure 1.

FINDINGS

Four of the interviewees were male, they had an average industry experience of 14 years. Two of them were employed by franchise hotels, the rest were working for management agreement hotels. All of them had experiences in various different facilities in different countries. After analyzing data and compiling the relevant literature in RM, various obstacles that influence revenue management strategy were identified these are depicted at figure 1.

Figure 1. Typology of revenue management in hospitality
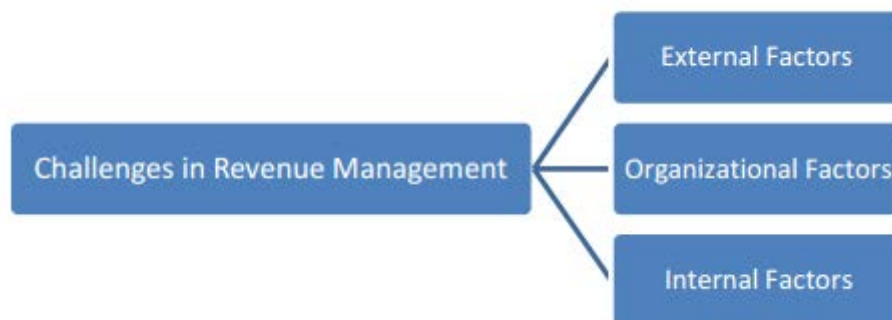


External factors are factors related to agents that are well beyond the control of the revenue manager such as developments in technology and distributions systems (e.g. mobile applications), regional and seasonal changes in demand (e.g. customer purchasing habits), user acceptance (e.g. market response to dynamic pricing), competition (e.g. additional bed capacity added into the market), commoditization of lodging services (e.g. enormous number of channels), unpredictable economic environment (e.g. corporate clients), legislative environment (e.g. no-show fees).

Organizational factors are obstacles that are related to organizational strategies and decisions which revenue manager is affected indirectly however has little power to change. These challenges include, characteristics concerning the product (e.g. location), revenue management software (e.g. integration with hotel PMS and third party web sites), departmental conflicts (e.g. sales department), B2B contracts (long term, fixed rates, allocations), marketing communications (e.g. hotel web site, SEO), training and motivation of hotel staff (e.g. uploading reservations), incentives (e.g. upselling), dependence on specific markets (e.g. MICE and tour operators), management agreements (e.g. owner pressure), centralization (e.g. clustering), loyalty program (e.g. discounts).

Internal factors: managing distribution channels (e.g. dependency), controlling costs (e.g. commissions), total hotel RM (e.g. outlets other than rooms), preventing cannibalization (e.g. different channels), accuracy of forecast (e.g. data integrity), determining price elasticity of different markets (e.g. price conscious customers), displacement analysis (e.g. extra services other than rooms revenue), increasing reference prices (e.g. after heavy discounts), human resources (e.g. scarcity of competent RM staff), personality (e.g. communication skills), sheer volume of data to be processed (e.g. marketing intelligence), multiunit responsibilities (e.g. clustered reveneue management).

CONCLUSIONS

RM is emerging as a viable strategy to improve financial benefits through managing inventory and demand. Hospitality and tourism services are ideal for RM applications. However it is harder for hospitality organizations to adopt RM systems because of the dynamic, competitive and multi-dimensional nature of the hospitality industry. Although literature agrees on their significance, no

previous study focused solely on challenges of RM as expressed by revenue managers. This study after interviewing seven revenue managers offered a typology of revenue management challenges under *external*, *organizational* and *internal* factors. The findings revealed that most of the challenges are associated with factors beyond the control of revenue managers. However an analysis of these challenges might also trigger some collaborative solutions. For example revenue managers might cooperate for data integrity and marketing intelligence in order to minimize the negative effects of fluctuating demand and role of competitor manipulation. Organizational strategies might also be better designed to fit with RM objectives. Feasibility studies, management contracts, HR activities might also adopted to include contributions from RM professionals. For example RM executives might be consulted on their thoughts about projected demand and ADR during the feasibility process before the investment is made so that a possibly flawed decision is prevented before the point of no return. The struggle against dependency to monopolistic third party web sites (e.g. expedia, booking.com) can only be won when RM departments cooperate. The findings also revealed creating, communicating and adopting an organization wide RM is also only possible with cooperation among departments.

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# THE INFLUENCE OF SERVICE QUALITY GAPS ON CUSTOMER LOYALTY: A CASE STUDY OF MIDSCALE BANGKOK HOTELS

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ABSTRACT

Whilst midscale hotels, also known as three and four star hotels, generally provide a high return-on-investment when compared to other hotel categories in Bangkok, midscale hotels suffer from an oversupply situation due to their lack of product differentiation. In turn, achieving customer loyalty is challenging for midscale hotels. As service plays a key role in gaining a competitive advantage, exceeding customer's expectation towards service quality can lead to customer loyalty. Therefore, this research aims to identify the influence of service quality gaps on customer loyalty. Findings suggest that there is a significant relationship between service quality gaps and customer loyalty.

Key words: service quality, service management, SERVQUAL, midscale hotel, customer loyalty, hotel marketing

INTRODUCTION

The hotel sector plays a significant role in Thailand's tourism industry. Although midscale hotels, also known as three and four star hotels (STR, 2013), generally provide the highest internal rate of return when compared to other hotel categories in Bangkok, Bangkok midscale hotels also face an oversupply situation (Langdon, 2013). An adverse outcome of oversupply is the lack of real product differentiation. The high volume of supply means it becomes increasingly difficult for midscale hotels to establish a unique selling point (Pathnadabutr, 2012).

Furthermore, midscale travelers are price sensitive, but look for good quality and value for money. Hence, attracting and maintaining the loyalty of midscale hotel customers is more difficult than other hotel segments (Tselepidakis, 2013) particularly because midscale hotels do not have customer's brand loyalty and repeat visits like established five-star hotels (Pathnadabutr, 2012).

In a highly competitive hotel industry, service is one of the most important elements to gain a sustainable competitive advantage. It is vital for hotel managers to understand how customers perceive the quality of service. This is the main reason why the SERVQUAL scale, an instrument measuring the gaps between the expectation and perception toward service quality, has been widely used in various service industries (Markovic & Raspor, 2010).

More importantly, service quality influences customer loyalty (Boon-itt & Rompho, 2012). The greater the perceptions of overall service quality, the more likely that customers will engage in behaviors beneficial to the firm, such as loyalty to the organization. Loyal tourists engage in positive word-of-mouth communication and repurchase behavior, which means less marketing expenses and more revenue for the hotel in the long run (Y. Lin, 2011).

Whilst there are a number of studies (e.g. Alexandris, Dimitriadis, & Markata, 2002; Motlagh et. al., 2013; Ramanathan & Ramanathan, 2011) on the relationship between service quality gaps and customer loyalty in the hotel industry, none of them specifically focus in the context of midscale hotels, which is one of the fast-growing hotel sectors in Bangkok.

To examine such an issue, this research aims to identify the influence of midscale Bangkok hotels' service quality gaps on customer loyalty. Therefore, the first objective of this research was to determine the service quality gaps between customer expectations and perceptions toward midscale Bangkok hotels. The second objective was to determine the relationship between service quality gaps and customer loyalty toward midscale Bangkok hotels. Following the two research objectives, the hypotheses are developed and presented below:

H1: There are significant service quality gaps between customer expectations and perceptions toward midscale Bangkok hotels.

H2: There is a significant relationship between service quality gaps and customer loyalty toward midscale Bangkok hotels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Two major concepts, SERVQUAL and customer loyalty, were adopted in this research. Firstly, SERVQUAL is a model based on five service quality dimensions, namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. This set of five dimensions is further subdivided into two sets of questions. The first set questions measures customer expectations prior to service delivery. The second set of questions measures the perceptions (attitudes) of customers about the delivered service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). The most widely used instrument for measuring perception is a Likert scale, ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' (Blešiš et al., 2011). For each item, a gap score = P – E, where P and E are the ratings on the corresponding perception and expectation statements, respectively (Parasuraman, et al., 1988).

The greater the perceptions of overall service quality, the more likely the customers are loyal to the hotel. It has been pointed that loyal customers are more likely to engage in positive word-of-mouth communication and repurchase behavior, which means more revenue for the hotel in the long run (Y. Lin, 2011). This leads to the second concept adopted in this research, which is customer loyalty.

According to Markovic et al. (2010), customer loyalty can be conceptualized from behavioral, attitudinal, and cognitive perspectives. Loyalty is usually defined as a commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product or service, thereby causing repetitive same-brand purchasing despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior. Hence, a loyal customer is a customer who repurchases from the same service provider whenever possible and who continues to recommend or maintain a positive attitude toward the service provider. Furthermore, loyal customers are price tolerant as well

Skogland and Siquaw (2004) have added that customer loyalty consists of three dimensions: repeat-patronage, price insensitivity, and word-of-mouth. Repeat patronage is the intention to use the hotel more often in the future, and the intention to not switch to a different hotel. Price insensitivity is the willingness to stay regardless of the increase in the service price. Word-of-mouth is the willingness to recommend the hotel to friends and family.

METHODOLOGY

The target population is customers staying at midscale hotels in Bangkok. Samples are Thai and foreign customers who stayed at four midscale hotels in Bangkok from December 2013 to

March 2014. This research has adopted Skaliotis & Sääf (2006)'s definition of midscale hotel as 3 and 4 star hotels with 100-200 rooms. As the overall number of customers staying at midscale hotels in Bangkok could not be determined, this research has utilized Taro Yamane's Table (Yamane, 1973) with a 95% confidence level and ±5% sampling error. In turn, a total of 400 responses were expected.

By using multi-stage sampling, this research started with a quota sampling technique to divide samples into four equal groups from four different midscale hotels in Bangkok. Then, a convenience sampling has been used to collect data from 100 customers at each hotel. A convenience sampling is a non-probability technique which attempts to obtain a sample of convenient elements; overall, it is both less expensive and less time consuming when compared with other sampling techniques (Aaker, Kumar, & Day, 2004), and thus is particularly suitable to this research given its resource limitations.

Next, data have been collected through self-administered questionnaires from customers staying at midscale hotels in Bangkok. The survey instrument was developed based on the concept of service quality (SERVQUAL) and customer loyalty, together with respondent feedbacks from the pilot test. Scales used in this research are shown below.

*SERVQUAL Scales*

The first part of the questionnaire is dimensions related to service quality, based on a review of the literature on SERVQUAL. This section was designed to measure the respondents' perceptions regarding the service quality. Using a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) indicating 'Very low' to (5) indicating 'Very high', hotel customers were asked to rate their level of expectation (before) and perception (after) of the following SERVQUAL items which have been adapted from Boon-itt and Rompho (2012):

*Tangibles:* The hotel has visually appealing facilities; Materials associated with services are adequate (soap, shampoo, towel, etc.); and Hotel staff appear neat and tidy (as uniforms and personal grooming).

*Reliability:* Hotel staff provide consistent services (providing the same services and associated materials every time); Hotel staff keep accurate records (reservations, guest records, bills, orders, etc.); and Hotel staff perform the services right from the first time.

*Responsiveness:* Hotel staff are always willing to serve customers; Hotel staff are always available when needed; and Hotel staff provide prompt service.

*Assurance:* Hotel staff have knowledge to provide information and assistance to guests in areas they would require (shopping, museums, places of interest, etc.); Hotel staff have in-depth occupational knowledge (professional skills, foreign language, communication skills, etc.); and Hotel staff instill confidence in guests.

*Empathy:* Hotel staff give guests individualized attention that makes guests feel special; Hotel staff understand the specific needs of guests; and the hotel provide flexibility in services according to guest demands.

*Customer Loyalty*

This part of the questionnaire includes items measuring customer loyalty. The statements in the questionnaire has been adapted from the literature and refined based on the hotel context. Using a five-point Likert scale ranging from indicating 'Very unlikely' to (5) indicating 'Very likely', hotel customers were asked to rate their level of agreement of the following customer loyalty items which have been adapted from Lin (2005):

*Repeat-patronage:* Would you stay at this hotel again in the near future?
*Word-of-mouth:* Would you recommend this hotel to your friends and family?
*Price insensitivity:* If a competing hotel offers a better rate or discount, would you switch to that hotel?

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Four hundred questionnaires were expected, whilst 330 completed questionnaires were received. As 5 questionnaires were incomplete the number of usable questionnaires was 325, which is a response rate of 81.2% (325 out of 400).

The majority of respondents were male (52.6%), married (49.8%), with the age between 25-35 years old (34.8%). A large number of respondents were European (37.5%), followed by Asian (32.9%), North American which includes those from the United States and Canada (14.5%), and Oceanian which includes those from Australia and New Zealand (10.2%). In addition, most respondents were in the bachelor-degree level (58.2%), and worked as employees (52%), with an average monthly income of 1,501 – 3,000 USD (30.8%). Results from the hypothesis testing are shown below.

*Hypothesis 1*
Support for hypothesis 1 is found in this research as there are significant service quality gaps between customer expectations and perceptions toward midscale Bangkok hotels ($p<0.01$). From customers' perspectives, the gaps between expectations and perceptions explicitly reflect the service quality of the hotel. A positive gap (+) means the service quality of the hotels is good and the hotels deliver services that are better than expected, whilst a negative gap (-) means the service quality of the hotels is poor and the hotels deliver worse services. A zero gap (0) means the service quality of the hotels satisfies the customer needs (Boon-itt & Rompho, 2012).

The table below shows that the overall mean score of customer expectation is at a high level (4.04) whilst customer perception is at a very high level (4.43). In addition, the overall level of perception of each service quality (SERVQUAL) dimension was higher than the level of expectation. This positive gap indicates that customers are satisfied with the services. Tangibles were found to be the most important dimension with the highest positive gap (0.44). This means that tangible evidence, such as the hotel's visually appealing facilities, materials associated with the services, and neat staff uniform, has an impact on customer satisfaction.

Table 1. Service quality gaps

| SERVQUAL Dimensions | Expectation (E) | Perception (P) | SERVQUAL Gaps (P-E) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tangibles | 3.99 | 4.43 | 0.44 |
| Reliability | 4.07 | 4.47 | 0.40 |
| Responsiveness | 4.14 | 4.53 | 0.39 |
| Assurance | 4.01 | 4.36 | 0.35 |
| Empathy | 4.01 | 4.37 | 0.36 |
| Overall mean score | 4.04 | 4.43 | 0.39 |

The importance of tangibles, as a part of the service quality dimension, is endorsed by a number of authors (e.g. Laws, 2004). Sriyam (2010), in particular, has examined the service quality of front office staff at a midscale hotel in Pattaya, Thailand. In Sriyam (2010)'s study, the tangibles dimension, particularly the staff's appearance, was ranked at the highest level when compared with other service quality dimensions. Moreover, it was highlighted that tangibles dimension was the best predictor of overall service quality.

Table 2. Paired-sample T-Test of service quality gaps

| SERVQUAL Dimensions | Mean Differences | S.D. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tangibles | 0.440 | 0.631 | 12.562 | 324 | 0.000* |
| Reliability | 0.403 | 0.678 | 10.720 | 324 | 0.000* |
| Responsiveness | 0.387 | 0.738 | 9.441 | 324 | 0.000* |
| Assurance | 0.356 | 0.686 | 9.352 | 324 | 0.000* |
| Empathy | 0.361 | 0.729 | 8.931 | 324 | 0.000* |
| Overall mean score | 0.389 | 0.602 | 11.659 | 324 | 0.000* |

Note: *significant at p<0.01

Nonetheless, this research has different findings when compared with the study conducted in Thailand by Vatjanasaregagul (2007) in that there was no statistical difference between the expectations and perceptions of service quality on all five SERVQUAL dimensions. It should be pointed out however that Vatjanasaregagul (2007)'s study was conducted with customers of four and five star hotels in Thailand, whilst this research was conducted with customers of midscale (three and four star) hotels in Bangkok.

Findings in this research also contrast with those in Boon-itt & Rompho (2012)'s study which measured the service quality of boutique and business hotels in Bangkok. Their study found that the service quality of hotels in Thailand was moderately low. In turn, they found that hotels were not able to deliver services as expected as the customer's perception is lower than the expectation.

*Hypothesis 2*
By employing correlation analysis, this research has found support for hypothesis 2 as there is a significant relationship between service quality gaps, including tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy, and customer loyalty toward midscale Bangkok hotels (p<0.01). The higher the positive service quality gap (gap score = perception - expectation), the higher the customer loyalty. This supports a number of studies (e.g. Akbar, 2010; Chang-Hsi, Hsiu-Chen, & Gow-Liang, 2006; C. Lin, 2005; Motlagh et. al., 2013) which endorsed that service quality has an influence on customer loyalty. Overall, there is a statistically significant correlation between overall customer loyalty and the following service quality dimensions: tangibles (r = 0.180, p<0.01), reliability (r = 0.253, p<0.01), responsiveness (r = 0.221, p<0.01), assurance (r = 0.282, p<0.01), and empathy (r = 0.265, p<0.01).

There is also a statistically significant correlation between repeat purchase and the following service quality dimensions: tangibles (r = 0.148, p<0.01), reliability (r = 0.242, p<0.01), responsiveness (r = 0.177, p<0.01), assurance (r = 0.249, p<0.01), and empathy (r = 0.237, p<0.01). In addition, there is a statistically significant correlation between word of mouth and the following service quality dimensions: tangibles (r = 0.240, p<0.01), reliability (r = 0.308, p<0.01), responsiveness (r = 0.281, p<0.01), assurance (r = 0.319, p<0.01), and empathy (r = 0.301, p<0.01).

However, there is a no significant correlation between price insensitivity and the following service quality dimensions: tangibles (r = 0.028, p>0.05), reliability (r = 0.034, p>0.05), responsiveness (r = 0.048, p>0.05), assurance (r = 0.073, p>0.05), and empathy (r = 0.065, p>0.05). This finding is different from previous studies that loyal customers are price-insensitive (Khan, 2013) and are less likely to switch to competing hotels because of price (Bowen & Chen, 2001). Nonetheless, findings supported the literatures that midscale hotel customers are price sensitive as they look for good quality and value for money (Tselepidakis, 2013).

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Firstly, there are significant positive gaps in service quality delivered by midscale hotels in Bangkok. This means those hotels have exceeded their customers' expectations. Although 'tangibles' has the highest positive gap, it should be pointed out however that 'assurance' and 'empathy' are two of the least positive gaps. To enhance the 'assurance' aspect, hotels should provide a staff training on product knowledge, foreign languages, and communication skills. This would empower their staff to gain a higher level of trust from the customers. In addition, 'empathy' can be improved by coaching the staff on how to deliver personalized services.

Secondly, there is a significant relationship between service quality gaps and overall customer loyalty. Service quality gaps also have an influence on repeat purchase and word of mouth. However, service quality gaps have no influence on price insensitivity. To cope with such an issue, it is suggested that midscale hotels employ a marketing communication campaign with repeat customers in order to build positive word of mouth. This campaign should highlight the hotel's "great services & value for money products" and include special promotions that are only offered to valued customers.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

There are certain limitations in this research. Although this research has demonstrated significant findings, these findings were derived from customers from different countries, who may have differing interpretations of service quality based on cultural norms, travel habits and exposure to overseas travel. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies focus on certain group of customers, such as the Europeans.

The second limitation is in the use of adapted measurement scales in order to measure customer expectations and perceptions of service quality and customer loyalty. Although these scales have been adapted from previous studies, they may not be directly relevant to service quality studies that collect data from other hotel segments, particularly midscale hotels. In turn, the characteristics of each hotel segment should be taken into consideration before implementing the same measurement scales with a different hotel segment.

CONCLUSION

This research has achieved its aim by examining the influence of midscale Bangkok hotels' service quality gaps on customer loyalty. Its findings have provided meaningful insights and understanding toward the service quality gaps of midscale hotels in Bangkok, and how such gaps influence customer loyalty. More importantly, this research has provided tourism academics with theoretical contributions. In turn, it is envisaged that both the managerial implications and theoretical contributions of this research have contributed to better management of service quality and customer loyalty for the midscale hotel segment, and potentially for the tourism industry in general.

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# ANTECEDENTS OF SWITCHING BEHAVIOR IN HOTEL INDUSTRY

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to develop a measurement scale of antecedents of switching behaviour in the hotel industry. By following Churchill's (1979) rigorous measurement scale development procedures, the developed scale was found to be both reliable and valid among overall, high and medium to low tariff hotel customers. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches were applied to conduct the research. Twenty-seven interviews were done to generate and consolidate the measurement items. 540 valid responses were collected via online questionnaire survey. As a result, three dimensions of antecedents of switching behaviour, namely "Facility, Service & Surrounding", "Loyalty Program" and "Availability of Alternatives" were identified. Based on the results, both theoretical and practical implications were provided and discussed.

Key words: antecedents of switching behaviour, hotel industry, measurement development, service quality, loyalty program, availability of alternatives

## INTRODUCTION

The importance of long-term customer relationship can hardly be overestimated as approximately 80% of the firms business comes from 20% of existing customers and the cost of winning a new customer can be up to sixteen times more expensive than to retain a customer (Lindgreen, Davis, Brodie, & Buchanan-Oliver, 2000). It is thus of great practical importance to maintain the current market share for industry practitioners and the hoteliers are no exception. However, in considering the low product and service differentiation as well as strong competition of the hotel industry (Kandampully & Suhartanto, 2000), hotel customers are more prone to changing to other brands.

The study focused on the hotel industry in Hong Kong, in particular the switching decision of Mainland Chinese hotel customers. According to forecast of the World Tourism Organization (WTO), China will be the fourth largest generator of outbound tourist in the world in the year of 2020. As the leading tourism destination for Mainland Chinese outbound

travellers, the Hong Kong tourism industry benefited significantly from the rapid growth of Mainland Chinese visitor in recent years. According to Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB) statistics, Mainland Chinese accounted for 71.8% of total arrivals or 34 million and contributed to 185,841 million tourism income in 2012. However, compared with the western counterparts, visitors from Asian countries such as China, Taiwan, and Japan tend to spend less on accommodation (Qu, Ryan, & Chu, 2000). Fierce competition exists within the hotel industry in Hong Kong as almost all major hotel groups are fighting to grasp the China market. Thus, it is of vital importance for hotel practitioners to maintain its competitive advantage by developing specific strategies and managing customers' switching behaviours. Managerial implications derived from this study will be recommended to Hong Kong hoteliers to have a more comprehensive understanding regarding the determinants of switching behaviours. The objectives of this study are: To develop a measurement scale for antecedents of switching behaviour by focusing on the nature of the hotel industry.

To provide empirical suggestions to practitioners based on the measurement scale.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Switching behaviour refers to defection and is also commonly regarded as lost customer loyalty (Stewart, 1994). It associated considerably with reduced market share, poor profitability, and increased cost (Bansal & Taylor, 1999; Keaveney, 1995; Rust & Zahorik, 1993). In considering the negative effect of switching behaviour, both practitioners and researchers place great value on managing customers' switching behaviour. Previous studies investigated consumer switching mainly from the marketing and consumer behaviour perspectives (Bansal & Taylor, 1999). Among them, service quality/performance, customer satisfaction, and switching costs were considered the most influential factors inhibiting switching behaviour (Colgate & Lang, 2001; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Keaveney, 1995).

In contrast to customer loyalty and customer retention, switching behaviour is associated with negative outcomes for a firm such as poor profitability and declining market share (Bansal & Taylor, 1999; Keaveney, 1995). It involves "replacing or exchanging the current service provider with another service provider" (Bansal & Taylor, 1999, p. 200). A substantial body of research documents the determinants of customer switching and their possible moderators in marketing literature. Though previous studies confirmed that customer switching can be affected by different factors such as service quality (Han, Kim, & Hyun, 2011), customer satisfaction (Balabanis, Reynolds, & Simintiras, 2006; Han et al., 2011; Yang & Peterson, 2004), customer perceived valued (Yang & Peterson, 2004), relational benefits (Chang & Chen, 2007), and switching barriers (Abdul-Rahman & Kamarulzaman, 2012; Balabanis et al., 2006; Chang & Chen, 2007; Jones, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2000), a general consensus on the antecedents of switching behaviour is still lacking. Service switching from consumer's perspectives has increasingly been the object of study in recent years, however most researchers adopted measurement scales from other fields of studies and no empirical studies have ever been done on constructing a measurement scale for antecedents of switching behaviour in the context of the highly competitive hotel industry.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted Churchill's (1979) recommended measurement scale development procedures and was conducted in three major stages. Stage one aimed to "capture the domain as specified" (Churchill, 1979, p.67) including semi structure interviews to derive measurement items for antecedents of switching behaviour. A total number of 27 in- depth interviews were conducted with tourists and residents in the city of Hong Kong. Qualitative data was further inputted into a qualitative software package named NUDIST for analysis. Open coding was performed first to identify antecedent factors which affect hotel switching behaviours. An analytical tree was then built, which denoted the relationship between themes and categories. Eight themes emerged from the analysis, which are "Product/Service quality", "Price", "Membership/Loyalty program", "Location", "Brand experience", "Third party endorsement", "Trying new experience" and "Lack of alternatives".

To further purify the measurement scale, a questionnaire testing the antecedents of switching behaviour was developed at the second stage. A back-to-back translation approach into both English and Chinese was applied for the questionnaire to ensure accuracy. The questionnaire was then pre-tested with 30 respondents using a convenience sampling approach. Wordings were slightly revised based on the feedbacks from the respondents. The reliability of the measurement scale is well above the threshold value of 0.7. The finalized questionnaire was used for later stage of the current study. In the main study, respondents were asked to rate the importance of 35 measurement items developed from the eight themes. 7-point Likert scale was applied to all measurement items, from "very important (7)" to "Not important at all (1)". An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with principal axis factoring and direct oblimin rotation was performed to determine the dimensions of measurement scale. At the last stage, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to further validate the measurement scales.

Online questionnaire survey was conducted with 540 respondents in three tier-one cities in China, namely Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou. The online questionnaire survey was commissioned to an international market research company. A quota sampling approach was applied. Among the respondents, there are 28.3%, 33.7% and 38% from Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou respectively. These percentages are roughly consistent with the number of tourists travelled to Hong Kong from the three respective cities in 2011 (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2011).

RESULTS

*Demographics of Respondents*

54.6% of the respondents are male; 85% are in the 26-45 age range. In addition, nearly all respondents received university or above education. And nearly half of the respondents have monthly personal income ranging from 5000 RMB to 9999 RMB, and more than 40% of the respondents have above 10000 RMB. In considering the generalizability of the online survey, the demographic profile of respondents in the current study was compared with Hong Kong Tourism Board 2012 survey in investigating the annual arrivals of Mainland Chinese travelers. The comparisons were mainly descriptive since statistical comparisons were not feasible. These two samples share some similarities as roughly half of the Mainland Chinese are male and respondents aged 26 to 45 constituted the largest proportion of both samples.

*Dimensionality and Validity-Exploratory Factor Analysis*

EFA was performed on the 35 items to reduce their number and to explore the dimensionality of antecedents of switching behavior. The 35 items were entered into the system at the first stage. 17 items were excluded due to the low factor loading (lower than 0.4) or cross-loading (greater than 0.4 on more than one item) issues. As a result, three dimensions were unveiled. Table 1 shows the factor loading of each remaining item and the Cronbach's alpha for each construct. All the 18 items held satisfactory factor loadings that were equal to or above 0.454 on their corresponding factors. The appropriateness of factor analysis was subsequently tested using the Kaiser–Meyer– Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. An acceptable KMO value of 0.915 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity (p < 0.000) were obtained, which verified the existence of a sufficient number of correlations among the variables. The Cronbach's alpha for each factor ranged from 0.720 to 0.834, which indicated the favorable internal reliability for the three factors. Consequently, 18 of the 35 items were retained and divided into three factors, namely, "Facility, Service & Surrounding" (9 items), "Loyalty Program" (5 items), and "Availability of Alternatives" (4 items).

*Assessing Factor Structure Stability*

The stability of the factor model is crucial to the generalizability of the research findings. Researchers are encouraged to obtain a larger sample size and to increase the cases-to-variables ratio. Splitting the sample into two subsets and estimating the factor models for each subset may also facilitate the

examination of factor model stability (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, the overall sample in this study was further divided into two subgroups according to the hotel classification of Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB): High-Tariff hotel (4 to 5 stars) and Medium-Tariff and hostel and guest house (1 to 3 star). Responses who recently stayed in 4 to 5 star hotels were categorized into the high tariff hotel groups and those who stayed in 1 to 3 star hotels were considered into the medium to low tariff hotel groups.

Table 1. Exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory analysis results for overall sample (n=540)

| Factor and Item | EFA | | | | CFA | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Factor Loading | Eigenvalue | Variance explained (%) | Cronbach's Alpha | Standardized factor loading | p | Composite reliability |
| **Facility, Service & Surrounding** | | 5.926 | 32.923 | 0.834 | | | 0.835 |
| 6 Friendly hotel employees | 0.708 | | | | 0.650 | *** | |
| 2 Hotel cleanliness | 0.707 | | | | 0.598 | *** | |
| 3 Hotel interior environment | 0.664 | | | | 0.686 | *** | |
| 7 Convenience of hotel location | 0.590 | | | | 0.562 | *** | |
| 9 Transportation nearby | 0.581 | | | | 0.599 | *** | |
| 5 Worth its value | 0.568 | | | | 0.576 | *** | |
| 12 Hotel exterior surrounding | 0.535 | | | | 0.586 | *** | |
| 1 Hotel atmosphere | 0.506 | | | | 0.565 | *** | |
| 4 Hotel Facility | 0.489 | | | | 0.567 | NA | |
| **Loyalty Program** | | 1.948 | 10.823 | 0.795 | | | 0.796 |
| 32 Membership fee | 0.774 | | | | 0.642 | *** | |
| 34 Accumulation of points | 0.771 | | | | 0.687 | *** | |
| 35 Special promotion | 0.620 | | | | 0.646 | *** | |
| 31 Membership discount/coupon | 0.538 | | | | 0.710 | *** | |
| 33 Room upgrade | 0.454 | | | | 0.622 | NA | |
| **Availability of Alternatives** | | 1.061 | 5.895 | 0.720 | | | 0.722 |
| 23 Alternative choices (hotels) | 0.724 | | | | 0.601 | *** | |
| 25 Attractiveness of alternatives | 0.621 | | | | 0.685 | *** | |
| 26 Variety of alternatives | 0.511 | | | | 0.602 | *** | |
| 24 Convenience to seek alternatives | 0.506 | | | | 0.619 | NA | |
| Total | | | 49.640 | | | | |

KMO=0.915, Bartlett's test of sphericity: X²=2909.529, p<.000

X²=264.812, df=132, p value for X²=.000, RMSEA=0.043, TLI=0.945, CFI=0.952

The factor model that was derived from the overall sample was re-examined in both subgroups. 295 and 219 respondents were from the high tariff group and medium to low tariff groups, respectively. The EFA results for both groups were consistent with the factor model that was derived from the overall sample. The KMO values for the high and medium to low tariff groups were both 0.893, which were both higher than the required value of 0.6 (Chen & Hsu, 2001). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant in both groups. All of the factor loadings were greater than the 0.4 requirement. All of the factors had Cronbach's alpha values that exceeded 0.7. Therefore, the factor structure stability was supported. The dimensionality of antecedents of switching behavior measurement in hotel industry was generally consistent between the high and medium to low tariff groups.

*Construct Validity and Reliability-Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

CFA was performed to further validate the 18-item measurement scale. A hypothetical model with three constructs was created based on the EFA results. The structural model was assessed in terms of its validity and reliability. The construct validity was examined by convergent and discriminant validity. Missing data were eliminated via listwise deletion before conducting CFA to avoid drawing any biased conclusions from an empirical study.

The extent of the correlation between the intended measure and the other measures in the construct was evaluated using convergent validity (Clark-Carter, 1997). The standardized item-to-factor loading magnitude should be at least 0.5, and the factor loadings should reach the level of statistical

significance (Hair et al., 2010). The CFA result (Table 1) suggested that, each factor consisted of three or more items that met the bottom line of favorable practices (Hair et al., 2010). The difference of one construct from other constructs is examined by discriminant validity (Byrne, 2010). The test does not provide strong evidence of discriminant validity if the inter-correlation exceeds ±0.9. In this study, the inter-correlation between any two factors from the "Facility, Service & Surrounding", "Loyalty Program", and "Availability of Alternatives" dimensions were 0.545, 0.633, and 0.749, respectively, hence validating the discriminant validity of the measurement scale. The composite reliability of the three factors was used to assess the internal consistency of the items in each construct. The composite reliability of the three factors ranged from 0.722 to 0.835, which indicated the acceptable construct reliability of the model (0.6 or above).

The overall model fit was also investigated using several indices. The chi-square (X2) test assesses the closeness of fit between the model and the data. The significant p value of X2 indicates a favorable fit. The RMSEA value is categorized as the badness-of-fit measure in which a high value indicates a poor fit. The cutoff RMSEA value of <0.07 was used for this study considering the large sample size (Hair et al., 2010; Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991). The RMSEA value satisfied the above cutoff value, which further supported the favorable fit of the model. CFI and TLI both measured the goodness-of-fit of the model. All of these five indices were equal to or above 0.945, which passed the cutoff value of 0.92 (Hair et al., 2010).

The same procedures were followed in both high and medium to low tariff groups. Both groups showed an acceptable convergent validity. Both groups also demonstrated an acceptable discriminant validity. All of the inter-correlations ranged from 0.480 to 0.770, which were lower than ±0.9. The composite reliability of both groups was higher than the cutoff value of 0.6, which supported the internal consistency for all of the constructs. The indices that measured the overall model fit for each group were assessed, and both models were deemed to be statistically well-fitted. All in all, the construct validity and reliability of the overall, high, and medium to low tariff hotel samples were established.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATION

By following the procedure of measurement scale development recommended by Churchill (1979), the study developed a measurement scale for antecedents of switching behaviour in the context of the hotel industry. The multidimensional scale was found to be both reliable and valid. Three major dimensions of antecedents, namely "Facility, Service & Surrounding", "Loyalty Program" and "Availability of Alternatives" were generated. Firstly, the dimension of "Facility, Service & Surrounding" represents the core and elementary product needed by customers. It can be viewed as the broader sense of hotel service quality. Employees' service, hotels' interior facility, exterior surrounding as well as the location are all vital to customer retention. It also shows consistency with the previous literature, which emphasizes that service quality has a direct and positive effect on purchase intention, by contrast, a negative effect on customer switching behaviour (Keaveney, 1995). Secondly, loyalty program, covering the issues such as membership fee, accumulation of points, special promotion and room upgrade is also one of the antecedents of switching behaviour. By building up an attractive and efficient loyalty program, hotels create a high perceived switching cost for loyalty members, thus reducing the loss of existing customers (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Last but not least, alternatives can also determine the switching behaviour for hotel customers. In this factor, attractiveness, convenience, variety of alternatives play important roles in customers' switching behaviour. Concerning from a different angle, to enjoy the benefit of switching behaviour, a hotel should seek to enhance its own competiveness in its market, such as optimizing the hotel booking access, collaborating with searching engines and various kinds of room distribution systems to become the "next service provider" in the open market. It is also noticed that, four dimensions obtained from the in-depth interview, "Price", "Brand Experience", "Third Party Endorsement" as well as "Trying New Experience" were found excluded from the antecedents of switching behaviour in hotel industry.

With the extensive literature on consumer switching in marketing and consumer behaviour studies,

comparatively little research has focused on integrating all the influential determinants of switching behaviour in the context of the highly competitive hotel industry. The construction of antecedents of switching behaviour measurement scale can stimulate additional research on customer switching behaviour and the development of integrative theory to explain hotel customers' switching decisions. As the first trail to identify and integrate antecedents of switching behaviour in the hotel industry, the study enables hoteliers to not only have a more comprehensive understanding of switching behaviours but also helps them develop better strategies to retain customers.

## LIMITATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Although the present study has yield findings that have both theoretical and practical implications, its design is not without flaws. The first limitation concerns the generalizability of the findings as the data was collect from an online research panel which may not be representative of all Mainland Chinese hotel customers. Future research should consider collecting data from other channels such as traditional mail survey to further validate the measurement scale. Additionally, the study setting is in Hong Kong by targeting Mainland Chinese hotel customers. In order to broaden the applicability of the resultant measurement scale, future testing in other regions by using different target samples is needed. The study investigated two hotel segments — 1 to 3 star and 4 to 5 star hotel. Future research should further examine the switching behavior determinants by focusing on different segments such as demographic and psychographic groups or business and leisure travelers. Additionally, an area of future research that should be considered is whether these switching behaviors can be applied in other hospitality business such as restaurant or cruise. Finally, the study investigated factors that considered important when making switching decision. However, actual switching behavior was not evaluated. In order to have a more comprehensive understanding of switching decision making process, this variable should be integrated in the future research.

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# THE STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON LEGAL IMPLICATIONS IN THE HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM SECTORS

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## INTRODUCTION

Hospitality industry is one of the major industries in Hong Kong and is rapidly growing due to the increase number of tourists' arrivals each year. With tremendous high tourists' arrivals; however, Hong Kong hospitality market has been facing with many unpleasant incidents. For instance, "The China National Tourism Administration issued a notice to travel agencies Monday evening advising them to stop organizing Hong Kong-bound tours until further notice" (Chiu, Ho, & Osawa, 2014), and "Tourists at risk in thousands of illegal guest houses in Hong Kong" (Kao & Nip, 2014). According to Consumer Council Annual Report 2012-13 (Consumer Council, 2014), there were 26,955 consumer complaints in Hong Kong and 2,258 cases were from tourists. Major hospitality complaints are food and entertainment services and travel matters in terms of sales practices, product quality, and price disputes. These are challenging the business practices and influence the organization's legal liability and responsibility to customers and other stakeholders.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the importance and performance of legal issues in the hospitality and tourism industry in Hong Kong. The contribution of this study would be useful for the hospitality and tourism operators to pay some attentions on these legal issues for minimizing risks and liabilities. The legal contents potential employees learnt should match with the society's needs (Yeung, 2004).

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Legal Issues in the Hospitality and Tourism Industry

The legal liabilities have been mentioned by many scholars and practitioners in the hospitality and tourism business. The study of Yeung (2004) found five major issues in the hospitality industry. These are theft of company property by employees, sexual harassment on the job, disposal of hazard waste, acceptance of bribes or gifts by employee, and provide false-safe quality product/service. Some legal requirements of terms and conditions to the online hotel researcher contracts are mentioned by the study of Wilson (2011). The click wrap agreements are compulsory when guests have carefully read the terms and conditions. The click wrap agreement is to be enforced by the courts to determine types of damages, liquidated damages and restrictions on legal fee. The hotels should exercise this practice on their online hotel room booking. In the meantime, potential guests should be able to read and understand all terms and conditions and accept those terms. This practice is to protect both guest and hotel in any lawsuits. Employment law

becomes another major issue in hotel operations. It includes the concept of sexual harassment, discrimination, civil rights, and wages and hours (Sherwyn, 2010).

McConnell and Rutherford (1988) examined the law component of various hospitality curricula in USA and studied whether differences among programs reflected basic differences in perceptions about what legal knowledge is necessary to meet the requirements of the hospitality industry. They found the areas of law ranked most important for students related to "protection of the person and property of guests" and to "the legal duties and responsibilities of innkeepers and restaurants". Besides, "employment law" was also assigned high importance in the study.

METHODOLOGY

This is an exploratory study to examine the students' perception of legal issues in the hospitality and tourism sectors in Hong Kong. The questionnaire is created and adopted by the study of McConnell and Rutherford (1988). Section I, respondents were asked to rate their perception and importance of twelve legal items. 5-point Likert-type scales are used – 1 (Least Important) to 5 (Most Important) and 1 (Very Low) to 5 (Very High). Section II is about the profiles and backgrounds of the respondents and the company that they work for. Seven close-ended questions were asked such as age, gender, position, nature of business, duration of work, company branding, and company affiliation.

Students in the hospitality and tourism undergraduate programs in Hong Kong are the target population. They are the potential employees in the hospitality and tourism sector after graduation. Their reflection on legal issues would be applicable from the industry and academic perspectives. The convenience sampling approach was selected in this study. Students in major hospitality and tourism industry were recruited to participate in this study. Respondents were in the senior years; who took any business law or similar and they must have some work experiences in the hospitality and tourism sector. The descriptive analysis was applied to explore the respondents' characteristics, perceptions, and importance. T-test analysis was used to compare the mean differences between respondents' perceptions and importance of legal issues.

RESULTS

*Descriptive Profile of Respondents*

Among the 162 respondents, 22.64% were male, and 77.36% were female. 76.37% of respondents were in the age group of 18-22; 22.64% were in the age group of 23-27; and 0.63% of respondents were between 28-32 years old. 56.96% of them worked for more than 1 year in their current/latest positions; 16.46% worked for 3-6 months; 16.46% worked for 6-12 month and 11.39% worked for less than 3 months.

*The Perception and Importance of Legal and Ethics Issues*

From the respondents' perception, employment law was the most important legal issue (mean = 4.38), hygiene and safety issue was the second important issue (mean = 4.11), and duty to protect guests was the third important issue (mean = 4.08). Meanwhile, agency relationship (mean = 3.62), business ethics (mean = 3.70), and contracts of sales of goods (mean = 3.77) were the least important legal issues. From the importance viewpoint, respondents perceived that the hospitality and tourism companies highly emphasized on the legal issues of duty to protect guests (mean = 3.97), hygiene and safety (mean = 3.94), duty to protect guest property and belonging (mean = 3.88). However, the respondents perceived that the company had least emphasis on the legal issues on torts (mean = 3.39), business ethics (mean = 3.41), and insurance law (mean = 3.42).

When the means are tested to explore any significant differences, the results showed that all legal issues were significantly different. The employment law was the most significant difference (*t*-value

= 11.73, $p < .01$) and working with lawyer ($t$-value = 7.08, $p < .01$). In contrast, the least significant difference was duty to protect guest's property and belongings ($t$-value = 1.85, $p < .05$)

DISCUSSIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The purpose of this study is to investigate the importance and performance of legal issues in the hospitality industry in Hong Kong. Students perceive the importance of legal issues in the hospitality and tourism industry. Meanwhile, they perceive that the hospitality and tourism organizations pay less importance on those issues, especially in the employment laws, insurance laws, and torts. Knowledge in legal issues would allow students to incorporate their moral values into the decision making process (Yeung, 2004). The hospitality practitioners should communicate with their employees the related legal requirements and regulations. For instance, some HR benefits for part-time staff which would be fewer advantages compared to full-time staff. This practice can increase the level of understanding the company practices and these can increase the higher perception on the company legal practices.

This research has some weaknesses and future research will be introduced. Firstly, the study focused from students' perspectives, but did not include another major stakeholder, industry (future employers). The future research can investigate the future employers' perception to see any different findings of legal issues in hospitality and tourism industry. Lastly, the larger sample size and more diversified respondents' backgrounds could provide further insights on the effectiveness of the legal issues in Hong Kong's hospitality and tourism industry.

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# THE CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF CULTURE IN THE HOSPITALITY SERVICE INTERACTION

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## ABSTRACT

There is anecdotal evidence to suggest that intangibles form the most important component of service quality and that they are often the most difficult to manage. As cities like London become ever more multi-cultural, hospitality organisations need to be aware of the effects of cultural differences in service interactions. For example cultural gaffes and indiscretions can embarrass both staff and customers and impact negatively on morale and satisfaction. This component of service quality is clearly important, but what are the causes and effects of culture upon service interactions in hospitality?

This paper reviews the literature on the main causes and effects of culture upon service and proposes a theoretical framework which sets out the relationships between these concepts. The conclusion is that, with a clearer knowledge of the causes of cultural issues, hospitality organisations can plan appropriate remedial action.

Key words: Cultural dissonance, Service interaction, Multicultural cities, Cultural differences and gaffes, Cultural issues, Hospitality industry

## INTRODUCTION

The concepts of hospitality and culture are complicated ones and they affect each other in the hospitality service context.  The growth of internationalism and human migration gives rise to increased complexity for organisations and migrants alike. Culture is becoming increasingly transferable and porous as it is penetrated by elements from other cultures. The globalisation, pluralism and hybridisation of culture in multicultural nations makes it more difficult to be definitive about national cultures. Nevertheless, culture is an important area to study since it has a pervasive influence on consumer behaviour (Usunier and Lee, 2005:3). Sharing more culturally diverse community may cause more conflict and clashes of values. These conflicts often occur over intercultural miscommunication, cultural differences and sensitivity. This paper considers some causes and effects of culture in the service interaction and suggests implications for the hospitality industry.

## WHAT IS CULTURE

Pizam *et al.* (1997) define culture as an umbrella word that encompasses a whole set of implicit, widely shared beliefs, traditions, values and expectations that characterise a particular group of people. The behaviour of individuals will be controlled based on these values, beliefs and more important their tradition. In contrast, Barnouw (1985) states that culture is a way of life a group of people that will be passed from one generation to the other one.

Researchers argued that the resulting awareness that the choice might not be ideal might threaten significant aspects of the self, like as perceived competence and efficacy, and so induce discomfort called dissonance (Aronson, 1968; Cooper and Fazio, 1984; Festinger, 1957; Steele, 1988; Harmon-Jones and Mills, 1990; Stone and Cooper, 2001, cited in Kitayama *et al.*, 2004). Dissonance is typically reflected to be pan-cultural; there may be systematic cross-cultural variation. Since, practices and public meanings of different cultures promote and sanction different views of the self (Kitayama *et al.*, 2004). In contrast, Ybarra (2004:43) stress cultural dissonance as a term to used notion of cognitive dissonance, to highlight issues of cultural differences in ways of thinking among minority groups and the academia. He asked in his research few questions such as; how cultural expectations happen and why? When do they happen? What are the effects cultural expectations have on a person?

Tadmor (2006) highlights that when there is a meeting of two cultures that choose solutions that are incompatible with each conflict will result. These conflicts creates stress for the individual (Kim, 1988), (cited inTadmor, 2006). Although, pain will occur when it is conflict between values. The more important the value, the more painful the experience of dissonance could be.

CULTURE AND HOSPITALITY

In general terms, hospitality is a charitable concept and is all about connection and builds a good relationship between host and guest to provide a memorable time for both guest and host (Tabari and Ingram, 2014a). In other words, guests or customers are not expecting any banality in service and host behaviour. Thus, hospitality management is concerned that guests are comfortable and satisfied, and to feel that the host is trying to be hospitable through feelings of generosity, a desire to please and a genuine regard for the guests as an individual (Lashley and Morrison, 2000).Further, hospitality is all about "mutuality exchange among a host and guest"(Lashley, 2001:3). The notion of guests and hosts is essentially different to that of managers and customers and is much more socially and culturally defined, as the expectations and taboos of domestic hospitality are identified as numerous social rules, for instance plaintive behaviour or not, based on the customer-manager relationship (Darke and Gumey, 2000:cited in ; Tabari and Ingram, 2014a). The interaction between host and guest takes place within a context of social expectations, which may be discrepant. Specifically, norms relating to the performance of the host and of the guest should be observed (Goffman, 1973, cited in Lashley and Morrison, 2000).

SERVICE INTERACTION

According to Barker and Härtel (2004) service encounters are increasingly made up of culturally diverse customers, since the growth of purchasing behaviour of ethnic minorities are growing (Pires and Stanton, 2000).

The service interaction or service encounter is a relationship between customers and service providers. These exchanges reflect "a period of time during which a consumer directly interacts with a service"(cited by Barker and Härtel, 2004; Shostak, 1985:243). Furthermore researchers have been discussed that, often behaviour of service providers becomes the customer's source of cognitive and emotional evaluation and defines their level of satisfaction (cited by Barker and Härtel, 2004; Mano and Oliver, 1993; Rafae, 1993). Customers' satisfaction and evoking positive emotions can be considered as priority goals for any service provider. In this regard, Barker and Härtel (2004) believe that several factors may obstruct customers' satisfaction and positive emotions, including the provider's attitude and behaviour towards cultural diverse customers.

Furthermore, most service providers evaluate customers based on a range of attributes including appearance and communication. According to the theory of Similarity Attraction Paradigm, interaction paradigm, interpersonal attraction happens where harmonies exist(Byrne, 1997; Riordan

and Shore, 1997).Arguably, service providers are more attracted to customers who match their cultural profile (Härtel and Fujimoto, 2000). On the other hand, Social Identity Theory argues that a service provider's perception of who they are based on cognitive and social evaluations can determine whom they seek to serve (Ashforth and Mael, 1989; Tajfel and Turner, 1979), (cited by Barker and Härtel, 2004). All these theories attempt to highlight an individual's tendency to understand and obtain intercultural contact. Härtel and Fujimoto (2000) state that pre-existing positive attitudes towards cultural diversity may persuade some individuals to form and sustain intercultural friendships, while pre-existing negative attitudes may discourage other persons from pursuing such intercultural.

Meanwhile, authors believe that in any interaction two ways of communications (verbal and non-verbal) need to be considered. In contrast, Barker and Härtel (2004) in their research highlight that provider's attitude towards culturally diverse customers is communicated through verbal and non-verbal channels, which are in turn observed and evaluated by customers in shaping future patronage and level of satisfaction. In a time of interactions, both customer and provider engage in an exchange process, where both parties are seeking for a shared belief space and linguistic system in order to reduce uncertainty

INTERCULTURAL SERVICE ENCOUNTER AND COMMUNICATION

Measuring intercultural sensitivity in different cultures and the growth of globalisation and diversity has increased the needs of awareness and ability to communicating with people of different cultural backgrounds. In other words, intercultural communication represents the ability of individuals to develop a positive attitude towards different cultures.

Some researchers believe that both form of communication (verbal and non-verbal) have a direct impact on individual's attitudes, namely feeling and emotions (Dimbleby and Burton, 1992; Hargie, 1997; Hart and Morry, 1996). Language has been defined as a representing a channel for conveying and transferring verbal behaviour, information, ideas and beliefs, while non-verbal behaviour is multi-channel and ideal for expressing attitudes, emotions and identity (Gallois and Callan, 1997). Regardless of the fact that culture has a direct influence on norms, rules, symbols and meanings (Collier and Thomas, 1988; Gudykunst *et al.*, 1988) , researchers like Ekman states that there is a universal recognition of expressed emotion, particularly in relation to facial expressions (Ekman, 1992; Ekman *et al.*, 1987), (cited by Barker and Härtel, 2004).

Language as one of aspects of communication and culture may affect interaction between both parties. As Brennan and Brennan (1981) highlight in their research that accented speech tends to be correlated with lower status and irritation on the part of the receiver (Fayer and Krasinski, 1987). In contrast, Ryan and Giles (1982:2) note that "speech cues can be used by listeners to by listeners to make inferences regarding and individual's personal characteristics, social group membership and psychological states" (cited by Barker and Härtel, 2004). In other words, communication is a tool to show and express one's likes and dislikes (Giles, 1973). Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest that failure to communicate polite attitude will not only be assessed as the absence of that attitude but the opposite, the possession of an aggressive attitude. Discrimination represents one of the dynamic forces behind this diverging style of communication (Ayoko *et al.*, 2002). In other word, tolerance of differences is all about openness in diversity.

Researchers like Ely and Thomas (2000) conduct research to investigate whether different perspectives towards diversity impact on employee satisfaction with their social group. Their founding highlighted three views of diversity: integration and learning, access and legitimacy or discrimination and fairness. Each of these views 'governed how members responded to diversity' (Ely and Thomas, 2000:239). Thus, cultures where employees' human needs for affiliation and identify are met. And provides a sense of physical safety, will encourage a positive, healthy environment (Pizer and Härtel, 2003). Martin and Adams (1999) stress that traditional diversity training programmes (which attempts to match behaviours with various situations) will fail to

overcome negative stereotypical beliefs and prejudicial attitudes and instead often produce negative reactions (Nemetz and Christensen, 1996). Cross-cultural training research highlights that both cultural-general and context-specific knowledge as important (Bhawuk and Brislin, 2000). Context-specific knowledge is especially useful for engaging in intercultural interactions within a specific context. Gaining context-specific knowledge helps people understand and adapt rapidly to the new context (Triandis, 1977).

FRAMEWORK AND DISCUSSION

It seems clear that culture can affect the service interaction and this can lead to positive and negative outcomes, as shown in Figure 1. Figure 1 shows that the interaction between host/server and customer in hospitality can lead to 'hard' and 'soft' outcomes. Hard outcomes include benefits in performance, sales and profits. On the other hand, 'soft' outcomes such as satisfaction for employees and organisations and enhancements in morale and atmosphere, although intangible, are essential in, for example, the subjective judgement of service quality by customers.

Figure 1. The relationship between culture and the service interaction and possible outcomes
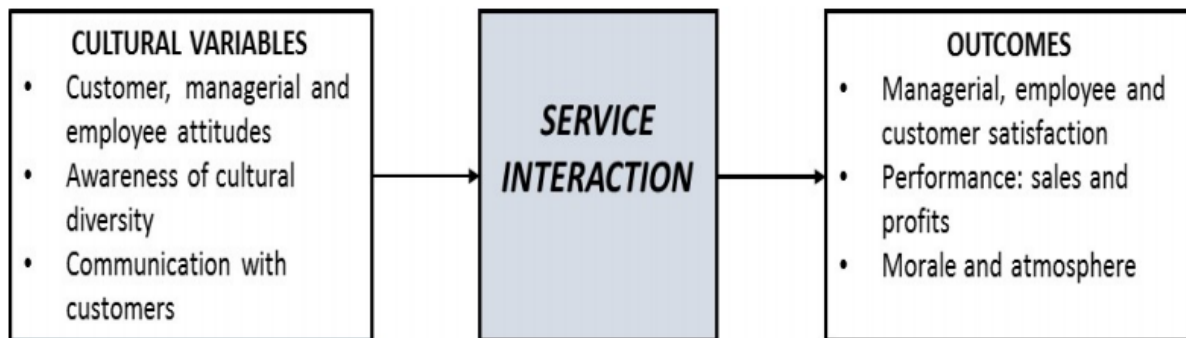


The literature suggests that the key causal cultural variables are:
- Attitudes: these prior perceptions on the part of customers, managers and employees will affect service interactions, because the simultaneous nature of service being created and consumed at the same time. Rather like a drama, service interactions require 'actors' (the servers and the served) for meaningful service to take place.
- Awareness: again, it is important that all parties in the service interaction are aware of cultural diversity. It may be argued that a main reason that customers choose ethnic restaurants is because they are looking for something different. Similarly, hospitality organisations need to be sensitive to cultural diversity among both staff and customers, especially in multicultural cities such as London and New York.
- Communication: the messages which take place in service interactions (both written and oral) need to be clearly transmitted and understood. For example, the promise of a satisfactory restaurant meal is transmitted by the menu, which is displayed outside the establishment. Similarly, customer choice from that menu is usually transmitted orally from the customer to the waiter/waitress, perhaps with some explanation. Customer satisfaction depends on the accuracy and comprehensibility of these verbal exchanges.

Awareness and monitoring of these cultural variables, especially by hospitality organisations can help to minimise cultural dissonance and misunderstandings which can lead to negative outcomes. These include customer dissatisfaction and consequent loss of reputation and business as well as suboptimal employee morale and staff turnover. As, Barker and Härtel (2004) mention in their research current situation of world events, the necessity for cross cultural understanding and application at the societal, organisational and individual level is vital.

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# HUMAN RESOURCES and EDUCATION

# EVALUATING TECHNICAL EFFICIENCY IN DAIRY FARMS CONDUCTING EDUCATIONAL TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

When farmers undertake a new activity such as tourism activity, it is crucial that they enlarge or redefine their identity from that of a simple farm producer to a farm resource manager with a wider perspective. This paper evaluates how a farmer's identity influences the efficiency of main activity, milk production by providing an emerging new educational tourism service. To approach this aim, based on an analytical framework, this paper classified farmer's identity into two types: traditional identity that is oriented toward simple farm production and enlarged identity that is oriented toward viability of the educational tourism activity. The estimation result of stochastic frontier production function revealed that, although conventional technical inefficiency is overestimated when the identity effect is not considered, the female initiative on the tourism activity enhances the technical efficiency of milk production. Consequently, it is when policymakers try to design support measures to develop tourism-related farm diversification, the perspective of the support measures for capacity building should be widened to include identity issues.

Key words: educational tourism in agriculture, identity, stochastic frontier production function, technical efficiency, dairy farm

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism conducted by farm people is now widely accepted as a measure of farm diversification that leads to rural revitalization and development not only in developed but also in developing countries. Within the arena of rural tourism, educational tourism in agriculture has been emerging and attracting growing attention because it is differentiated from ordinary rural tourism and allows the majority of visitors who do not have an agrarian background to learn more effectively of the significance of their rural heritage and the environment. Educational Dairy Farms (EDFs) is an organized framework of farms in Japan that provides educational services regarding agriculture, similar to other such highly organized activities conducted in other parts of the world. The number of visitors to these member farms increased to nearly 900,000 in 2009, which strongly suggests that a new and potentially large market is emerging and that it should be explored as a new income source for farmers.

To realize tourism-oriented diversification, it is essential for farmers themselves to transform their identity as farm resource managers solely based on the traditional production-oriented perspective to a wider one based on a more comprehensive perspective of farm resource management that includes both traditional farm production and tourism activity. This is because the level of diversified farm activity that is undertaken by a farmer is not determined solely by the farmer's individual technical skills and capability, but by the farmer's identity that exists as a norm that is socially nurtured and has persisted for generations. In this context, even if farmers have sufficient capability to conduct diversified activities, those farmers with different identities will

undertake specific activities in accordance with a particular identity and realize different degrees of technical efficiency. Identity factors have been only scantly empirically investigated among economic activities including agriculture, although Akerlof and Kranton (2010) state their importance for a better understanding of economic behaviour.

To the author's knowledge, studies on factors related to inefficiency of production activity have been mainly conducted on their direct effect on production, which is exerted by factors within the same activity in tourism economics and agricultural economics. It has not been clarified yet how a diversified activity such as tourism undertaken by farmers with different identities results in different degrees of technical efficiency, including those related to a main activity such as milk production, hereafter the identity effect. If we could understand how identity exerts an influence on technical efficiency, we could expand the scope of farm diversification policies. It is crucially important to clarify this point in seeking a better perspective on the sustainable evolution of farm diversification through educational activity and in providing support measures for that.

Thus, it is necessary to consider not only the conventional technical reasons that caue production inefficiency but also the effect of a farmer's identity when we consider farm diversification in relation to the newly emerging tourism activity. Put differently, it is highly probable that observed technical efficiency includes the mixed effects of conventional technical inefficiency and the identity effect. If the identity effect is not taken into account, the technical efficiency of educational dairy farms will be overestimated.

To approach this aim, by focusing on the designated Educational Dairy Farms in Japan, first this paper presents an analytical framework that enables us to evaluate how the activity of educational services exerts influence on the efficiency of the main activity, milk production, by the estimation of the stochastic frontier production function (SFPF). Finally, this paper presents policy recommendations toward the establishment of economically viable educational services.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Economic approaches to identity issues were firstly explored fully by Akerlof and Kranton (2000, 2002, 2010). Akerlof and Kraton (2000) defined identity as a person's sense of self and proposed the utility function that identity is associated with different social categories and how people in these categories should behave. Akerlof and Kraton (2002) investigated the connections between school and work. Akerlof and Kraton (2010) also considered gender and race issues in connection with work and minority poverty. Further, Akerlof (2007) dealt with the relationship between norms and macroeconomics. From a conceptual viewpoint, Sen (1977) noted the significance of commitment observed in groups such as class and community and Sen (1985) also mentioned that identity is associated with rule-based conduct. Sen (2006) discussed that norms and identity will mitigate violence. Bowles (1998) focused on endogenous preferences, such as motivation and values, influenced by economic institutions. Nevertheless, empirically agriculture and tourism have not been explicitly studied in relation to identity issues.

As empirical methodology, SFPF is well recognized in the evaluation of efficiency and productivity (Coelli et al., 2005). SFPF models were proposed by Aigner et al. (1977). Anderson et al. (1999) employed a stochastic frontier approach to the hotel industry. Gragasin et al. (2005) applied the stochastic frontier function to evaluate farm productivity in a comparative study of two Philippine irrigation systems. Assaf et al. (2011) investigated the cost efficiency of hotels by the Bayesian stochastic frontier model. Adhikari and Bjorndal (2012) employed DEA and the stochastic distance function to Nepalese agriculture. Ohe (2011) evaluated the productivity of rural tourism activities in Japan, but the stochastic frontier function have not been applied yet. Educational tourism in agriculture has not been extensively explored except for reports by Ohe (2011, 2012), which mainly dealt with internalization of the educational externality generated by dairy farming, not directly with the identity aspect of farmers. To summarize, to my knowledge there has not been

an exploration of identity and an evaluation of efficiency by using SFPF with regard to farm diversification and rural tourism. It is for this reason that I conducted this study.

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK: FARMERS' IDENTITY AND TECHNICAL FFICIENCY

Here, the researcher considers the relationship between a farmer's identity and the efficiency of diversified activity, i.e. milk production and the educational activity. To simplify the discussion, suppose there are two contrasting types of identity that a farmer could have: traditional identity and enlarged identity. For those with the traditional identity the norm is that their main activity is farm production, so that the educational service is just a voluntary activity offered free of charge. Thus, their aim is to realize efficient milk production to the best possible extent. On the other hand, in those with the enlarged identity the norm is that they should engage in multiple economically viable activities and therefore they will levy service charges for the educational service to achieve its viability. Their aim is, thus, to attain technical efficiency in farm resource allocation among these activities, meaning that those with the enlarged identity have a wider perspective toward farm diversification than those with the traditional identity. In this respect, whether a farmer levies a service charge is an easily observable criterion to indicate which identity a farmer has.

Although identity can change with time, once it is established, in general, it is hard to change and it can be passed down through generations. Even if a policy framework promotes farm diversification, efficient farm management will not be achieved unless a farmer's identity changes toward the enlarged one. Although this does not mean that those who conduct diversified activities as a volunteer do not engage in efficient farm resource management, those with the enlarged identity regard farm resource management more as economic behaviour than those with the traditional identity. Within each identity, the clearer the identity a farmer possesses, whether it is the traditional identity or the enlarged identity, the better able that farmer is to perform farm resource management. On the other hand, the farmer cannot realize efficient farm resource management if the activity is conducted beyond the scope of that farmer's own identity.

This process is not always undertaken consciously by farmers, which is different from regular inputs. The hypothesis here to be empirically examined is whether a farmer takes different maximization behaviours according to identity; in the case of a traditional identity one-sector efficiency maximization is taken, and in the case of enlarged identity the maximization of over-all managerial efficiency composed of milk production and the educational service, is taken.

Based on the above consideration, I explore the inter-activity effect (cross effect) between a diversified activity, such as an educational activity, and the main activity of milk production taking into account the identity aspect. It is considered as that the identity effect works similar to a technical bias on efficiency. In reality, the identity effect is likely to be combined with conventional technical factors that affect efficiency. The next question to be empirically clarified is to identify how managerial efficiency is attained when the identity effect is considered.

OUTLINE OF THE PROGRAM OF THE EDUCATIONAL DAIRY FARMS

The program of the Educational Dairy Farms was established in 2000 by the Japan Dairy Council, which is a national organization for dairy farmers. The purpose of this program is to provide accurate information on what dairy farms do to enable the public to understand the roles dairy farming play in society. The aim of Educational Dairy Farms is not only to promote an open-door policy of the farmyard to the outside but also to enhance the educational value of dairy farming through teaching where milk comes from and showing the life of milk cows on the farm. For instance, when visitors have a milking experience, they learn that warm white milk comes out of the udder of the cow, which is a simple concept, but is quite different from the daily experience of drinking milk kept in a milk carton in the refrigerator. If visitors are lucky enough, they can see the birth of a calf, which makes a lifetime impression on children or even adults by evoking the meaning of life. People learn what food is and the close connection between food

and life from these experiences. In this respect, a farmer's role is crucial and thus a farmer is called a facilitator in this program.

Table 1. Trend of no. of visitors and no. of Educational Dairy Farms (EDFs)

| Year | First period (April-September) | Second period (October-March) | % share in first period | Total | Ratio for each year | No. EDFs | No. visitors per farm |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 2003 | 162,484 | 63,392 | 71.9 | 225,876 | 1.00 | 167 | 1,353 |
| 2004 | 254,542 | 89,600 | 74.0 | 344,142 | 1.52 | 174 | 1,978 |
| 2005 | No data available | | | | | 183 | - |
| 2006 | 421,855 | 133,285 | 76.0 | 555,140 | 2.46 | 200 | 2,776 |
| 2007 | 465,593 | 225,114 | 67.4 | 690,707 | 3.06 | 217 | 3,183 |
| 2008 | 473,220 | 232,348 | 67.1 | 705,568 | 3.12 | 249 | 2,834 |
| 2009 | 662,629 | 216,600 | 75.4 | 879,229 | 3.89 | 257 | 3,421 |

Source : Japan Dairy Council.

To be a facilitator for the Educational Dairy Farms, a farmer or a farm employee must attend a course on principles, safety, hygiene, and communication skills as well as a presentation of a case study provided by the Council. The Council administers certification for recognition as an Educational Dairy Farm and presents various capacity building courses for those with farms certified as an Educational Dairy Farm as well as dairy farmers at large in Japan. There were 257 Educational Dairy Farms as of 2009 when the survey was conducted.

Table 1 shows the trend of visitors to the Educational Dairy Farms. As can be easily recognized from the table, the number of visitors has increased yearly and reached nearly 880 thousand visitors in 2009, which is a 3.89-fold increase from 2003. This increase was far more rapid than the increase in the number of Educational Dairy Farms, which was only 1.5-fold in the same period. The average number of visitors per farm increased from 1,353 to 3,421, a 2.53-fold increase. These facts suggest that the demand for farm experience has steadily grown to form a certain level of market or at least its potential. I assume that this mounting demand indicates a new social role that dairy farmers can play in society.

DATA

In keeping the analytical model on the cross identity effect in mind, first, the researcher employs an SFPF model to evaluate how factors related to the activity of the educational service that is connected with identity affect the technical efficiency of milk production, which is the main activity of Educational Dairy Farms, unlike tourism ranches. Second, DEA is used for a simulation of how technical efficiency will vary when these farms maximize the two outputs by whether or not farmers levy charges for educational services. From these results, factors to be considered in designing support measures toward viable educational services will be discussed. Data were collected by a questionnaire survey to the entire group of 257 farms designated as Educational Dairy Farms by the Japan Dairy Council jointly conducted by the author and the Japan Dairy Council from October to December in 2009 by surface mail (response rate 79.4%, 204 farms). The author conducted a supplementary survey by telephone. Sample size used for this study was 123 family farms to maintain homogeneity of the sample because there are various types of ranches designated as Educational Dairy Farms, such as publicly owned ranches, ranches run by educational institutions or cooperatives, etc., which are not necessarily oriented toward maximizing the profitability of milk production.

Table 2. Offered educational dairy farm services (individual menu)

| Type | Menu | Service | Levying service charge | Price of service (only cases that | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | % farms | % farms | Max. price | Min. price | Mean price |
| Farm-operation experiences | Lecture by farmer | 93.7 | 33.1 | 2,000 | 250 | 590 |
| | Milking | 77.8 | 56.9 | 1,500 | 300 | 681 |
| | Feeding | 77.2 | 39.4 | 525 | 100 | 381 |
| | Giving bottle to | 74.1 | 43.6 | 1,000 | 100 | 471 |
| | Cleaning barn | 58.2 | 26.1 | 500 | 300 | 433 |
| | Brushing animals | 48.7 | 33.9 | 530 | 200 | 404 |
| | Field work | 36.1 | 26.3 | 1,000 | 315 | 663 |
| | Tour of farmyard | 89.9 | 22.6 | 525 | 300 | 416 |
| Food/ rural cultural experiences | Horseback riding | 12.0 | 63.3 | 12,000 | 300 | 2,229 |
| | Butter making | 62.7 | 75.8 | 1,000 | 200 | 503 |
| | Cheese making | 17.7 | 75.1 | 5,000 | 200 | 983 |
| | Ice cream making | 23.4 | 73.1 | 1,500 | 400 | 712 |
| | Ham/sausage | 3.8 | 100.0 | 5,000 | 500 | 1,938 |
| | Cutting sheep wool | 5.1 | 49.0 | 600 | 500 | 543 |

Source: Questionnaire survey to the Educational Dairy Farms jointly conducted by the author and the Japan Dairy Council from October to December in 2009. Response rate was 79.4% (204/248). Only

## EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AND PRICING

Before the model estimation, let us provide an overview on the educational services that are actually offered by the Educational Dairy Farms according to results of the questionnaire survey. Tables 2 and 3 indicate that these services can be classified into two types. One is a menu of individual activities that are separately offered such as milking, feeding cows, etc. The other is a set menu that is offered as a combination of several individual services. The individual menu is constituted of two kinds of services: experience of a regular dairy operation and cultural experience, such as making dairy food and horseback riding. Menu-wise, an on-site lecture by the farmer, milking, feeding cows, and giving a bottle to calves are the top four commonly provided services among the farm operation experiences. Percentages of farms that answered that they levied service charges were lower in this category than in the category of food and rural cultural experiences. In the case of rural cultural experiences, the cost of materials, e.g. milk and cream for butter making, has to be recovered, so that the percentage of farms levying a service charge and the price level are higher than when farm operation experiences are offered. Another interesting point is that both the percentage of those levying a service charge and the price of service for the set menu were much higher than for those having an individual menu (Table 3). Thus, it is safe to say that providing a set menu will be effective in raising the economic viability of educational services.

Table 3. Offered educational dairy farm services (set menu)

| Type | Service provision | Levying service charge | Price of service (only cases that charge) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | % farms | % farms | Max. price | Min. price | Mean price |
| Set menu 1 | 47.5 | 83.8 | 5,000 | 300 | 1,370 |
| Set menu 2 | 23.6 | 93.2 | 5,000 | 320 | 1,493 |
| Set menu 3 | 11.4 | 93.0 | 5,250 | 320 | 1,329 |
| Set menu 4 | 2.4 | 66.7 | 1,500 | 200 | 1,033 |
| Set menu 5 | 0.8 | 100.0 | 1,500 | 1,500 | 1,500 |

Source: Same as Table 2.

## VARIABLES FOR ESTIMATION

First, as the input variables, the number of milk cows and acreage in feed production in 2009 were based on data from the survey mentioned above and supplemented by additional telephone interviews. Likewise, also based on the survey and telephone interview, the labour input variables were calibrated as real term labour input by taking into account the contribution of labour inputs for milk production and educational activity, respectively; full-time and main responsibility equals unity, full time and sub-responsibility equals 0.5 part-time and main responsibility 0.5, and part-time sub-responsibility 0.25.

| Table 4. Variables used for SFPF model estimation | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Type | Variables | Mean | Standard Deviation | Min. value | Max. value |
| Output | Amount of milk production in 2009 milk year | 472.6 | 362.8 | 1.9 | 2247.0 |
| Input | Labour input for milk production (real term) | 3.07 | 1.83 | 0.50 | 13.50 |
| Input | No. milk cows | 93.0 | 68.8 | 8.0 | 450.0 |
| Input | Acreage of feed production (ha) | 21.8 | 24.9 | 0.1 | 160.0 |
| Inefficiency | Coefficient of variance in no. visitors in groups in 2009 fiscal year | 1.61 | 0.72 | 0 | 2.65 |

Source: Table 2 and data on milk production and the number of visitors were obtained from the Japan Dairy Council. Note: Refer to the text about the calibration methods of milk production and

As output data, the amount of annual milk production was used based also on the survey and supplementary telephone interview and data provided by the Japan Dairy Council for 2009. Basically the 2009 data were used. Nevertheless, data on 2009 production were missing for 23 farms although complete data for 2008 were available. The author confirmed with the local cooperatives that these farms with missing data were members of Educational Dairy Farms and confirmed that there were no major differences in the amount of milk produced between the two years, so the missing data for 2009 were replaced by 2008 data. To confirm this point statistically, I conducted a statistical $t$ test on the differences in reported milk production between 2008 and 2009, on milk production shown by 2009 data with substitutions using 2008 data and that with available 2009 data. Neither result showed any statistically significant differences, which enabled the use of 2009 data that was partially supplemented with 2008 data. Data used for estimation are summarized in Tables 4 and 5.

| Table 5. Dummy variables | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Type | Variables | Yes | No | Total |
| Inefficiency | Main person in charge of educational services: female (yes=1, no=0) | 49 | 74 | 123 |
| | | (39.8) | (60.2) | (100.0) |
| Inefficiency, input | Levying service charge (yes=1, no=0) | 59 | 64 | 123 |
| | | (48.0) | (52.0) | (100.0) |
| Inefficiency | Year of designation of EDF before 2004 (yes=1, no=0) | 71 | 52 | 123 |
| | | (57.7) | (42.3) | (100.0) |

Source: Same as in Table 2.
Note: Upper figure represents sample size and the lower figure in parentheses is %.

# EVALUATION OF THE IMPACT OF THE IDENTITY EFFECT ON THE EFFICIENCY OF MILK PRODUCTION

As mentioned earlier, an emerging new activity like the educational service has not become a clear market good. This paper examines the cross identity effect, which is how the identity-attributed factor of the educational activity affects the efficiency of the main activity, which is milk production. The SFPF that has technical and identity- attributed inefficiency factors is expressed for an educational dairy farm $i$ as below.

$$y_i = f(n_i, k_i, l_i)\exp(v_j - u_j) \text{ (1)}$$

where, $y_i$=milk production of the farm $i$, $n_i$=labour input, $k_i$=capital input, $l_i$=land input, $v_i$=stochastic error, $u_i$=technical and identity inefficiency term. Here, suppose $y_i^*$ as observable production, technical efficiency, TE, is defined as TE=$y_i^*/y_i$=xp($-u_i$). The stochastic production function and technical inefficiency function are estimated simultaneously. Specifically, the Cobb-Douglas function was used. Labour and land inputs were as mentioned above and the number of milk cows was used for capital input. Because of data constraints on machinery and facility costs milk cows also constitute capital costs. To cope with this constraint, I assume that these capital costs of machinery and facilities are proportional to the number of milk cows. This assumption is also effective to avoid multicollinearity, which often causes a serious problem on the estimation of the production function. All three variables were transformed into a natural logarithm for estimation.

Regarding the impact of factors related to technical inefficiency in milk production, we need to consider conventional technical factors and the identity effect related to the educational services. It is highly probable as mentioned that the technical factors and the identity effect are mixed in reality and it is also true that the degree of mixing is also different from one factor to another. It is assumed that these mixed technical and identity terms are stochastically distributed, similar to simple technical terms.

The first variable is the main person in charge of educational services: female (yes=1, no=0). This is to see the technical aspect of the educational service more than the identity effect. The second and third variables are related to the identity effect: levying a charge for the educational service (yes=1, no=0) and start of the educational dairy farm before 2004 (yes=1, no=0). As mentioned earlier, it is considered that whether a farmer charges for educational services is determined by which identity the farmer has. The farmer's identity also is supposed to be reflected by the year that the educational service was launched, which represents the experience effect of the service and will raise the technical efficiency of the main production. The year 2004 is the midpoint between the start of the Educational Dairy Farms in 2000 and the survey year in 2009. As an optional variable, a coefficient of variance of the number of visitors in visitor groups in 2009 was used to see mainly a technical effect of fluctuations in terms of the number of visitors. There was no serious correlation among these variables. It is not possible, a priori, to judge which direction of influence these factors regarding the educational service exert on the main activity, but is an empirical question to be clarified by the estimation results.

## ESTIMATION RESULTS

Table 6 shows the estimation results. Parameters of input variables, production elasticities, are all positive with statistical significance (1% significance). Among the three parameters, the number of milk cows as capital input was largest while that of acreage in feed production as land input was the smallest. Since the hypothesis that the sum of the three production elasticities is unity was rejected by the Chi-square test, economy of scale existed in milk production.

Turning to parameters of the technical and identity effect, negative parameters mean that they increase efficiency while positive parameters indicate decreased efficiency. Now let us examine

details of the results. First, the parameter of the female as the main educational service provider worked to increase the efficiency of milk production. This factor is considered to generate economy of scope by increasing efficiency in terms of labour allocation such as division of labour and better communication capability with visitors by female members as human resources, which resulted in enhancement of the comparative advantage of females in farm resource management. On the other hand, the parameter of the fluctuation of the number of visitors per group was negative on the efficiency of milk production, probably because of intensifying competition among resource allocations.

Parameters of levying a service fee and an earlier launching year of the educational activity lowered the efficiency of milk production. This result, however, is hard to explain from technical aspects because the launching year represents the experience effect of the educational services, which would raise efficiency. There was no multicollinearity among the variables. Therefore, we need to consider the existence of the identity effect, which suggests that those levying a service charge are oriented toward the realization of maximize the overall managerial efficiency, including the educational services, rather than seeking efficient management of the single sector of milk production. If so, the technical efficiency of the main activity might be overestimated because the observed technical efficiency necessarily includes the identity effect in the case of farms with diversified activities.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This paper investigated how farmer's identity influences managerial efficiency in emerging diversified farm activity by focusing on Educational Dairy Farms. Main points clarified in the paper are as follows:

This paper considers the identity effect, which means that resource management differs according to differences in farmers' identities. Based on consideration of the relationship between a farmer's identity and diversified activity, it was disclosed that in the case of diversified activity technical efficiency will be overestimated if the identity effect is not taken into account.

In empirically testing the identity effect, the estimation result of the SFPF for milk production indicated that the efficiency of those farms that levied charges for educational services was inferior to non-levying farms. Whether a service charge was levied was used as a practical indicator of farmers' orientation toward viable educational services and reflected the farmer's identity with regard to the educational service. This is probably because their aim of managerial efficiency is not solely placed on the maximization of milk production, but on farm resource management of the whole array of activities including milk production and the educational service.

In this respect, it is interesting to find that having females in charge of the educational services is favourable toward technical efficiency in milk production from the result of the SFPF. Therefore, it will become important to expand the activity domain for females in family farms not only in milk production, but also in educational service activities.

Consequently, it will be important to take into account what identity a farmer has toward farm diversification for designing policies for better support measures especially in the field of capability building in farm resource management in multiple sectors including educational tourism activity. Further empirical investigation is necessary to evaluate how farm operators maximize their overall managerial efficiency including educational tourism activity.

Table 6. Technical efficiency and inefficiency factors on milk production by EDF (SFPF)

| Model | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| Explained variable | ln(2009 milk production) | |
| Production elasticity | | |
| ln(Labour input for milk production) | 0.1442*** | 0.1442*** |
| | (1.4e+04) | (1.9e+04) |
| ln(No. milk cows) | 0.9219*** | 0.9219*** |
| | (2.5e+05) | (3.2e+05) |
| ln(Acreage in feed production) | 0.0703*** | 0.0703*** |
| | (2.4e+04) | (3.0e+04) |
| Constant | 2.2374*** | 2.2374*** |
| | (1.9e+05) | (2.4e+05) |
| Technical and identity inefficiency factors | | |
| Main person in charge of educational services: female (yes=1, no=0) | -0.6932*** | -0.6126** |
| | (-2.60) | (-2.27) |
| Levying service charge (yes=1, no=0) | 0.8602*** | 0.9359*** |
| | (2.66) | (2.88) |
| Year of designation of EDF before 2004 (yes=1, no=0) | 1.0730*** | 1.0748*** |
| | (3.25) | (3.24) |
| Coefficient of variance of no. visitors in visitors groups in 2009 fiscal year | - | 0.3092* |
| | - | (1.70) |
| Constant | -1.1932*** | -1.7831*** |
| | (-5.42) | (-4.61) |
| Sample size | 123 | 123 |
| Wald Chi-square statistic | 3.26e+11*** | 4.78e+11*** |
| Log likelihood | -62.3704*** | -61.0495*** |
| (sum of production elasticity φ=1) | 5.1e+08*** | 8.7e+08*** |
| Chi-square test | φ>1 | φ>1 |

Source: Same as Table 4.

Notes: Figure in parentheses is Z value.***,**,*,+ indicate 1％, 5％, 10％, 20% (reference) significance, respectively.

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# FUN IN WORK: TOUR GUIDES' PLAYFULNESS

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## ABSTRACT

Playfulness is the internal characteristic of humor and enjoyment. The play of individual focus on interaction with objects; moreover, this interaction originally derives from internal motivation of interest and pleasure. The interaction with tour member in trip is the importance process of tour guide work as well as playfulness of tour guides is closely related to travel. The purpose of this study is to create the conceptualization of tour guides' playfulness at work. Firstly, this study obtains the theory of playfulness from literature review and conducts focus group interviews with tour guides and experts. Next, the researcher was able to collect data by semi-structured in-depth interview from 30 interviewees, all of whom are tour guides, managers and experts. Through the content analysis as tools to analyze and a total of five factors were extracted for tour guides' playfulness at work. These factors include Playful Guiding, Enjoyment, Fun Contagion, Creative Style, and Personality. This results indicated that the concept and the source of tour guides' playfulness. The study implication is to provide for travel managers as reference to select the tour guide and design the educational training.

Key Words: Tour guide, Playfulness, Work

## INTRODUCTION

In many Asian countries and areas, such as Taiwan, Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, and China, etc., group package tour (GPT) is one of the modes of outbound travel (Wang, Hsieh & Chen, 2002). A group package tour consists of pre-arranged transportation, accommodation, attractions, and services (Middleton, 1991). A tour leader, also known as a tour manager, executes an itinerary and gives local practical information to the tour members throughout the tour, while a tour guide interprets the cultural and natural heritage of a particular area and guides visitors using the language of choice (WFTGA, 2003). Cohen (1985) argued that the two lines of origin of the modern tour guide were the pathfinder and the mentor. Thus, tour guides are frontline employees in the tourism industry who play an important role in shaping tourists' experience in a destination (Huang, Hsu, & Chan, 2009).

Bettencourt and Brown (1997) noted that frontline employees make the customers pleasure by showing the service behavior, like voice and attitude. Emotional expression is an important part of the service behavior (Totterdell & Holman, 2003). In the organization, the

characteristic of individual behavior is exhibited through the personality traits (Richard, 1997; Robbins, 2003). Personality traits and job characteristics for higher fit, while the more favorable job performance (Salgado, 1997). Hence, there is an important relevance between personality traits and work behavior. In tour, tour guide need long-term interaction with tour members and meets the customers' diverse need. Consequently, how to use owe advantageous characteristics to communicate with tourists in humor is an important issue. Previous studies have explored traits of service employee. Burchiel and King (1999) pointed out that when an individual has a playfulness trait, their own sense of humor helps to improve communication, solve problem and build team. In addition, if the work playfulness of individual is more obvious, his job satisfaction would be higher, his job performance would be better, and it shows someone can have fun in his work (Yu, Wu, Chen, & Lin, 2007). To conclude, if tour guide has the characteristic of work playfulness, it would make work and the interaction with tourists interesting. Also, the tourists would have good experience by traveling and explaining. So, what is the concept and source to compose the characteristic of tour guide's work playfulness? The aim of this study is to advance understanding of the characteristic of tour guide's work playfulness.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Tour guide*

Tour guides have been described as information givers, sources of knowledge, mentors, surrogate parents, pathfinders, leaders, mediators, culture brokers and entertainers (Cohen, 1985). The World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (WFTGA) defines a tour guide as a person who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area, and who normally possesses an area-specific qualification usually issued and/or recognized by the appropriate authority (WFTGA, 2003). According to Cohen (1985), tour guides serve four major functions: instrumental, social, interactionary, and communicative. Pond (1993) says tour guides help tourists to understand the places they visit. Holloway (1981) notes that information giving is of greatest importance in the tour guides' drive for professional status. Wang et al. (2002) report that tour guides' presentation skills could make or break a tour. Therefore, tour guide was noted that the mediation of understanding contributed most to the generation of a memorable tour experience.

*Playfulness*

Playfulness is the predisposition to frame (or reframe) a situation in such a way as to provide oneself (and possibly others) with amusement, humor, and/or entertainment. Individuals who have such a heightened predisposition are typically funny, humorous, spontaneous, unpredictable, impulsive, active, energetic, adventurous, sociable, outgoing, cheerful, and happy, and are likely to manifest playful behavior by joking, teasing, clowning, and acting silly (Barneett, 2007). Glynn and Webster (1992) playfulness is an individual trait, a propensity to define (or redefine) an activity in an imaginative, nonserious or metaphoric manner so as to enhance intrinsic enjoyment, involvement, and satisfaction. Lundin(2001) think that playfulness is an attitude ,which can apply to the work. It is also a way to work hard, which can bring happiness, productivities, and passion through the way that someone likes. Overall,   playfulness is thought as inter belief and motivation (Lee, Cheng, & Chen, 2005). If someone has the characteristic of playfulness in his work, he would work for happiness and enjoying, not for outer reward (Moon & Kim, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

In order to further understand the content of tour guides' playfulness, this study collected data by employing in-depth interviews because this allows the respondents to reveal information in detail (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002). Interviewing uncovers and explores meanings underpinning people's behaviors, allowing clarification of issues not well understood (Arksey & Knight, 1999).

Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewers and interviewees freedom to follow up ideas, clarifying and elaborating (Arksey & Knight, 1999). The synergistic effect of focus groups may reveal data that might not have been disclosed in individual interviews (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1998). Thus, we conducted semi-structured in-depth interviews and focus groups. Five travel agencies were contacted to recommend twelve tour leaders for in-depth interviews. Four tour leaders were invited for a focus group. All of the fourteen tour leaders were certified, and twelve of they had been active in conducting tours, their specialized fields cover all the popular abroad areas of package tours.

To ensure that the survey and interview proceeded smoothly, this study developed an interview handbook. The interview handbook listed the interview question that covered the relationship between tour guides' playfulness and the following five areas: playful guiding, enjoyment, fun contagion, creative style and personality. The interviewers, used a semi-structured questions were asked by means of in-depth interviews. For example, "When you guide the tour, how to enjoy your work by yourself?" Please describe these situations in detail." The interview guidelines were established on the premise of ensuring that responses were as consistent as possible in depth and flexibility (Patton, 1990).

Then, content analysis was used to analyze the transcripts. Following the procedure suggested by Kassarjian (1977), the key words and phrases in the transcripts were first identified and underlined. Initial categories of information about the tour guides' playfulness were formed. In each category, subcategories were identified. Next, the data were coded using axial coding to develop central themes. Finally, enumerative strategies were used to supplement descriptive data resulting from analysis of the journals and the interviews (Henderson, 2006).

FINDINGS

According to the result of content analysis, there is five main tour guides' playfulness themes were generated from interview data: playful guiding, enjoyment, fun contagion, creative style and personality (see Figure 1). The playful guiding refers to factors relating to tour guides' playfulness of tour guide the tour by interesting and fun way in the guiding process. This construct includes interaction, exciting travel interesting, witty, and promoting travel fun, charismatic guiding tour, interesting interpretation, and speaking vividly. Enjoyment refers to tour guide likes his/her work and enjoy it, including immersed, work fun, enjoy in the work, concentration on the task at hand, enjoy something and never tire of it, without stint, amuse oneself in order to please the other, and speaking vividly.

Figure 1. Tour guides' playfulness
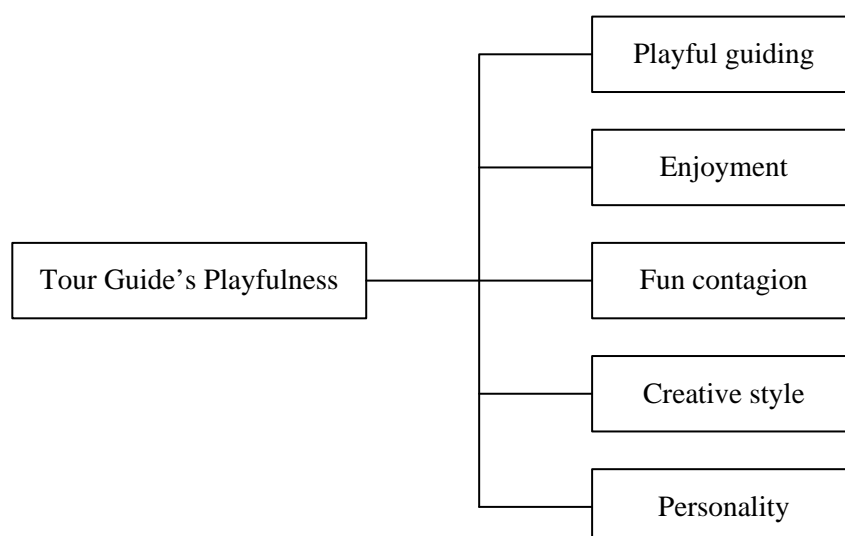
Fun contagion refers to promote happy and pleasure atmosphere to tour by tour guide. This construct includes sense of humor, harmonious atmosphere, combine education with entertainment, talk in a jovial mood, happy and lively, arouse good spirits, friendly and gratifying. Creative style refers to tour guide makes tour members feel various surprising by their style. This construct includes skilled in storytelling, curiosity, creative idea, create surprise, take delight in trying to do, and intelligent. Finally, the personality refers to tour guide has special behavior or attitude (characteristic), including learned and have a good memory, diplomatic, treat people sincerely, good at communication, enthusiastic and cheerful, positive and optimistic, and energetic.

CONCLUSION

This study explored the tour guides' playfulness of the tour guide using in-depth interviews. Through the content analysis, five themes were emerged from interview data: playful guiding, enjoyment, fun contagion, creative style, and personality. No study examined the playfulness characteristic of the tour guide. Therefore, the result of this study represents the contribution for playfulness literature.

All of respondents discussed the first two tour guides' playfulness and indicated the fun contagion and personality. The tour guides' playfulness about fun contagion is relation of humor. Humor has frequently been described in literature (e.g., Guitard, Ferland, & Dutil, 2005; Lieberan, 1977). McGhee (1996) argues that humor is a specific variant of play, the play with ideas. However, it is important for tour guide. When tour guide has a sense of humor, he or she would spread joy to tourist and enhance group atmosphere in the tour. It was observed that personality of tour guides' playfulness resulted from learned and have a good memory, diplomatic, treat people sincerely, good at communication, enthusiastic and cheerful, positive and optimistic, and energetic. Past literatures mentioned that being in a good mood, optimistic, or cheerful are seen as indicators of playfulness (Barnett, 2007). This paper showed treat people sincerely and diplomatic are distinction between tour guides' playfulness and adult playfulness.

We believe that this paper contributes to the understanding of playfulness in tour guide's work-playfulness is a trait, it is a positive global indicator to tour guide's work. And our results have important implications for personnel selection and motivation of human resource management. There is a dearth of published research regarding playfulness at tour guide's work and it needs more research to generate cumulative knowledge, new concepts and information. The findings demonstrate that in sum, tour guides' playfulness is a benefit to work for tour guides. This result provides references for school, travel agent and tour leader.

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# THE EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTION ON WOMEN EMPLOYEES: A RESEARCH ON HOTELS

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## ABSTRACT

Organizational justice, which has an efficient role on the business' productivity, staff's perception of whether the management treats them just or not. The researches' views have been examined by performing a literature review. The study has been realized with the individuals working in the tourism businesses in Ankara (Turkey).

Key words: Organizational justice, women employees, hotels.

## CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Justice has been interpreted in different ways by the philosophers thanks to differences in the values from past to present. Plato advocated absolute equality if the distributed resources would happen equally to all individuals but Aristotle advocated the view that the economic system is important to ensure justice (Cihangiroğlu & Yılmaz, 2010: 196), (Colquitt at al, 2001: 425). The perception of organizational justice studies began with Adams' The Theory of Equality and the employees' degree of success and satisfaction were associated with perceived equality or inequality in the work environment. Rawls advocated two principle about justice. First, individuals should have the same rights, and second individuals should have equality of opportunity. Organizational justice is a social system that includes perception with regard to individual's relationships with superiors, colleagues and organization. (Beugre & Baron, 2001: 326).

Organizational justice is the term that serves to reveal the effects of the justice to the individual and the organization (Greenberg, 1990:399). Scholars have generally identified three components of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice.

## RESEARCH METHOD

In this research, firstly, success of female staff working in accommodation businesses and equality or inequality perceived from the point of satisfaction level, in other words whether the gender makes difference on the perception of organizational justice is researched.

In order to determine the perception of organizational justice of female staff, a research has been made in Ankara (Turkey). In the used organizational justice of perception scale, questions about gains and process are directed to attendees during face-to-face meetings.

The selected sample of 36.3% (109 employees) were female and the remaining 63.7% (191 employees) is also found to be the man. Demographic information such as duties, working time education level, and age of participants by gender are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

| | | Sex | | | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Female | | Male | | | |
| | | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Educational Status | Illiterate | 4 | 100,0 | - | - | 4 | 100,0 |
| | Literate | 11 | 40,7 | 16 | 59,3 | 27 | 100,0 |
| | Primary Education | 42 | 56,0 | 33 | 44,0 | 75 | 100,0 |
| | High School | 34 | 25,8 | 98 | 74,2 | 132 | 100,0 |
| | University | 18 | 33,3 | 36 | 66,7 | 54 | 100,0 |
| | MSc / PhD | - | - | 7 | 100,0 | 7 | 100,0 |
| Age (Avg. ± Stan. Dev.) | | 32,95 ± 7,86 | | 33,16 ± 7,84 | | 33,09 ± 7,83 | |
| Duties | Kitchen Staff | 28 | 42,4 | 38 | 57,6 | 66 | 100,0 |
| | Housekeeping Staff | 25 | 64,1 | 14 | 35,9 | 39 | 100,0 |
| | Social Services Staff | 12 | 37,5 | 20 | 62,5 | 32 | 100,0 |
| | Accounting | 3 | 30,0 | 7 | 70,0 | 10 | 100,0 |
| | Reception | 10 | 29,4 | 24 | 70,6 | 34 | 100,0 |
| | Administrative Services Staff | 7 | 28,0 | 18 | 72,0 | 25 | 100,0 |
| | Cleaning Staff | 14 | 73,7 | 5 | 26,3 | 19 | 100,0 |
| | Front Office Staff | 2 | 22,2 | 7 | 77,8 | 9 | 100,0 |
| | Security Staff | 1 | 7,1 | 13 | 92,9 | 14 | 100,0 |
| | Technical Service Staff | - | - | 25 | 100,0 | 25 | 100,0 |
| | Valet | 4 | 26,7 | 11 | 73,3 | 15 | 100,0 |
| | Other | - | - | 7 | 100,0 | 7 | 100,0 |
| Working Hours | Less than 1 year | 15 | 34,9 | 28 | 65,1 | 43 | 100,0 |
| | 1-2 years | 33 | 38,4 | 53 | 61,6 | 86 | 100,0 |
| | 3-5 years | 36 | 41,9 | 50 | 58,1 | 86 | 100,0 |
| | 6-9 years | 15 | 41,7 | 21 | 58,3 | 36 | 100,0 |
| | 10-14 years | 8 | 21,6 | 29 | 78,4 | 37 | 100,0 |
| | 15 years and over | 2 | 16,7 | 10 | 83,3 | 12 | 100,0 |

*Data Collection Method*

Perceived Organizational Justice to determine by Colquitt (2001) was designed the scale, consists of 20 items, has been applied in a survey of 300 people face to face, 4 and 5 star hotels and tourism employees in business activities in Ankara.

*Data Analysis*

To test the validity of the scale was used factor analysis and has been shown to be divided into 4 subscales of the same factors. The results of the reliability analysis applied to this scale is given in Table 2. The analysis of the validity and reliability of this scale developed by Colquitt (2001) can be said that the results achieved.

Table 2. Reliability Analysis and Normality Test Results Related to Scale

|  | Reliability Analysis | | Normality Test | | |
|  | Cronbach's Alpha | n | Statistic | df | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organizational Justice | ,944 | 20 | ,981 | 300 | ,000 |
| Procedural Justice | ,890 | 7 | ,977 | 300 | ,000 |
| Distribution Justice | ,852 | 4 | ,965 | 300 | ,000 |
| Interpersonal Justice | ,737 | 4 | ,973 | 300 | ,000 |
| Informational Justice | ,898 | 5 | ,965 | 300 | ,000 |

The purpose of the survey is to find out the organizational justice perceptions differ according to gender. For this purpose, the following hypothesis are proposed;

H1: Organizational justice perception does not differ by gender,

H2: Procedural justice perception does not differ by gender,

H3: Distributive justice perception does not differ by gender,

H4: Interpersonal perception of justice does not differ by gender,

H5: Informational justice perception does not differ by gender.

As indicated in Table 2 normality test results to determine the variables differ significantly by gender, the scale of the Independent Sample t test was applied. Made results of this analysis are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparison of the Organizational Justice and the Sub Dimensions by Gender

|  |  | N | Mean | Standard Deviation | t | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Organizational Justice | Female | 109 | 3,0569 | ,93049 | -1,588 | 0,114 |
|  | Male | 191 | 3,2270 | ,82137 | | |
| Procedural Justice | Female | 109 | 2,9976 | ,97965 | -2,455 | 0,015* |
|  | Male | 191 | 3,2808 | ,92688 | | |
| Distribution Justice | Female | 109 | 3,0344 | 1,11776 | -0,804 | 0,422 |
|  | Male | 191 | 3,1401 | 1,05398 | | |
| Interpersonal Justice | Female | 109 | 3,1399 | ,96491 | -1,154 | 0,250 |
|  | Male | 191 | 3,2696 | ,88515 | | |
| Informational Justice | Female | 109 | 3,0917 | 1,13807 | -0,724 | 0,468 |
|  | Male | 191 | 3,1864 | ,98260 | | |

The results in Table 3 propose that:
- Perceptions of organizational justice does not differ according to gender ($p = 0.114 > 0.05$).
- Procedural justice perceptions vary by gender. It seems lower rates for the female employees ($p = 0.015 < 0.05$).
- Distributive justice perception does not differ according to gender ($p = 0.422 > 0.05$).
- Interpersonal perception of justice does not differ according to gender ($p = 0.250 > 0.05$).

- Informational justice perception does not differ according to gender (p = 0.468> 0.05).

CONCLUSIONS

The organizational justice in business has a property affecting the business performance. There are the individuals having the different personality traits in the organization also male and female workers for justice can perceive differently.

In this study, the effect of organizational justice perception of women employees on hotels is examined in Ankara, Turkey. This study shows differences according to gender in the procedural justice perceptions, so second hypothesis is rejected.

Perceptions of procedural justice in the literature is described as follows; the perception of procedural justice becomes higher if there is a company in which employees are informed of the current system and in the presence of effective freedom of choice and decision-making process.

In this study, it is thought that female employee has lower procedural justice perception since they don't feel free themselves for decision making. The procedural justice perception is lower because to be the high number of female employees of Kitchen and Housekeeping they don't participate in decisions.

The results obtained from this study may serve as a guide for future researches.

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# A FIELD RESEARCH ON THE EFFECT OF EMPOWERMENT ON CREATING ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN FIVE STAR HOTELS: A CASE STUDY OF A FIVE STAR HOTEL IN ISTANBUL

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to define relationship between empowerment perceive and organizational commitment of five star hotel employee's and to define effect of empowerment on organizational commitment. The data used in this study were obtained by questionnaire method. This scale was applied to 158 employees. There is statistically significant and positively relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment. It has seen that perception of empowerment is effective 26 % on level of organizational commitment. The perception of empowerment and level of organizational commitment of employees' are related with working time in organization.

Key words: Empowerment, Organizational Commitment, Hotel.

## INTRODUCTION

*Empowerment*

With empowerment, as a result of the distribution of true power by empowerment tools like contribution, motivation, job enrichment, that handled and tried to be applied, therefore revealing the developing power rate of organizational commitment level is a very important fact for companies.

In this struggle of increasing competition conditions, the clients who wants more and many competition that are ready to fulfill these needs, it can be possible the organizations to compete by most efficient and sufficient use of their sources. The traditional management techniques are underwhelming and insufficient in reaching to success in this competition. In the today's business world that the competition grows every day and changes happens so fast, finding of new management techniques is unavoidable. One of the most important concepts in this innovation search is empowerment (Yıldırım, 2004).

To survive in the increasing competition conditions, companies want providing client satisfaction by higher efficiency, diverted them to empowerment (Spreitzer, 1997). The thought of making empowerment a life philosophy and great effort need of this, bring individuality to empowerment (Tschohl, 1998).

Empowerment is not the ability of everybody to do what they want. The purpose of empowerment is the decision to be made by the person who is the most close to decision and has the most knowledge (Kusy, 1997). The main point here is this: The person who knows how to develop the job, is the person who actually does the job every day (Caudron, 1995). The empowerment approach come up as a result of the need to employee who can make accurate decisions in the name of the company and can apply these decisions (Dalay, 2002).

Measurement of empowerment is only possible by defining the dimensions of this concept. Spreitzer has been examined the empowerment in four dimensions in his study "Psychological Empowerment in The Workplace: Dimensions, Measurement, and Validation" (Spreitzer, 1995).

Meaning: Needs of the performed work with belief of employee and overlap level of value states the meaning level of work for that employee (Kenneth, 1990).
Impact: It states the level of authority on the work that performed by the employee (Bandura, 1989).
Competence: It states the employee has the authority of performing their work and interfering to work environment (Connel, 1989).
Autonomy: It states the employee can move freely during the work hours (Ashforth, 1989).

Empowerment is distribution of work and spreading between the workers. Thus, the power of control while performing the work will be given. Empowerment is an approach that supports providing control on the work and being owners of their own works (Doğan, 2004).

*Organizational Commitment*

Organization exists with its employees. Sustainability of organization depends on employees to stay in the organization. Because of that there is a relation between a long life of organization and employees' organizational commitment. Organization tries to keep employees to continue its life. While doing that, applications like wage increasing, providing a rising chance and inspirers, going to be made (Çetin, 2004).

Meyer and Allen, defined the organizational commitment as a psychological situation that states relations between the organization and employees and decisions of staying in the organization (Meyer, 1997).

In 1984, Meyer and Allen, suggested the "emotional" and "continuance" commitment to conceptualized in two dimensions by depending on the studies about organizational commitment. In 1990, a third factor called "normative commitment" is added (Allen, 1990).

Emotional Commitment: In emotional commitment, employees' deep commitment to organization means that he committed himself to the organization, he will be loyal and he stayed in the organization by his free will. With this thought committed employees will not avoid some extra work if necessary (Çetin, 2004).

Continuance Commitment: Continuance Commitment, represents the employees cost after quitting. Person who has high Continuance Commitment, continuous to stay in the organization because they think they needed it. Continuance Commitment occurrence can be possible as a result of quitting from organization cost increasing activity or occasion. Quitting from the organization can be perceived as quitting from the time employee spend, money or effort (Meyer, 1997).

Normative Commitment: It states the moral side of the commitment. Also it occurs as a result of the normative commitment employee to see showing a commitment to his organization as a task and thinks that he is the right side of the commitment. It states a different dimension than the other two commitment (Gül, 2008).

*Empowerment's Effects on the Organizational Commitment*

Active sustainability of modern organization activities can be possible with the existence of the employees that are empowered and committed to the organization. By the cause of intense competition and organizational changes, existence of the employees that are going to work voluntarily for work processes, products and performing the client services and going to stay committed to the organization are gained importance. Employee empowerment is an understanding that provide freedom in changing duty behaviours and making their own decisions, also in this matter feel stronger about this subject. As it was stated in the first chapter, empowerment's four dimensions (meaning, effect, competence, autonomy) generates the basis of being connected to each other and every dimensions increases the sense of feeling powerful (Janssen, 2004).

Thurau and Hansen (Thurau, 2000) suggested that organizational commitment formed by integration between employees and upper ranks, therefore empowerment effects organizational commitment by trust. Employee stays loyal to the organization when there is trust between the employee and organization and they put all skills and talent in order to apply their works successfully. In the studies of Bergman and the others (Bergman, 2002) examined various human sources and fixated that there is a powerful relationship between development opportunities and empowerment. As it written, empowerment triggers the organizational commitment.

THE PURPOSE OF RESEARCH

Purpose of the research is to define the relationship between employees' empowerment sense who works at the five star hotel corporations and present the effect on founding an organizational commitment. Another purpose of this research is to define the relationship and effect between empowerment levels and organizational commitment.

Regardless of the fact that especially in this last period, there is many studies about empowerment and organizational commitment, there is no such study about variables in the sense of hotel institutions and relations in between. With the performed study, relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment in the hotels will be discussed.

METHOD OF RESEARCH

In this research Quantitative method is preferred. The data used in the research is collected by surveys. In this work primary data is used. Model of this research is a definitive research model. By the reason of hotel employees work in shift system, work intensity and time limit, probability sampling method is not used but easy sampling has preferred. Surveys' feedback rate is 47.4 %.

Preparing the questions of the survey related to empowerment, the measurement of the facts like meaning, impact, competence and autonomy, the questions that many researchers used and Spreitzer (Spreitzer, 1995) generated in 1995 are used. This scale is formed from 12 expressions that measures every dimension of meaning, impact, competence and autonomy.

To measure the organizational commitment, 3 dimensional organizational commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (Meyer, 1990) is used. Components of 3 dimensional commitment scale, emotional, continuance and normative commitment are shown that the employees' organizational commitment purposes are different.

RESEARCH MODEL
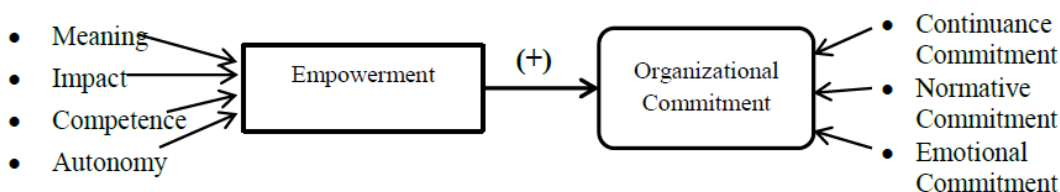


Figure 1 - Model of Research

Hypothesis
H1 Empowerment sense has a positive contribution to organizational commitment.

FINDINGS

In general, we can say that the scales of organizational commitment sense (0.908) and employee empowerment (0.913) are highly trustworthy. When the facts analysis examined we can see the organizational commitment scale has 3 factors. The scale is coherent with the literature as fact sizes. And we can see empowerment scale is not 4 like in the literature, but 3. When facts are examined, we can see the autonomy and competence fact combined in one fact. It can be explained by the closeness of related two factors.

In general we can say hotel employees' level of normative commitment (2.76) and continuance commitment (2.86) is intermediate and emotional commitment (3.84) sense is above intermediate. General commitment sense (3.15) is intermediate. In general hotel employees meaning (4.42), impact (4.70) and autonomy (4.27) senses are high and we can say also autonomy (3.86) sense is above intermediate. General empowerment sense (4.31) is high level.

Participants in this search are 49.4% male and 51.6% male. Distribution by marital status is like this: 42.4% single, 51.3% married and 6.3% divorced. The income level of 3.8% of low, 91.1% of intermediate with a great portion and 5.1% is high. Considering that educational status, we can see participants are mostly high school graduate 62%. 1.9 % are elementary school graduate, 12% high school graduate, 22.2% associate degree and 1.9% master's degree graduate.

The large portion of the participants are between the ages of 28-33 (41.8%). 22.1% are between the 22-27 age range, 20.9% are between the 34-39 age range, 15.2% are 40 and above. Employees' distribution by the current institutions working time are like this: 38% are 0-3 years, 23.4% are 4-6 years, 11.4% are 7-9 years, and 27.2% are 10 years and above. Employees' distribution by the working time in the sector are like this: 24.7% are 0-5 years, 32.9% are 5-10 years, 19% are 10-15 years, 23.4% are 15 years and above.

As we can see on the table, we can say that there is a meaningful relationship (p<0.01) between empowerment and organizational commitment level. This relationship is positive and intermediate (r=0.516). Findings has supportive quality for research hypothesis.

To test the relationship between empowerment perception with its dimensions and organizational commitment level with its dimensions correlation analysis report is presented in the table 1.

When we look at the table below, we can see the perceived empowerments is effective on the organizational commitment level approximately 26%. The relationship power between perceived empowerment and organizational commitment level is 0.516. Positive Beta value means the relationship has the right direction. So when perceived empowerment is increasing, also organizational commitment level increases. Relation is moderate severity (R=0,516). The level of significance is p<0.01.

Table 1. Relationship of perceived empowerment and organizational commitment

| Correlation Analysis | | Organizational Commitment Level |
|---|---|---|
| Empowerment Perception | Pearson Correlation | .516[*] |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 |
| | N | 158 |

[*] $p<0.01$ (2-tailed).

Table 2. Regression analysis of perceived empowerment and organizational commitment

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate | B | t | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1[**] | .516[*] | .266 | .261 | .70556 | .516 | 7.522 | .000 |

[*] Predictor: Empowerment

[**] Dependent Variable: Organizational Commitment

By these findings; H1 hypothesis (Empowerment sense has a positive contribution to organizational commitment) is accepted.

Employees' empowerment senses and organizational commitment levels are examined by demographical qualities and no statistically meaningful difference be founded.

Table 3. t-Test for perception of empowerment according to working time in the workplace

| | | Levene's Test | | t-test | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | F | Sig. | t | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| Empowerment | Equal Variances Assumed | 14,058 | 0.000 | 1,958 | 0.042 |
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | 1,853 | 0.047 |

Table 4. Statistics for perception of empowerment according to working time in the workplace

| | Working Time in the Workplace | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Perception of Empowerment | 5 years and more than 5 years | 86 | 4.41 | .417 | .045 |
| | Less than 5 years | 72 | 4.20 | .860 | .101 |

Findings; states the empowerment perception of the employees who worked 5 year or more (4.41) are higher than the employees who worked less than 5 years (4,20).

Findings; states the organizational commitment levels of the employees who worked 5 year or more in an institute (3,29) are higher than the employees who worked less than 5 years (3,00).

Table 5. t-Test for level of organizational commitment according to working time in the workplace

| Level of Organizational Commitment | Equal Variances Assumed | 3,602 | 0,060 | 2,216 | 0,028 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Equal Variances Not Assumed | | | 2,177 | 0,031 |

Table 6. Statistics for level of organizational commitment according to working time in the workplace

| Level of Organizational Commitment | 5 years and more than 5 years | 86 | 3,29 | ,732 | ,079 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Less than 5 years | 72 | 3,00 | ,897 | ,106 |

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

When the regression analysis reports that are intended to define effects on the organizational commitment level on the employee empowerment sense and subdimensions are examined, empowerment sense is effective on organizational commitment by 26%. When organizational commitment concepts socio-psychologic quality and relations with many concept taken into account, this proportion is quiet important for one dimension.

The mistake made in the institutions like hotel institutions that the customers directly communicate with the employee, are not going to cause just money lose, but also reputation lose too. Customers and employees are racing with the time, and there will be important customer dissatisfactory will happen when situations like an employee has no authority or lack of self-confidence occur. Therefore these negativity can be prevented with empowerment, and even income increase can be achieved.

Employer who cares about the employees' emotional commitment is the most wanted situation. When we look at the finding of the research, as a most powerful relationship, the relationship between emotional commitment and empowerment stands out (0,613). This relationship is statistically meaningful and positive.

Hotel employees' organizational commitment level is increased above intermediate. This finding can be interpreted as empowerment is a "must be" condition in the sense of organizational commitment but it is not an "adequate condition". In as much, in literature about empowerment, there is many concepts that are referred to.

Employees' organizational commitment sizes fixated that normative commitment and continuance commitment levels are fixated as intermediate, also emotional commitment levels are fixated as above intermediate. When we think about the survey participants' work experience in corporate environment is 7 years, persons' adaptation of work environment as a family environment, and unexperienced new employees that are hired to get experienced in this corporation like a school, and when we think about the competitor companies, we can say that thought of being work in the possible best and best qualitied work makes the emotional commitment sense to be high.

The cause of normative commitment level to be lower than the emotional commitment sense is in a tourism city like Istanbul, there is so much competition, therefore we can say that originated from persons' feelings about they have to work in this corporation.

Employee who is committed to his organization don't think of working somewhere else. Also he looks for the ways how he can do his job better. In this perspective, committed employee who works in the hotel institutions contributes to decreasing the circulation speed. This will prevent the time loss of finding a new personnel and training them. Other important point is, the most determinant quality of 5 star hotels are serving high quality service. When employee circulation is fast, the flaws are unavoidable. Also in the hotel institutions that has a customer who serves luxury, wants to see familiar employees every time when they come. Transferring their demands by meeting with different employee every time they visit originates causing customer dissatisfactory.

In empowerment senses fixated that there is no statistically meaningful difference between gender, age, marital status, educational status and work experience. It has been fixated that there is a meaningful difference between the work duration and empowerment senses only in corporation (p<0.05). According to this, empowerment senses of who works in a corporation for 5 or more years are (4.41) higher than who works less than 5 years (4.20). When we think about the empowerment is a trust based, this difference can be understand.

In organizational commitment levels fixated that there is no statistically meaningful difference between gender, age, marital status, educational status and work experience. It has been found that there is a meaningful difference between the work duration and organizational commitment levels only in corporations (p<0.05). We could see that organizational commitment levels of who works in a corporation for 5 or more years are (3.29) higher than who works less than 5 years (3.00). Also there is meaningful differences between organizational commitment subdimensions emotional commitment and normative commitment is fixated. By these findings, increase the work time in the organization increases their commitments to the organization can be said. Working for long years in an organization, makes that organization to be hard to quit.

The data collected in this research are limited by the five star hotels in Istanbul. With including other five star hotels to the research, and including other facts that effects the organizational commitment and possible result of empowerment can lead to more integrated results.

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# THE INFLUENCE OF LECTURE CONTENT ON THE CAREER INTENTIONS OF TOURISMAND HOSPITALITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to identify influential and effective lecture content that will interest tourism and hospitality students in working in the tourism and hospitality industry after graduation. Quantitative surveys of students at a two-year college in Japan indicate that up-to-date information about the tourism and hospitality industry such as work hours, payment, and gender equality should be actively included in lectures. Such information can help to direct and develop students' career intentions into the actual action of seeking employment opportunities in the industry.

Key words: tourism education, career intentions, tourism and hospitality students, Japan

INTRODUCTION

In the last decade, there has been a rapid increase in the number of universities and departments teaching tourism and hospitality (T&H) in Japan, from 15 to 42 universities between 2003 and 2013 (Japan Tourism Agency, 2010; Tamagawa University, 2013). During this time, total student capacity in these T&H-related departments in Japan has also expanded rapidly, from approximately 2,000 to more than 4,000, as shown in Figure 1.

In 2012, in all faculties and departments in Japan, a total of 17,540 students were enrolled in T&H courses (Japan Tourism Agency, 2012). The increase in T&H-related universities and faculties, and of total student enrolments, confirms the perceived importance of T&H education in the future development of Japan's tourism industry.

Yet despite this trend, relatively few T&H students actually enter the industry after graduation. Tamagawa University (2013) and the Japan Tourism Agency (JTA) (2012) report that only 16.1% and 12.2% of T&H students, respectively, go on to work in the industry after completing their studies. This figure of less than 20% of T&H students actually working in the industry after graduation is low relative to other research, and a matter of global concern for educators. For example, Richardson (2008) concluded that the most distressing finding of his research (at a university in Australia) was that 33% of T&H students would not work in the industry after graduation. Similar research in mainland China reported that 31.6% of T&H students there did not plan to pursue a career in the industry (Lu & Adler, 2009). Furthermore, Wan and Kong (2012) found that 50% of students studying cultural heritage at a university in Macao did not intend to work in an area related to cultural heritage upon graduation, which is again a low percentage. These and other findings suggest that universities and faculties offering T&H courses need to investigate ways of supporting or encouraging students' entry into the industry after graduation.

In Japan, JTA has convened T&H education conferences for related universities and faculties annually since 2009. These conferences provide opportunities for T&H stakeholders—faculties, government departments and the industry—to eliminate the mismatches between T&H education and human resource management in the industry (Japan Tourism Agency, 2012; Tamagawa University, 2013). The present study supports those attempts by

investigating the career intentions of T&H students by means of a case study at a two-year college in Japan. The purpose of this study is to identify influential and effective content and topics for lectures that might encourage T&H students to work in the industry after graduation. In particular, the following four questions are addressed: (1) Do students studying T&H have career intentions in the T&H industry? (2) Which kinds of T&H student seek employment in the T&H industry? (3) Do perceived salary conditions relate to students' T&H career intentions? (4) To what extent do female T&H students see the industry as offering gender equality in terms of employment opportunities?



| | '03 | '05 | '06 | '07 | '08 | '09 | '10 | '12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Number of T&H Faculties in Japan | 16 | 19 | 24 | 28 | 36 | 39 | 43 | 42 |
| Number of T&H Schools in Japan | 18 | 21 | 28 | 30 | 41 | 43 | 48 | 46 |
| Total Student Capacity in the T&H schools in Japan | 1985 | 2315 | 3000 | 3520 | 3900 | 4352 | 4837 | 4772 |
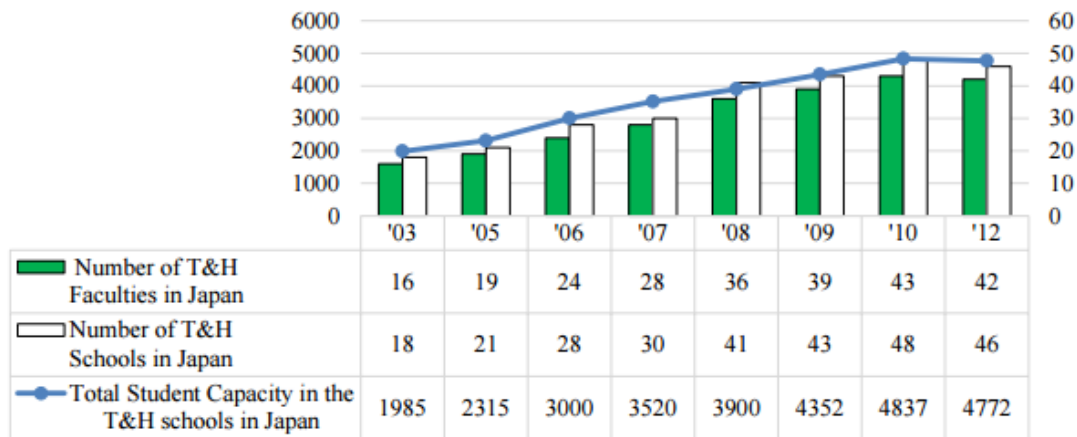
Figure 1. Number of T&H faculties, schools and total student capacity of T&H schools in Japan (Japan Tourism Agency, 2012; Tamagawa University, 2013).

LITERATURE REVIEW

*T&H Education and Students' Career Intentions*

Lu and Adler (2009) concluded in their research that tourism and hospitality students are a desirable human resource for the industry, and that T&H educators and employers are responsible for assisting students in developing a career direction in the industry. This implies that T&H education and students' intention to pursue a career in the industry are related matters. For example, , as students have been found to lack real information about T&H jobs (Wan, Wong, & Kong, 2014), T&H educators can decisively influence students' career intentions by providing relevant information about industry working conditions such as working hours, salaries, and promotion opportunities. Reality-based information of this kind can also prevent graduates from abandoning jobs in the industry after just a few years by effectively closing the gap between students' expectations and their subsequent perceptions of working in T&H (Brown, Arendt, & Bosselman, 2014; Richardson, 2009). Clearly, information about the realities of working in the industry can help to make students aware of available careers from the beginning and throughout their studies (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Richardson & Thomas, 2012).

At the same time, it has been established that T&H students' education and internship experiences shape their perceptions and expectations of their future careers in the industry (Siu, Cheung, & Law, 2012). Although internships are generally regarded as a valuable opportunity to gain useful skills and knowledge for future careers, there is some evidence that students' internships and/or working experiences have created negative perceptions of working in T&H. Research also indicates that negative T&H work experience during their studies is a primary factor in students' withdrawal from future careers in the industry (Richardson, 2008). To the extent that the ultimate influence and outcomes of an internship program reflect the quality of students' experience, this should be carefully managed by those offering the programs and by T&H educators (Brown et al., 2014). Other research indicates that students' T&H career intentions diminish as they progress to the third and fourth year of their university studies and as they learn more about industry working conditions

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(Jenkins, 2001; Richardson, 2008). This negative tendency seems largely due to the given curriculum's failure to meet students' expectations. It follows that T&H education should meet the expectations of both students and industry. Using industry-based information about staff skills and attributes to improve curriculum design may be beneficial in producing highly-skilled and knowledgeable T&H graduates, representing suitable human resources that the industry will want to hire (Wang, Ayres, & Huyton, 2009).

Students with high expectations of their T&H education may often prefer to learn business and management skills for entry into managerial and professional positions in the industry, and such courses should therefore be provided (Gursoy, Rahman, & Swanger, 2012; Lu & Adler, 2009). Given these student learning preferences, a T&H educational program developer should verify the relevance of business and management skills to the competencies required of new staff members. Educators must therefore work collaboratively with industry in developing curriculum and internship programs that will impact positively on students' careers (Gursoy et al., 2012; Li & Li, 2013; Richardson & Thomas, 2012). For this reason, the curriculum should clearly indicate the relevance and worth of students' studies for their future careers.

Appropriate connections between educational institutions and the industry are also necessary for positive graduate outcomes (Breakey & Craig-Smith, 2007; Maher & Graves, 2007; Wu, Morrison, Yang, Zhou, & Cong, 2014). On that basis, curricula need to be developed to include both realistic information about the industry and quality work experiences that will encourage students to pursue careers in T&H.

*Perceived Salary Conditions*

There is substantial evidence that intentions to pursue a career in T&H tend to relate to salary conditions. The fact that the industry offers lower pay as compared to other industries negatively influences students' career intentions (Wan, et al., 2014),and it seems inevitable that the industry will lose its highly-skilled and trained workforce if higher salaries are not paid (Richardson, 2008). In fact, pay is one of the most significant factors that the industry must improve if it is to be more positively perceived. As an example, Korean T&H students receive reality-oriented learning and realistic information about the industry such as pay and promotion opportunities (Choi & Kim, 2013). As students regard existing salary conditions as an unexpected negative factor (Barron, Maxwell, Broadbridge, & Ogden, 2007; Richardson, 2009; Yen, Cooper, & Murrmann, 2013), improvement in this regard will promote T&H students' positive career intentions, promising to increase the quality of the industry's workforce.

Other research indicates that T&H students in the US engage in the T&H industry only if the work offers a relatively high salary, which becomes more important as T&H careers become longer (Brown et al., 2014; Richardson, 2009; Richardson & Thomas, 2012); ultimately, T&H career intentions reflect perceived salary conditions. From the industry perspective, T&H educators need to collaborate with industry to develop T&H graduates with the desired professional qualities, based on curricula and programs that are directly relevant to workplace needs (Wang et al., 2009). In other words, the industry might find it possible to improve T&H graduates' salary conditions if educators could ensure the relevance of their graduates' skills and knowledge. Given the relationship between perceived salary conditions and students' career intentions, both industry and educators have a key role to play in this context.

*Women's career intentions and gender equality in the T&H industry*

Studies differ in relation to the career intentions of female T&H students. Wan, Wong, and Kong's research (2014) revealed that female students in Macao were less likely to commit to the T&H industry, suggesting that educators should allocate time for consulting with female students to determine their attitudes and to encourage them to work in the industry by reducing their negative perceptions. On the other hand, another study in Macao found that more female students had T&H

career intentions than men, with thoughts about their careers that differed from those of male students (Wan & Kong, 2011). Although these studies reached opposite conclusions, they both indicate that T&H educators should devote special attention to their female students. As there are more female students than males in many T&H institutions, this will affect the majority of T&H students.

Additional research indicates that educators should especially provide female T&H students with leadership skills, mentoring, and female role models, as these factors contribute to female students' different attitudes to working in the T&H industry (Gretzel & Bowser, 2013; Wan & Kong, 2011; Zhong, Couch, & Blum, 2013). As long as gender inequality in respect of pay and promotion to management positions continues to be an issue for women, this will affect their decisions about working in the industry, and educators therefore play a key role in addressing gender equality in the real workplace (Clevenger & Singh, 2013; Costa, Caçador, Carvalho, Breda, & Costa, 2013; Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000; Zhong et al., 2013).

Based on the reviewed research, four hypotheses were constructed as follows. Hypothesis 1 (H1): The employment- seeking activities of students in the T&H industry do not vary with students' career intentions. Hypothesis 2 (H2): Career intentions in the T&H industry do not vary with perceived salary conditions. Hypothesis 3 (H3): Students studying T&H want their lectures to include information about working in the industry. Hypothesis 4 (H4): For female T&H students, career intentions vary with perceived gender equality in T&H employment opportunities.

METHODS

This explanatory research follows a quantitative empirical approach. Questionnaires used to collect quantitative data were administered to three different student samples in January 2013, July 2013, and July 2014, with 28, 29, and 28 respondents, respectively. All participants were studying T&H at Tokai University Fukuoka Junior College (TUFJC). For each survey, the author distributed a questionnaire to each student during the last of 15 classes, and students were given approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

The questionnaires explored students' thoughts, understandings, attitudes, and expectations in respect of T&H salaries, gender equality, and their intentions about working in the industry after graduation. The attitude-statement style questions used a 5-point Likert scale (*Disagree*, *Somewhat Disagree*, *Neither Agree nor Disagree*, *Somewhat Agree*, and *Agree*). Questionnaires also included closed-, open-ended, and multiple-choice questions about respondents' demographics (gender, age, enrolment type, and relevant past experiences such as work and study abroad experiences).

From a total of 85 respondents, the data analysis included only the 73 returns with no missing values, using SPSS Statistics version 17.0. Cross-tabulation and chi-square tests were used to examine the relationships between multiple variables. A Kruskal-Wallis test was also used to establish whether observed values were the same between the three groups divided by some variables (Veal, 2006).

RESULTS

Demographic data were collected to analyse respondents' profiles. As Table 1 shows, all respondents were full-time students, and female students predominated (74.0%). For 98.7% of the sample, age ranged from less than 19 to 24. There was no statistically significant difference between the groups other than the age of Group 1, which was dominated (at 30.1%) by 20- and 24-year-old respondents.

Table 1. Respondents' profiles

| | | Group 1: January 2013 | | Group 2: July 2013 | | Group 3: July 2013 | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Gender | Female | 18 | 24.7 | 19 | 26.0 | 17 | 23.3 | 54 | 74.0 |
| | Male | 6 | 8.2 | 6 | 8.2 | 7 | 9.6 | 19 | 26.0 |
| Age | Under 19 | 2 | 2.7 | 16 | 21.9 | 13 | 17.8 | 31 | 42.5 |
| | 20–24 | 22 | 30.1 | 9 | 12.3 | 10 | 13.7 | 41 | 56.2 |
| | 25–29 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 1.4 | 1 | 1.4 |
| | Over 30 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Enrolment Type | Full-time | 24 | 32.9 | 25 | 34.2 | 24 | 32.9 | 73 | 100.0 |
| | Part-time | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |

H1: According to the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test (see Tables 2 and 3 below), H1 is rejected with an asymptotic significance of less than 0.01. This indicates a significant difference in students' T&H industry employment-seeking actions depending on career intentions in the industry. As can be seen in Table 4, 11.0% and 8.2% (*Somewhat Agree* and *Agree*, respectively) of students with T&H career intentions have sought or plan to seek T&H employment. In contrast, only 2.7% and 1.4% (*Somewhat Agree* and *Agree*, respectively) of students without T&H career intentions have sought or plan to seek T&H employment.

Table 2
Rank of career intentions in T&H and employment-seeking action

| | Career intentions in T&H | N | Mean Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| Will you seek/have you sought employment in T&H? | Yes | 19 | 51.79 |
| | No | 17 | 28.35 |
| | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | 19 | 42.89 |
| | Unknown | 18 | 23.33 |
| | Total | 73 | |

Table 3
Test Statistics[a,b]

| | Will you seek/have you sought employment in T&H? |
|---|---|
| Chi-Square | 22.183 |
| df | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .000 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Career intentions in the T&H industry

Table 4. Cross-tabulation of career intentions and T&H employment-seeking action

| | | | Career intentions in T&H | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Yes | No | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | Unknown | Total |
| Will you seek/have you sought employment in T&H? | Disagree | % within | 1.4% | 8.2% | 1.4% | 9.6% | 20.5% |
| | Somewhat Disagree | % within | 1.4% | 2.7% | 5.5% | 2.7% | 12.3% |
| | Neither | % within | 4.1% | 8.2% | 6.8% | 12.3% | 31.5% |
| | Somewhat Agree | % within | 11.0% | 2.7% | 6.8% | 0.0% | 20.5% |
| | Agree | % within | 8.2% | 1.4% | 5.5% | 0.0% | 15.1% |
| Total | | % within | 26.0% | 23.3% | 26.0% | 24.7% | 100.0% |

H2: Tables 5 and 6 show that H2 was accepted, as there is no significant difference in T&H career intentions among the four groups of students based on perceived pay conditions. That is, students' T&H career intentions do not vary according to whether they expect high or low compensation. As can be seen in Table 7, 21.0% of students choosing

- Yes‖ for career intention also *disagree* or *somewhat disagree* with expectations of good T&H

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salaries and bonuses.

Table 5
Rank of career intentions in T&H and expectations of T&H salaries and bonuses

|  | Career intentions in T&H | N | Mean Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good salaries? | Yes | 19 | 37.45 |
|  | No | 17 | 34.56 |
|  | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | 19 | 33.79 |
|  | Unknown | 18 | 42.22 |
|  | Total | 73 |  |
| Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good bonuses? | Yes | 19 | 35.11 |
|  | No | 17 | 36.47 |
|  | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | 19 | 34.16 |
|  | Unknown | 18 | 42.50 |
|  | Total | 73 |  |

Table 6 Test Statistics[a,b]

|  | Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good salaries? | Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good bonuses? |
|---|---|---|
| Chi-Square | 2.066 | 2.130 |
| Df | 3 | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .559 | .546 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Career intentions in the T&H industry

H3: As Tables 8 and 9 indicate, H3 is accepted with an asymptotic significance of 0.142. This indicates that there is no significant difference in expectations of work information in T&H lectures between the four groups by T&H career intentions; 57.5% of all T&H students *agree* or *somewhat agree* with expecting to receive work-related information in their T&H lectures. In addition, as shown in Table 10, over half (12.3% of the 23.3%) of the students choosing ―No‖ as their T&H career intention still expect work-related information in their T&H lectures.

Table 7. Cross-tabulation of T&H career intentions with perceived salary payment and bonus payments (%within)

| Career intentions in the T&H industry | | | Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good bonuses? | | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Disagree | Somewhat Disagree | Neither | Somewhat Agree | Agree | |
| Yes | Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good salaries? | Disagree | 10.5% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 10.5% |
| | | Somewhat Disagree | 0.0% | 10.5% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 10.5% |
| | | Neither | 0.0% | 0.0% | 42.1% | 10.5% | 0.0% | 52.6% |
| | | Somewhat Agree | 0.0% | 0.0% | 5.3% | 15.8% | 0.0% | 21.1% |
| | | Agree | 0.0% | 0.0% | 5.3% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 5.3% |
| | Total | | 10.5% | 10.5% | 52.6% | 26.3% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| No | Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good salaries? | Disagree | 5.9% | 0.0% | 5.9% | .0% | 0.0% | 11.8% |
| | | Somewhat Disagree | 5.9% | 0.0% | 11.8% | .0% | 0.0% | 17.6% |
| | | Neither | 0.0% | 0.0% | 47.1% | .0% | 0.0% | 47.1% |
| | | Somewhat Agree | 0.0% | 0.0% | .0% | 17.6% | 0.0% | 17.6% |
| | | Agree | 0.0% | 0.0% | .0% | 5.9% | 0.0% | 5.9% |
| | Total | | 11.8% | 0.0% | 64.7% | 23.5% | 0.0% | 100.0% |
| Entering 4-year university or study abroad | Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good salaries? | Somewhat Disagree | 0.0% | 15.8% | 15.8% | 0.0% | 00.0% | 31.6% |
| | | Neither | 0.0% | 5.3% | 42.1% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 47.4% |
| | | Somewhat Agree | 0.0% | .0% | .0% | 21.1% | 0.0% | 21.1% |
| | Total | | 0.0% | 21.1% | 57.9% | 21.1% | 0.0% | 1000.0% |
| Unknown | Do you think jobs in the T&H industry offer good salaries? | Somewhat Disagree | 0.0% | 11.1% | .0% | .0% | 0.0% | 11.1% |
| | | Neither | 0.0% | .0% | 50.0% | 5.6% | 0.0% | 55.6% |
| | | Somewhat Agree | 0.0% | .0% | .0% | 27.8% | 5.6% | 33.3% |
| | Total | | 0.0% | 11.1% | 50.0% | 33.3% | 5.6% | 100.0% |

Table 8
Rank of career intentions in the T&H industry and expectation of work information in tourism lectures

| | Career intentions in the T&H industry | N | Mean Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| Expectation of work information in tourism lectures | Yes | 19 | 43.03 |
| | No | 17 | 34.85 |
| | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | 19 | 40.63 |
| | Unknown | 18 | 28.83 |
| | Total | 73 | |

Table 9
Test Statistics[a,b]

| | Expectation of work information in tourism lectures |
|---|---|
| Chi-Square | 5.447 |
| df | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .142 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Career intentions in the T&H industry

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Table 10. Cross-tabulation of T& H Career intentions and expectations of work information in T&H lectures (% within).

| | | Expectation of work information in T&H lectures | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Disagree | Somewhat disagree | Neither | Somewhat agree | Agree | Total |
| Career intentions in the T&H industry | Yes | 1.4% | 1.4% | 5.5% | 8.2% | 9.6% | 26.0% |
| | No | 1.4% | 1.4% | 8.2% | 8.2% | 4.1% | 23.3% |
| | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | .0% | 1.4% | 6.8% | 12.3% | 5.5% | 26.0% |
| | Unknown | 1.4% | 1.4% | 12.3% | 8.2% | 1.4% | 24.7% |
| Total | | 4.1% | 5.5% | 32.9% | 37.0% | 20.5% | 100.0% |

H4: According to Tables 11 and 12, H4 is rejected, as T&H career intentions do not differ significantly within the five categories of perceived T&H gender equality in employment opportunities. As shown in Table 13, almost half (49.3%) of all students were undecided whether T&H offers gender equality in employment opportunities while 16.4% of all students *agreed* that it does. Additionally, 26.0% of all students *somewhat agreed* that the industry offers gender equality in employment opportunities. Only 8.2% of all students *disagreed* that the T&H industry has gender equality in employment opportunities, and 50% of those students (4.1%) said ―Yes‖ to having T&H career intentions.

Table 11
Rank of career intentions in the T&H industry and gender equality in employment opportunities

| | Career intentions in the T&H industry | N | Mean Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gender equality in employment opportunities | Yes | 19 | 38.84 |
| | No | 17 | 34.24 |
| | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | 19 | 38.53 |
| | Unknown | 18 | 36.06 |
| | Total | 73 | |

Table 12
Test Statistics[a,b]

| | Gender equality in employment opportunities |
|---|---|
| Chi-Square | .660 |
| df | 3 |
| Asymp. Sig. | .883 |

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Career intentions in the T&H industry

Table 13
Cross-tabulation of T&H Career Intentions and Gender equality in employment opportunities (% within)

| | | | Career intentions in the T&H industry | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Yes | No | Entering 4-year university or study abroad | Unknown | |
| Gender equality in employment opportunities | Disagree | % within | 1.4% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 1.4% |
| | Somewhat Disagree | % within | 2.7% | 4.1% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 6.8% |
| | Neither | % within | 8.2% | 11.0% | 15.1% | 15.1% | 49.3% |
| | Somewhat Agree | % within | 8.2% | 2.7% | 6.8% | 8.2% | 26.0% |
| | Agree | % within | 5.5% | 5.5% | 4.1% | 1.4% | 16.4% |
| Total | | % within | 26.0% | 23.3% | 26.0% | 24.7% | 100.0% |

DISCUSSION

The results for H1 suggest that students with T&H career intentions are likely to seek employment opportunities in the T&H industry. Correspondingly, students without such career intentions will not seek employment opportunities. These results are reasonably and predictably consistent with the strength of students' interest in the T&H industry as a career option. However, it is also to be expected that students who are studying T&H will have more knowledge, skills, and experience than students who are not studying T&H and so are more likely to be able to contribute to their T&H hiring organisation or company from the beginning of their career. From this point of view, if the T&H industry is to have access to a larger workforce with appropriate skills and knowledge, it is important for educators to use different approaches for students with and without T&H career intentions. A first step would be to motivate students studying T&H to actually want to work in the T&H industry. According to the present findings, this would make them more likely to seek T&H employment opportunities. In other words, T&H educators are responsible for catching and keeping their students' interest in the industry during lectures. Alternately, for students without T&H career intentions, educators need to make an extra effort to position the industry as students' second or third career option. For this reason, educators need to provoke students' interest during lectures by pointing out the attractiveness and uniqueness of working in the industry.

In addition, the results for H2 and H3 indicate the positive possibility of enabling skilled and knowledgeable T&H students to progress in their T&H careers by providing realistic information about work and industry conditions (e.g. salaries and work hours) since students are known to expect such information in their lectures (Wan et al., 2014), whether or not their career intentions are in the T&H industry. For example, 21.0% of students choosing ―Yes‖ as their T&H career intention disagreed or somewhat disagreed with expecting a good salary or bonus. This means that they generally recognise the industry's low payment profile while maintaining their T&H career intentions. Furthermore, 23.5% of students who chose ―No‖ as their T&H career intention agreed or somewhat agreed with expecting good T&H compensation. Some students do not understand the reality of T&H industry compensation and still think that the industry offers higher compensation than other industries, which makes it important to provide all students (with and without T&H career intentions) with real work information, especially in respect of compensation. This might be expected to increase worker retention at the earlier career stages as there would be less of a gap between new workers' expectations and the realities of compensation (Brown et al., 2014). In addition, T&H educators should tell their students about the various benefits of engaging in the industry, including opportunities to visit many destinations on familiarisation trips and special staff discounts for their own leisure travel.

With regard to H4, differences in T&H career intentions are not significant with regard to perceptions of T&H gender equality in employment opportunities. It is possible that T&H students lack sufficient facts about T&H gender equality, as 49.3% of all students total chose neither agree nor disagree for gender equality, and 8.2% of students with T&H career intentions also chose neither agree nor disagree. Of the 26.0% of students with T&H career intentions, this proportion represented the joint highest percentage at 8.2%, suggesting that educators should include the topic of T&H gender equality in their lectures, especially since many researchers have reported that the majority of T&H students are female (Wan & Kong, 2011; Wan et al., 2014). Specifically, educators should emphasise the fact that many females play indispensable roles in management positions in the T&H industry, including cabin attendants, airline check-in staff, guides on tour buses, and staff at travel agencies. This kind of information may be necessary in influencing skilled and knowledgeable T&H students with insufficient facts about working conditions and gender equality to choose the T&H industry as their career option.

It seems, then, that two-year colleges in Japan should actively include relevant information about issues such as working hours, compensation, and gender equality in T&H lectures in order to encourage students with T&H career intentions to actually seek employment opportunities in the industry. Although T&H companies and organisations in Japan do not prioritise the hiring of T&H

students, nor do they require T&H qualifications or related degrees, students who have acquired T&H skills, knowledge, and experience can contribute enormously to the growth of the industry in Japan. It follows that T&H educators have a significant responsibility to provide their students with relevant skills, knowledge, experience, and factual information about the T&H industry.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has assessed the outcomes of T&H lectures at a two-year college in Japan from the perspective of T&H students' career intentions and their understanding of working conditions and gender equality in the T&H industry. Students studying T&H at Tokai University Fukuoka Junior College (TUFJC), in Japan were quantitatively surveyed in January 2013, July 2013, and July 2014. Of 85 respondents, only those without missing values (73) were used for the data analysis. Of these, 74.0% were female, and 98.7% were aged from 18 to 24. The Kruskal- Wallis test was used to analyse whether values were the same between different groups. This analysis identified relationships between students based on (1) their T&H career intentions (Yes, No, Entering a 4-year university or studying abroad, and Unknown); (2) their actions seeking T&H employment; and (3) their expected compensation. The results indicate that those students with T&H career intentions seek T&H employment opportunities while students without T&H career intentions will not seek those employment opportunities. For this reason, T&H educators must make an effort to position the T&H industry as T&H students' second or third career option where students do not have T&H career intentions. T&H students with such career intentions hold them regardless of their expectations of high or low compensation. They do not seem to prioritise compensation or to understand actual working conditions in the T&H industry. A majority of T&H students expect work-related information during their lectures, regardless of their career intentions. Perceptions of gender equality in the industry did not influence their career intentions, and providing positive information on this issue may encourage them to choose a career in the T&H industry.

In summary, these findings suggest which issues T&H educators should consider when planning their lectures. First, these lectures should encourage students without T&H career intentions to consider the attractions and advantages of various T&H careers, which would also be of help to students already considering the T&H industry as one of their career options. From the industry's perspective, students with T&H knowledge and skills are more likely to contribute to the industry from the beginning of their career. Second, T&H educators should take care to provide factual information about T&H working conditions and employment opportunities. This would increase T&H students' exposure to various employment conditions, so helping to minimise any gaps between their expectations and the reality they experience on entering the industry, and to increase the early career retention rate. Finally, it would seem important to inform T&H students (especially female students) about issues related to gender equality, and about the numerous positions in which female staff are effective and essential to the industry. It is of particular importance to effectively motivate female students to engage in the industry since a majority of T&H students tend to be female.
Among the limitations of this study, it did not investigate specific activities and topics in T&H lectures that might encourage students to engage in the industry, and this will be examined in future research. In addition, collaboration between T&H educators and the industry was not included here, even though both play an important role in ensuring that students have accurate perceptions of what it is like to work in the industry. Furthermore, the validity of generalising the results from this study to all or most T&H faculties and departments in Japan is dubious because  only a limited number of samples could be analysed over two years and was confined to a two-year Japanese college. Additional perspectives from more universities should be included in future research; in particular, data from a wider range of T&H faculties and departments in Japan should be included in order to obtain more valid and generalisable results.

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# LABOR AND SKILL SHORTAGE CRISES: THE EFFECTS OF EMPLOYEE'S ATTITUDE AND JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACTS

The main aim for this conceptual paper is to discuss "what are the significant components that links between hotel employee's attitudes and job satisfaction? The literature revealed that there are five main components that influence hotel employee's job satisfaction. Firstly, individual traits, human resources, overall organization image and overall attitudes. As consequences, the paper provide proactive strategic planning for preventing labour and skill shortage crises by crating job satisfaction or employee. Furthermore, developing job characteristics aspect would be beneficial in determining the hospitality industry to develop positive attitudes, demonstrate the importance of not merely the effects of job characteristics on job satisfaction, but the effects on organizational, consumer and themselves. Job satisfaction will solve the dilemma between employee job acceptances and fulfill employer requirement, in turn preventing turnover intention. The paper also provide future research and some important recommendations.

Key words: labour and skill shortage crisis; job satisfaction; employee attitude; hotel job characteristics

INTRODUCTION

The crisis issue on labor and skill shortage is not new and it is continue to be a major problem within the hotel and tourism industry. In fact, hoteliers worldwide has been experiencing since 1990 and to date it has been predicted and discussed extensively (T. Baum, 2007; J. Chan, 2001; Choi, Woods, & Murrmann, 2000; Dainty, Ison, & Root, 2004; Esichaikul & Baum, 1998; Huyton, 1996; Liu & Wall, 2006; Lockwood & Guerrier, 1990; Sharpley & Forster, 2003). For instance, Richardson (2009) asserts that the tourism and hospitality industry worldwide, one particularly in Australia has been facing with the issue of retaining quality and attracting employees that cause shortfall of skilled. The recent major problem might be caused by the rapid growing of economic and has led to all industries facing with a lack of qualify workers (Choi et al., 2000; Kaplan, 2004).

The hotel industry is one of the fastest growing industries and commonly used as a tool to stimulate marginal economic to the city or country (Liu & Wall, 2006). An ongoing crisis labor and skill shortage is a top priority issue that needs to be resolved because it helps to sustain competitive advantage for a new coming economic environment. The travel and tourism industry generally includes those job with direct contact with visitors, including hotels, airlines, restaurant, retail and tourist guides or tour operator (Kaplan, 2004). As argued by Liu and Wall (2006) hotel and tourism sector has a high need for human capital and it is essential for economic endeavor to maximize benefit to avoid labor and skill shortage crisis. Product and service quality in competitive edge need to have sufficient focus on resources skill development for the industry (Kaplan, 2004).

A number of factors which help to improve the shortfall of a labor and skills within the hotel

industry have been discussed by several scholars, these included the works by Esichaikul & Baum, (1998); Liu & Wall (2006) and Richardson (2009). For instance, Esichaikul & Baum (1998) said that, it needs to build more hotel and tourism education institute with sufficient resources and funding, as it prove that staffs that have low level of education will have semi-skilled or unskilled and cause a lacks qualified managerial staff (Esichaikul & Baum, 1998; Liu & Wall, 2006; Richardson, 2009). Additionally, the industry needs to place a training program consistently because an untrained staff will cause major problem for skill shortage. For example, Thailand has enough manpower, but experiencing a shortage of trained personnel to fill the jobs with professionalism (Esichaikul & Baum, 1998; Liu & Wall, 2006). As support by Cheng and Brown (1998) job- related skills are crucial component by training in the suggest contents, such as languages, quality management, health stress handling and telephone etiquette. The rapid growth of the industry also leads to an imbalance between supply and demand and the institute must provide sufficient knowledge to a student in responses to a hotel marketing high demand. At the same time the quality and professionalism instructor must be well developed to suit with the increasing number of students who need to be educated and trained by the experts (Esichaikul & Baum, 1998; Richardson, 2009). Similarly, the employers must realize that training is one of the most essential tools to solve skill shortage by developing an internal training program extensively and consistently.

More importantly, the employee positive attitudes towards the hotel industry relative important, for example the internship student who have to complete their study program refuse to work due to number of extrinsic factors, such as poor working conditions, lack of promotion and create less committed to the hospitality industry (Teng, 2008). Hence, potentially competitive wage market significantly impact labor turnover, staff retention, in turn help to mitigate labor and skill shortage (Cheng & Brown, 1998).

As delineated above, many factors contribute to overcome labor and skill shortage crisis especially; increasing institution within a hotel management program; training and developing a new skill; producing hotel management instructors or professional in specific skill, for instance Chef, Financial/Accounting. Particularly, employee positive attitude toward a hotel organization is one crucial factors that help to retain staff to work within the work force (Kirk, 1998; Teng, 2008). Attitude is an individual's feeling of the favorableness or un- favorableness of his/her performance of the behavior (Lam, Cho, & Qu, 2005, p. 54).

Thus, a priority challenge for the global hotel and tourism industry is to overcome a critical crisis of labor and skill shortage by improving employee's attitudes and creating job satisfaction. To date among several past studies many focused on employee attitude or tourists' satisfaction or the relationship between employee personality and attitudes or service attitudes (E. C. Chan & Hawkins, 2010; Huyton, 1996; Kuo, 2007; C. M. Kuo, 2009; Larsen & Bastiansen, 1992; Sharpley & Forster, 2003; Teng, 2008). It can included the work carried out by: Sharpley & Forster (2003) and Chan and Hawkins (2010) and Huyton (1996), Mard (2003) and Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000). For instance, a study presented by Sharpley and Forster (2003) determine to explore the implication of hotel employee attitudes for the development of quality tourism. While Chan and Hawkins (2010) emphasized on the relationship of employee attitude from adopting IT into the work place. Huyton (1996) carried out a study on employee perceptions of the hotel within the people's republic of China. Mard (2003) emphasis on management attitudes and perceptions of older employees in hospitality management. In terms of satisfaction, Lam, Zhang, & Baum (2001) study on employee's job satisfaction towards job aspects and their socio-demographic. Specifically, a study by Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000) focused on perception and attitude of undergraduate tourism student towards working in the tourism industry in Turkey.

Despite a study of employee attitudes have been extensively discussed, but very little pay attention to draw out relationship between attitudes on job characteristics and job satisfaction, hence this study determines to bridge this gap (E. C. Chan & Hawkins, 2010; Eccles, 1997; Godfrey, 1998; Holjevac, 2008; Kirk, 1998; Kuo, 2007; C. M. Kuo, 2009; C.M. Kuo, 2009; Kusluvan, 2003; Larsen & Bastiansen, 1992; Lee & Tideswell, 2005; Moutinho, 1987; Sharpley & Forster, 2003). It is

imperative to create job satisfaction by developing employees' positive attitude towards hotel because it is essential aspects that help staff retention, reduce staff turnover, eventually solving labor and skill shortage crisis. As results, positive attitudes create job satisfaction and reduce staff turnover respectively (E. C. Chan & Hawkins, 2010; Kirk, 1998; Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001).

The main aim for this conceptual paper is to discuss "what are the significant components that links from hotel employee's attitudes to job satisfaction? The service industry has unique characteristics; especially an unavoidable direct face to face with customers and it need highly services skills in driven company goal and objectives success.

As consequence, employee attitude toward service industry is a major aspects to improve service quality because customers are always expect high and they judge an entity's overall performance (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988, p. 15). For example, Chan (2001) argued that a significant numbers of hotel and tourism graduates lack of right attitude. Hence, it is extremely crucial for this study to seek for the relationship between employee's attitude and job satisfaction, the outcomes of this study can use to improve quality of products and service, the management training program to be use as guidelines within the hospitality industry (Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002). As supported by several researchers, including; Cheng and Brown (1998), Jones and Pizam (1993) and Kaplan (2004): the role of service skills development is a key advance to achieve the success of the hotel and tourism industry, especially in a developing countries. Kaplan (2004) proves that a lack of labor and skillful staff within a service industry cause a major problem, such as the unsuccessful from attempting to spread the economic benefit of the industry to city or country. In brief, service quality is a heart of the hotel industry; to improve employee's attitudes will certainly provide an effective strategy in creating job satisfaction, resulting such as preventing employee high turnover. Hence, to improve employee right attitude toward their job will certainly help in resolving labor and skills shortages crisis.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The effects of employee's attitude and job satisfaction covers five important components, namely: individual traits: HR management, organization perception and overall attitudes. The past researches present by, Sharpley & Forster (2003); Richardson (2010), Chan & Hawkins (2010), Moutinho (1987) and (Lam et al., 2002) underpins this study. The first components explains employee individual traits, this particularly component concerns industry-person congeniality. For instance, personality and character fits well with the types of jobs available in the industry; believe that they will get an opportunity to use their skills and abilities working in the industry; pleasure working in the industry; will work after graduation. Second component, human resources management, this component covers the attitudes toward; pay-fringes/benefits; promotion; sense of empowerment; manager; co-worker; job conditional and training. Third component, refers to overall organization image, the attitudes toward; job security and prospects; commitment to the industry and nature of work within the hotel industry. Fourth component, refer to the overall attitudes towards the organization based on three components; cognitive (believe, opinion), affective (feeling, emotion) and conative (predisposition, favorable or unfavorable) (Moutinho, 1987). Finally, job satisfaction, this can be examination of employee's attitude towards hotel job characteristic and employee satisfaction, consequently it helps to perceive the imperative factor in resolving labor skill shortage crisis respectively. Particularly, help to reduce turnover, staff retention, improve skills and knowledge, developing hotel management training program and hotel image (see Figure 1).

RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This paper aims to discuss "what are the significant components links between hotel employee's attitudes and job satisfaction? It can be conclude that future research should aim to explore four main contents, especially, the objective of the research are to: firstly, to discover the implications of employee's personal traits and job satisfaction. Secondly, to discover the implications of employee's attitude on organization and job satisfaction. Thirdly, to discover the implications of employee's

attitude toward HR and job satisfaction. Fourthly, to discover the implications of employee's attitude toward customer and job satisfaction. Lastly, to discover the implications of the overall employee's attitude and job satisfaction.

**Employee Attitude toward Hotel**                    **Consequences**
**Job Characteristic**
**Individual Traits**
-Industry-Person
-Attitude toward consumer
-Education
**Human Resources**
-Pay/benefits
-Promotion
-Sense of empowerment
-Leadership
-Co-worker
-Job conditional                                       -Reduce turnover
-Training                                              -Staff retention
                        **Job Satisfaction**          -Improve skills and knowledge
**Overall Organizational Image**                       -Developing hotel management
-Perceived job security and                            training program
prospects                                              -Hotel image
-Commitment to industry
-Nature of work
-Co-worker
-Job conditional
-Training
**Overall Attitude**
-Cognitive-Believe, opinion
-Affective-Feeling, emotion
-Conative-Predisposition
(favorable or unfavorable)

Figure 1. Employee's Attitudes and Job Satisfaction Source: Developed for this study

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# AN ANALYSIS ON IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP PRACTICES ON EMPLOYEES' AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT IN RESTAURANT: A CASE STUDY IN NANNY'S PAVILLON IN JAKARTA

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ABSTRACT

As the job growth within foodservice industry continues to grow, the understanding of leadership practices becomes even more important because of changes which applied to the growth of the foodservice industry. The purpose of this study is to analyze the impact of leadership style both transformational and transactional on employees' affective commitment in an organization in the restaurant industry. Nanny's Pavillon restaurant in Jakarta is represent the sample of restaurant industry. The full range leadership models of transformational and transactional leadership style had been used as a theoretical framework of study. The Multi Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ-5X) was used to collect data and measure the characteristics of the leaders. The respondents were restaurant's employees in Nanny's Pavillon restaurant in Jakarta. The statistical technique consist of Structural Equation Model (SEM) by software AMOS was used. The result revealed the relationship of transformational and transactional leadership style that impact to employees' affective commitment. Based on the result, the transformational leadership style had positive relationship to employees' affective commitment but transactional leadership style did not.

Key words: affective commitment, leadership, transactional leadership transformational leadership

## INTRODUCTION

One of the greatest changes in economic growth on a global scale has occurred in the foodservice industry which has had a major impact on the job growth in many countries. In industrial nations such as United States, according to the National Restaurant Association (NRA), the growth of the restaurant industry in 2012 led a strong increase of jobs at 3.4 percent rate. This is the strongest increase in 17 years. The statistics indicates that the job growth is projected to surpass the overall economy by a full percentage-point. The restaurant industry was an engine of growth for the nation's employment recovery in 2012. The trend is expected to continue in 2013 (NRA, 2012). This trend is expected to continue not only in industrial countries but in many developing countries as well. As tourism grows rapidly, changes are applied to the growth of the foodservice industry in many developing countries

such as Indonesia. According to United Business Media (UBM), Indonesian food and beverage market has been growing significantly in the past years after recovering from the world recession, with the shift from agricultural economy to added-value processed food due to the buying process of the Indonesia working class. Due to global media influence and recent health issues, the younger generation has become more health-conscious and aware of the developments in the foodservice industry around the world. They are demanding quality food products, variety in food items, new cuisines and hygienic ambience from foodservice providers in the country. Moreover, imported food especially confectionary and dairy products and ethnic food ingredients from other countries such as Japan, Korea, France, and Italy, offered in modern retails, have been popular among the younger generation (UBM, 2011). Due to an increase in the level of awareness about international food, many restaurants offering only international cuisine have opened up in major cities across Indonesia. These restaurants satisfy the demand for a variety of food among the Indonesian population. Therefore, the number of Indonesian joining the workforce in the restaurant industry is increasing. The employees are not only coming from the major cities but also from the rural areas outside the major cities. The job growth within the restaurant industry indicates that management plays a role in an organization in order to be successful. Leaders are people who are perceived to manage their organizations to be dynamic and effectively responsive to changes over time. Leadership skills are important for the hospitality industry because the hospitality industry has a dynamic environment, a service orientation, and a labor-intensive nature (Kim & Hancer, 2011). Indeed, leadership style has a remarkable influence on employees' behavior in the customer service industry, where leadership style focuses on the behavior of the leaders rather than focusing on identifying personal characteristics of leaders (Kim & Hancer, 2011). For instance, transformational leadership style improves employee dedication, social behavior, role clarity, and satisfaction (Kim & Hancer, 2011). However, although different leadership styles can influence employees, little is known about the most appropriate leadership style in the restaurant industry. On the other hand, employees' emotional bond to their organization (i.e. their affective commitment [AC]) has been considered an important determinant of dedication and loyalty. Affectively committed employees are seen as having a sense of belonging and identification that increases their involvement in the organization's goals, and their desire to remain with the organization (Kim & Hancer, 2011). Indonesia is known as a multicultural country. It is very common that an organization has multicultural employees. For this matter, leaders have a challenge in preserving their employees' loyalty. It will be challenging because the restaurant industry is the busiest industry which having fluctuation time during working hours. The number of employees is vital therefore one of the challenge faced by leaders to preserve their employees' affective commitment. The interest in the influence of leadership on employees' affective commitment represents an alternative to the traditional focus on the leader as the center of attention and power. Although the qualities of leaders are obviously important, especially in teamwork in particular, leaders need the skills to engage followers in productive and satisfying mutual pursuits. It is true to say that not all leaders wish to be participative, understanding and wish to overcome such reluctance to involve followers. Not least as a source of resistance is the problem of shared responsibility and who will be accountable. It is on this background that this research work aims to analyze the extent to which leadership impacts on the productivity of the employees.

RESEARC PROBLEM

Due to an increase in the level of awareness about International food among the Indonesian population, many restaurants offer international cuisine followed by a new concept of ambience that reflects the cuisine. The trend indicates that management must work doubly in order to satisfy the customers. Traditionally, employees do the order-taking of customers and serving the meals. Nowadays, employees are expected to be knowledgeable about international cuisine and the Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) of operation systems as well. When this concern puts pressure on both leaders and employees, consequently, it affects their relationship in the organization. Managing Indonesian employees is not the same as managing foreign employees nor is it the same as managing other Asian employees. Due to the increasing degree of culturally diverse workforce, leaders should understand the importance of the values and actions of people working within multicultural organizations. Consequently, it is necessary to identify a specific style of leaders who

can lead employees from different cultures (Kim & Hancer, 2011). The major reason to analyze the impact of leadership style on employees' affective commitment in organizations of the restaurant industry is because the entrepreneurs believe Indonesian employees are peculiar. Consequently, it affects the business (Liem, 2008). Previous research has indicated restaurant employees' affective commitment is related to the leadership styles of their supervisors (Kim & Hancer, 2011). This phenomenon indicates there is a connection between the two variables and it brings positive effect in the restaurant industry. Based on the symptoms given, there are several research problems to be examined:

1. To identify whether the extent of leadership style: transformational influences employees' affective commitment.
2. To identify whether the extent of leadership style: transactional influences employees' affective commitment.

Research Purpose: The primary purpose of this research paper is to analyze the impact of leadership style both transformational and transactional on employees' affective commitment in an organization in the restaurant industry.

Significance of Study: The significance of this research work is that it would explore the impact of leadership on the affective commitment of employees in foodservice industry's organizations. This particular industry was chosen because of the rigor employees are made to go through in the industry in order to meet the targets of the management. This has affected the economics, social and private lives of the employees. It is intended to investigate whether employee performance is related to the leadership style adopted by the management. It is hoped that this study would contribute to the promotion of the existing frontier or boundary between human knowledge and strengthen the relationship between the management/employer and the employees in the foodservice industry in Indonesia.

Scope and Limitation: Due to time constraint and broad aspects in conducting the leadership style, there will be several limitation applied to this research. First, this study will be limited to analyze the data in a one month period. Second, the research will be limited to 8 outlets of Nanny's Pavillon in Jakarta. The Nanny's Pavillon is chosen because the restaurant has multicultural employees within the organization. It relates with the variable mentioned in the research background. Finally, the analysis will only examine the variables mentioned in the research purpose and research problem, without discussing further topics.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The main idea of this research is derived from the complexity of previous studies about leadership style. As this topic is one of the most widely researched topics, yet being one of the most misunderstood in terms of finding the common definition as well (Goussak & Webber, 2011). In addition, this topic relates to the hospitality industry which changes from time to time. A dynamic environment, a service orientation and a labor-intensive nature are the factors that indicate leadership skills as a necessity for the hospitality industry (Kim & Hancer, 2011). Previous researchers indicate leaders' performance has a strong correlation with the employees as a part of organization success. The process when a person is able to position strong influence to others in order to accomplish an objective and offer direction to the organization. Therefore, a leader is an important figure in an organization (Yavirach, 2012). Robbins and Judge (2011) defined leadership as the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals. While others defined leadership as a process through which individuals influence others in the organization to achieve their individual and organizational goals (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Numerous studies on leadership identify that leadership is very important for all organizations (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Organizations need strong leadership and strong management for optimal effectiveness (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Often researchers and practitioners are likely not differentiating between leadership and management. However, there are some key differences between leadership and management. Understanding these differences can be helpful for

organization improvement. Leadership is the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of goals (Robbins & Judge, 2011). A leader does not have to be someone who holds a formal position or title. They can emerge from a group and provide vision and motivation to those around them. Management defined as usage of authority inherent in designated formal rank to obtain compliance from organizational members (Robbins & Judge, 2011). Management deals with the complexity of the organization and works with planning, organizing, leading and controlling to bring about order and consistency in the organization. Even though the two roles have different areas of focus, both are necessary for organizational success.

Various Theories of Leadership: Further discussion on leadership, it is better to know about various theories of leadership. As leadership is very complex in its definition, Robbins and Judge (2011) divide the theory of leadership into four categories.

Trait Theories of Leadership: The trait theory of leadership focuses on personality, social, physical or intellectual traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Initially this theory was based on studies that looked at over 80 different traits, which allowed almost anything to be defined as leadership. A breakthrough occurred when researchers began to organize the traits into categories and this became known as the Big Five Personality Framework where five groups of traits were found to be consistently present among leaders. Some essential leadership traits include extroversion, conscientiousness, openness, and emotional intelligence (EI), although the link between EI and leadership has not been fully explored. With the many years of research dedicated to the trait theory of leadership, it is widely accepted that traits do predict leadership. However, it is more likely that they predict the emergence of a leader than the effectiveness of a leader.

Behavioral Theories of Leadership: In response to some disappointment with the trait theory, researchers began to look at defining leadership by how people behaved. This shifted the thinking on leadership from the belief that you could select leaders based on inborn traits to training leaders to behave in certain ways.

Contingency Theories of Leadership: While trait and behavior theories do help society understand leadership, an important component is missing - the environment in which the leader exists. It is important to understand the environment that the leader is in to fully understand leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the Contingency Theory takes the context in which the leader is operating into consideration and tries to isolate the conditions that allows for effective leadership. Although Fiedler's model with the LPC framework is the most researched contingency theory, it is important to look at a few other models. The Situational Leadership Theory offers a model that takes a look at the other side of the equation, the followers. The focus of this theory is on the readiness of the follower to follow. Each follower can decide for themselves whether they will accept or reject the leader. If the leader is to be effective, the followers choose to accomplish the task the leader has given them. The situational leadership theory looks at readiness and defines it as the extent to which people have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task.  A leader should choose one of four behaviors depending on follower readiness. If followers are unable and   unwilling to do a task, the leader needs to give clear and specific directions; if they are unable but willing, the leader needs to display high-task orientation to compensate for followers' lack of ability and high relationship orientation to get them to "buy into" the leader's desires. If followers are able but unwilling, the leader needs to use a supportive and participative style; if they are both able and willing, the leader does not need to do much.

Leadership Style
This study provides a focus on the impact of specific leadership style to employees' affective commitment. The foundation theory used is the theory of transformational leadership included in the Bass and Avolio's full range leadership model (FRLM). The FRLM consists of three levels of leadership style which are the transformational level includes four components, the transactional level includes two components, and the lowest level of the FRLM is the passive-avoidant non-leadership level (Goussak & Webber, 2011).

*Transformational leadership:* Transformational Leadership is one of the interesting leadership styles that is often discussed by researchers and practitioners. The shift in leadership paradigms began in the late 20th century focused on transforming ineffective leaders into effective leaders through the inspiration and motivation of followers (Goussak & Webber, 2011). Therefore, transformational leaders are believed have strong influence on the followers. Transformational leadership involves motivating others to move towards their own self-interests for the achieving the goals of the group and the organization and adopt new ways to success (Goussak & Webber, 2011). Robbins and Judge (2011) supported transformational leaders have ability to inspire followers to transcend their own self-interest for the good of the organization and can have an extraordinary effect on their followers. Transformational leadership is an embodiment of specific components such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual motivation and individualized consideration (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Idealized influence refers to charismatic actions by a leader. These actions are not solely to impress followers but its actions focused on values, beliefs and principles (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Charisma is believed to be the core to the transformational leadership process. The result is the followers have strong desire to put their faith on their leader in order achieving the same goals (Goussak & Webber, 2011). Inspirational motivation refers to actions or behavior of leaders to motivate followers seeking at the future in front of eyes optimistically by assigning new responsibilities as a necessity to achieve the same goals. The leaders must lift their spirit and communicate clear vision to the followers (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Intellectual stimulation refers to actions of leaders to stimulate their follower being creative and willing to take a risk as their challenge to solve problems (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Individualized consideration refers to actions of leaders as a figure-head to their follower for paying personal attention for each follower's need so that followers have a sense of being at home in the organization (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Idealized Influence: Goussak and Webber (2011) believe that charisma (idealized influence) is central to the transformational leadership process. The key to charismatic leading is the ability of leaders to influence their followers' acceptance of the organization's common vision. Charismatic leaders articulate that vision by establishing their individual creditability. Idealized influence is more than the admiration of one's followers based on the popularity or personality. Idealized leaders create an atmosphere of follower desire to emulate the leader because the leader shares in the tasks required for goal attainment and the risks associated with those same goals. This behavior establishes leadership credibility both internally and externally as all of the organization's stakeholders endow the leader with confidence and support. Goussak and Weber (2011) believed that idealized leaders become role models by establishing their expertise in guiding organization. Leaders develop a level of confidence within the organization by creating a consistent environment where leaders and followers equally share risk. Inspirational Motivation: Inspirational motivation refers to actions or behavior of leaders to motivate followers seeking at the future in front of eyes optimistically by assigning new responsibilities as a necessity to achieve the same goal (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Inspirational leaders expand their credibility by engaging their followers into accepting new responsibilities necessary for goal attainment. These responsibilities begin with a clear articulation of the organization's vision and follows closely with detailed communication of this vision. Intellectual Stimulation: Intellectual stimulation refers to actions of leaders to stimulate their followers being creative and willing to take a risk as their challenge to solve problems (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Intellectual stimulation uses influence and inspiration to entice creativity and innovation among followers. Transformational leaders encourage followers to integrate creativity and risk-taking as a part of problem solving process (Goussak & Webber, 2011). Individualized Consideration: Individualized consideration refers to actions of leaders as a figure-head to their followers for paying personal attention for each follower's need so that followers having sense of being at home in the organization (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Individual consideration focuses on the individual improvement of followers. Goussak and Webber (2011) equate the individual consideration component of transformational leadership to the contingency paradigm because leaders change styles based on individual needs of their followers.

*Transactional Leadership:* Transactional leadership does not mean as an opposite approach of

transformational leadership. Both styles complement each other, though they are not equally important (Robbins & Judge, 2011). The former research of transactional leaderships' study indicate that transactional leadership are those who sought to motivate followers by attracting or appealing to their self-interests. Transactional leadership is an embodiment of bureaucratic authority as well as legitimacy in the organization (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Transactional leaders are sort of leaders believe that to motivate their follower, they should follow the standard, assignments, and task based goals. They believe task completion, rewards and punishment system in the organization are the right actions for achieving individuals and organizations goals. Transactional leadership is an embodiment of specific components such as contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive). Contingent rewards refers to actions of leaders to encourage followers using the completion of tasks, in return followers will get rewards for their performance. Management by exception is actions of leaders to ensure followers meet predetermined standard. Management by exception (passive) means leaders only intervene when the standards are not met. Whereas management by exception (active) means leaders monitor the work of followers and actively doing performance appraisal (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Contingent Rewards: Contingent rewards refers to actions of leaders to encourage followers using the completion of tasks, in return followers will get rewards for their performance. But the performances should meet with the standards of the organization (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Management by Exception- Active: Management by exception-active means leaders monitor the work of followers and actively doing performance appraisal (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). There is no reason to make failures or if mistakes happen, it can be fixed soon. Management by Exception-Passive: Management by exception-passive means leaders only intervene when standards are not met (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Leaders only react when failures happen in the process of goal achievement. A transactional leader will give warning and punishment to the followers who make the failures. However, if there are no failures happen, leaders do not give evaluation to the followers (Aprilita & Andriyani, 2012). Leadership and Affective Commitment: Organizational commitment is widely described in the management and behavioral sciences literature as a key factor in the relationship between individuals and organizations (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). Organizational commitment is defined as a situation in which an individual identifies with an organization and its goals and wishes to maintain in order to reach these goals (Kim & Hancer, 2011). Organizational commitment is an important element to increase the ties between individuals and organizations (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). There are a number of definitions about organizational commitment done by researchers. All of them refer to one point that organizational commitment unites individuals in an organization. Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood and Ishaque (2012) acknowledge the concrete and popular definition of organizational commitment. It is defined as a multi-dimensional approach based on three facets: (1) affective commitment as "an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement within the organization", (2) continuance commitment as "commitment based on the costs level of leaving the organization", (3) normative commitment as 'an employees' feelings and sense of obligation to stay and remain within the organization" (Yiing & Bin Ahmad, 2009). The study selected affective organizational commitment because the form of commitment are likely represent employees' attitude in a way the organization have cultural diversity. Moreover, affective commitment is hoped to be an important element to engage employees in the organization. An empirical study indicates findings that employees' affective commitment in foodservice organization was positively related to their job performance (Kim & Hancer, 2011). Because of the positive results, affective commitment is hoped to overcome the problems faced by restaurants' management. Meanwhile, there are countless researches about the leadership style can influence employees' organizational commitment. For example Kim and Hancer (2011) found that restaurant employees' affective commitment is related to the leadership styles of their supervisors. Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood and Ishaque (2012) found that both transformational and transactional leadership have positive relationship with the organizational commitment. Based on the previous research, it is reasonable to assume that there is a correlation between leadership and affective commitment and expecting that a specific leadership style can enhance affective commitment among employees in the organization.

*Restaurant in Indonesia*

According to Syavriani (2009), the word "restaurant" comes from the French word "restaurer" which is defined as an establishment that provides foods. Further definition of restaurant is an establishment that is well-organized commercially providing any type of food such as appetizers, main courses, and desserts combined with a good service to the customer. In the matter of business, restaurants are established in population generators such as office buildings, shopping malls, tourist attractions and also free-standing restaurant as well (Immanuel, 2013). Furthermore, according to (Syavriani, 2009), restaurant business is not solely providing foods and good service but also includes the technical things such as producing equipment and raw materials, quality control for materials and productions, standardization of recipes and processes. Moreover, this business is seriously related with laws that specifically regarding licenses of promotion, halal – strictly concerning in Indonesia - certification, publicity, labor, restaurant décor, identity and uniqueness of the particular restaurant, price calculation and level of food waste, pricing strategies and other licenses (Immanuel, 2013).

Classification of Restaurant:

There are 7 types of restaurants in Indonesia (Immanuel, 2013), consisting of:

1.      A La Carte Restaurant: Identified as a restaurant that allows customers to order the food based on what they choose which is written in a menu provided by the restaurant. All foods on the menu already have a fixed price that is set by the restaurant.
2.      Table d'Hote Restaurant: Identified as a restaurant which offers foods in a set menu with appetizer, main course to dessert. The price is fixed and the chosen of foods are limited. All this policy established by the restaurant in advance.
3.      Cafetaria (Café): Identified as a restaurant that prioritizes in selection of various cakes, breads, pastries,   also coffee and tea. The availability of foods provided is limited and this type of restaurant does not provide alcoholic beverages.
4.      Inn Tavern: Identified as a restaurant that provides various food at affordable prices. Usually, this type of restaurant established in suburb areas. The atmosphere is created like "feel-at-home" atmosphere so the customers feel comfortable during eating. The selection of foods is similar with home-made foods.
5.      Snack Bar and/or Milk Bar: Identified as a fast food restaurant and the foods are consist of hamburgers, sandwiches, French fries, fried chicken, rise and noodles.
6.      Specialty Restaurant: Identified as a restaurant that provides specific ethnic cuisines. For example, European, Chinese, Japanese and Indonesian cuisine. The uniqueness of this type of restaurant is the presentation of the food and the service style. The service style represents the custom of dining manner in particular nations. The restaurants' concept is unique as well. Its concept can be recognized easily from the décor and atmosphere. In addition, the waiters' uniform has their theme so these restaurants are quite recognizable.
7.      Family Restaurant: Identified as a restaurant that focuses on the family and group customers.

*Research Model*

A research model is defined as a proposed model to describe the overall framework of thinking that indicates the correlation between the variable to be studied, the theory used to formulate hypotheses, the type and number of hypotheses, and statistical analysis techniques to be used. On the basis of theoretical background the following proposed research model is developed.

Figure 1: Research model
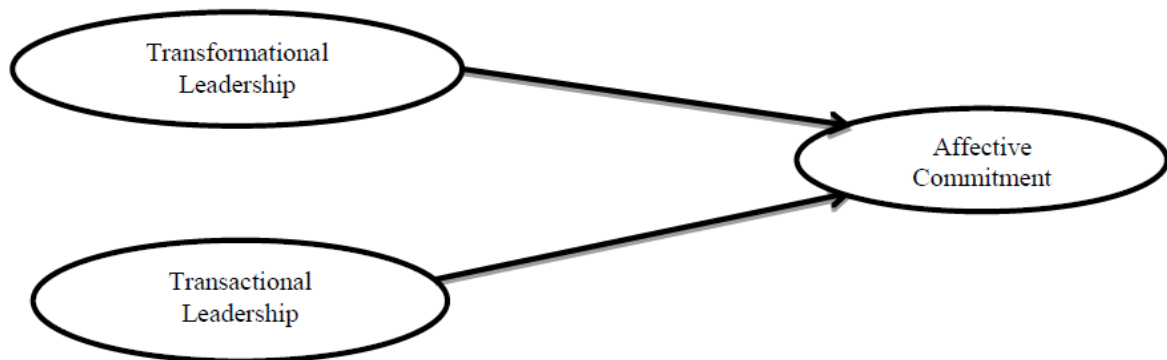


Based on the research purposes and the proposed research model, this research is defined as the quantitative research, which is defined as a systematic process in which numerical data are used to obtain results and findings. Both primary and secondary data is used in order to complete this research study (Rehman, Shareef, Mahmood, & Ishaque, 2012). The quantitative research focuses on variables to be studied, examines the correlation among these variables, and determines cause-and-effect interactions between variables.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis # 1: H1-1: There is a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' affective commitment.

Hypothesis # 2: H2-1: There is a positive and significant relationship between transactional leadership style and employees' affective commitment.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

*Company Overview*

The Nanny's Pavillon restaurant was established on March 23rd 2009. The restaurant first opened its doors in Bandung, Indonesia. The inspiration behind this restaurant's chain came from a family tradition of the owner who often holds family gatherings every two months. Each family member brings their own favorite recipes that will be prepared by their nanny and they will enjoy the meal in their pavillon (in French). Because of the delightful recipe, the owner felt the urge to share them with other people. Thus the owner decides to open a French-American restaurant called Nanny's Pavillon. The restaurants hand drawn menus are filled with menus named after the owner's family and relatives such as Mom's Green Spaghetti, Smoked Brisket Spaghetti from My Uncle, Dad's Fries and Aunties Sausage Baked Rice. The tradition of French-American family is strongly followed by Nanny's Pavillon, therefore the routine reflects on warmth, cozy and intimate ambiance.
Initially, the capacity seats was 50 seats. Now, it has branches located in Bandung, Jakarta and Bali. As this study focuses only in outlets in Jakarta, recently, the restaurant has 8 outlets in Jakarta with different unique concepts in each outlet.

*Respondent Profile*

The input regarding the impact of leadership to the employees' affective commitment in Nanny's Pavillon, Jakarta has been collected from distribution of questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents by direct approach in each outlet. The respondents were the operational employees of All Nannys Pavillon in Jakarta. There were 132 respondents participated in this survey, which was completed within 14 days.

The respondents are employees in the head quarter's office and each outlet Nanny's Pavillon in Jakarta.

*Gender:* From the total 132 respondents, 79 of them were male and 53 were female.

*Age Composition*: From the total 132 respondents, 22 of them are between 18 and 20 years, 122 of them are between 21 and 30 years, and 9 of them are between 31 and 40 years.

*Education:* From the total 132 respondents, 6 of them pursued until junior high school or equivalent, 108 of them pursued until senior high school or equivalent, and 18 of them pursued until bachelor degree.

*Work Experience:* From the total 132 respondents, 67 of them had been working less than one year, 52 of them had been working around 1 to 3 years, and 13 of them had been working more than 3 year.

*Division in the Workplace:* From the total 132 respondents, 62 of them are in the service area, 56 of them are in the kitchen area, and 14 of them are working in the management office.

Marital Status: From the total 132 respondents, 48 of them were married and 84 of them were single.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

|  | N | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|
| TRANSFR | 132 | 3.61 | .706 |
| TRANSAC | 132 | 2.95 | .356 |
| AC | 132 | 3.50 | .586 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 132 |  |  |

Source: Data Processing Result

a. *Transformational Leadership*

Based on the above table, the respondent's appraisal on the transformational leadership variable with the average of answer is 3.61. Based on the result, the current leadership style used by their leaders in the organization which represent the transformational leadership style is accepted by the respondents. The respondents as employees understand that the way their leaders lead them in the organization because the leaders value the people in the organization. Therefore, a leader must be an inspiration and have a clear vision in order to keep the people as a part of the organization.

b. *Transactional Leadership*

Based on the above table, the respondent's appraisal on the transactional leadership variable with the average of answer is 2.95. Based on the result, the transactional leadership style used by their leaders is slightly accepted by the respondents as well. The respondents as employees understand that in order to be success, the leaders motivate the employees through the standard obedient, assignments, and task based goals. If the employees can fulfill the requirements, the leaders guarantee them with rewards. The opposite, if the employees do not accomplish the requirement, the leaders give them punishment for them. Compared with transformational leadership style, the leaders tend to be passive with the employees. So they are likely less valuing their people in the organization.

c. *Affective Commitment*

Based on the above table, the respondent's appraisal on the affective commitment variable with the average of answer is 3.51. Based on the result, the respondents have desire to remain as a part of the organization because the organization values them. It is also due to the leadership style of their leaders so the form of affective commitment becomes an important element to engage employees in the organization.

*Structural Equation Model (SEM) Analysis*

Table 2: The Result of Goodness-of-Fit Model

| Goodness-of-Fit | Standard Ratio | Index | Result |
|---|---|---|---|
| GFI | Close to 1 | 0.640 | Good Fit |
| CFI | Close to 1 | 0.541 | Good Fit |

Source: Data Processing Result

Based on the above table, the result shows the model has meet with the Goodness-of-Fit criteria. The model stated as fit based on the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) which is the better value close to 1 indicating the model nearly fit. The model also stated as fit based on the Comparative of Fit Index (CFI) which is the better value close to 1 indicating the model nearly fit as well.

Figure 2: Structural Equation Model (SEM) Diagram after Standardized Estimates
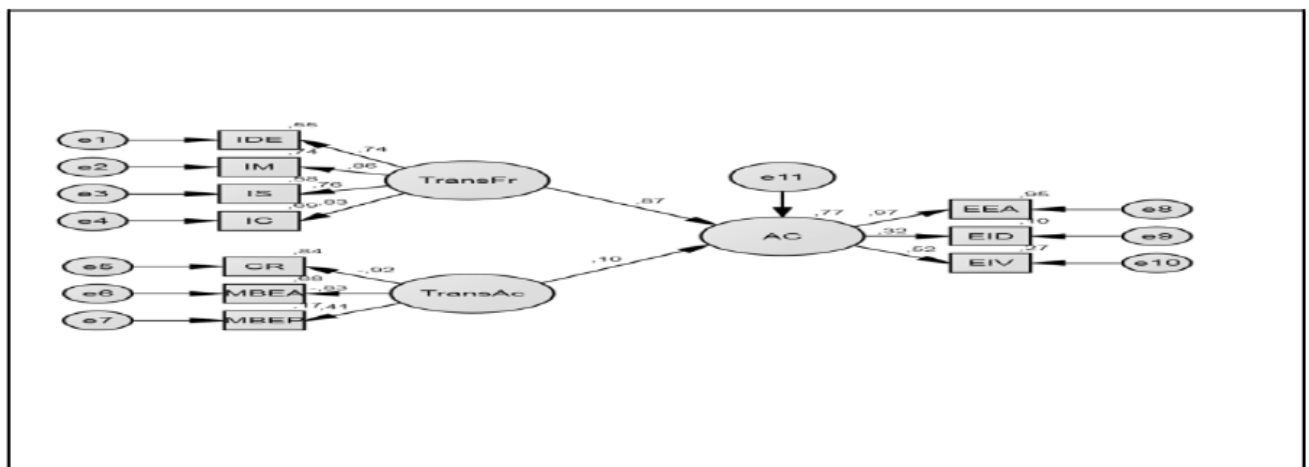


Source: Data Processing Result

Table 3: The Hypotheses Result

| Variables | | | Estimate | S.E. | C.R. | P value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AC | <--- | TransFr | ,665 | ,105 | 6,355 | *** |
| AC | <--- | TransAc | ,185 | ,249 | ,742 | ,458 |

Regression Weight Table
Source: Data Processing Result

Based on the above regression weight table, the transformational leadership variable had significant impact to employees' affective commitment variable since the p-value (probability) is less than 0.05. Whereas, the transactional leadership variable had no significant impact to employees' affective commitment since the p-value (probability) is more than 0.05 which is 0.458

Table 4. Hypothesis Results

| Hyps | Variables | | | Total Effect | Result |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $H_1$ | Transformational Leadership | → | Affective Commitment | 0.873 | $H_{1-1}$ is accepted |
| $H_2$ | Transactional Leadership | → | Affective Commitment | 0.102 | $H_{2-0}$ is accepted |

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Hypothesis # 1: H1-1: There is a positive and significant relationship between transformational leadership style and employees' affective commitment. From the model found that transformational leadership had positive total effect which is 0.873 to employees' affective commitment. As the regression weight table revealed the p-value less than 0.05, thus the transformational leadership had strongly positive and significant relationship to employees' affective commitment so the H1-1 is accepted and the H1-0 is rejected.

Hypothesis # 2: H2-1: There is a positive and signifcant relationship between transactional leadership style and employees' affective commitment. From the model found that transactional leadership had slightly positive total effect which is 0.102 to employees' affective commitment. As the regression weight table revealed the p-value more than 0.05, thus the transactional leadership had no positive and significant relationship to employees' affective commitment so the H2-1 is rejected and the H2-0 is accepted.

*Discussion of Hypotheses Testing*

AMOS program has shown the hypothesis testing result of the variables to be studied in this research. Based on the hypothesis testing result, from two independent variables used, only transformational leadership variable had positive and significant relationship to employees' affective commitment. The following discussion about the variables to be studied in this research: Hypothesis # 1: The first hypothesis testing result revealed that transformational leadership style had positive and significant relationship to employees' affective commitment. Consistent with the existing research findings by Kim & Hancer (2011), leadership style is positively related to the employees' affective commitment in the restaurant industry. Although the variable of leadership style is different, however, the content of indicators remains similar. In the previous research, Kim & Hancer (2011) used participative and supportive leadership style as the variables to be studied. The indicators remain similar with the transformational leadership style that is used by the researcher of this study. Hypothesis # 2: The second hypothesis testing result revealed that transactional leadership style had no positive and significant relationship to employees' affective commitment. In the previous research, Kim & Hancer (2011) used instrumental leadership style as the variables to be studied. The indicators remain similar with the transactional leadership style that is used by the researcher of this study. In the previous findings, the instrumental leadership style has no positive relationship with the affective commitment. So the finding in this research remains consistent with the previous research.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusion: Based on the findings, leadership style has been found to have a positive relationship with employees' affective commitment. The findings which support the primary assumption of this study: restaurant employees' affective commitment is related to the leadership of their leaders. Interestingly, transformational leadership style has effects on employees' affective commitment but transactional leadership style does not. Relationship between leadership style and employees' affective commitment in Nanny's Pavillon restaurant in Jakarta has been conducted using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) approach by means of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The final model is nearly fit in terms of goodness-of-fit indicators, indicating a very credible leadership style and affective commitment model of construct. Based on the result, transformational leadership style found higher correlation with the dependent variable than transactional leadership style. Consistent with the existing research findings, the researcher has found that transformational leadership style had a positive and significant relationship with the employees' affective commitment. While, transactional leadership style had no positive and significant relationship with the employees' affective commitment. According to the findings in chapter 4, the restaurant's employees prefer their leaders to be transformational leader because they want to be considered valuable in the organization so that the desire to be part of the organization become strengthened. The findings also outline the restaurant's employees are pleasant following their leaders with transformational leadership style than transactional leadership style. As the employees are rigor, they cannot work well with that type

of leaders with transactional leadership style. The findings suggest that restaurant leaders should keep their performance as a leader with transformational leadership style. For example, leaders should be sympathetic and considerate of their employees' needs.

Recommendation: As the researcher mentioned earlier about the limitations in this research, the following recommendations should be taken into consideration for further research in the future. The first limitation to the study is the use of a convenience sample of respondents who decided to participate in the survey. Self-selection could result in a non-representative sampling bias. Moreover, there are no studies conducted in Indonesia related with the variables to be studied in this research. As the employees of Nanny's Pavillon restaurant selected by the researcher as the field of study, the sample is not sufficient enough to represent the population in the restaurant industry. Consider that there are many restaurants' classification, it is recommended to choose more restaurant that represent the population. Second, the limited amount of variables to be studied precluded the effective use of structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis. Therefore, it is recommended to consider more variables to be studied for further research in the future.

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# WORK-LEISURE CONFLICT AND LEISURE OUTCOMES: ROLE OF FREE TIME MANAGEMENT

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## ABSTRACT

The concept of work-leisure conflict in personal life generates a negative behavior and outcomes. However, to date, no study has explicitly focused on the consequences of such work-leisure conflict. This study extends the multiple concepts of work-leisure conflict, tries to fund out those variables that related work, leisure, and individual are the consequences of the work-leisure conflict in personal life. This study revealed that social support has moderating effects on the relationships among work-leisure conflict, leisure satisfaction, health and well-being. SEM analysis of 418 valid questionnaires collected from a sample of employees in the high-tech industry showed that (1) WLC negatively affects leisure satisfaction, health and well-being; (2) Free time management positively affects leisure satisfaction, health and well-being (3) free time management is a moderator in the full model. The analytical results of the study provide a reference for managing employees in the hospitality and tourism industries. In this regard, this study is designed both to respond to recent calls for further research into these issues and to fill this gap in extant knowledge. The article concludes with a series of implications.

Key words: Work-leisure conflict, Leisure outcomes, free time management

## INTRODUCTION

Individuals are frequently confronted with situations in which they are required to play a role that conflicts with their value systems, play two or more roles that conflict with each other or cope with incompatible expectations from one or more role senders. (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964). When work- and leisure-related roles are restricted by the time and energy of the individual, they consequently conflict or compete with each other. This is the so-called work-leisure conflict (WLC). Work-to-leisure conflict was defined as a form of role conflict in which the work role dominates other roles in life because of work demands, with a consequent decrease in time, energy, and opportunity for leisure (Wong & Lin, 2007). Tsaur, Liang, and Hsu (2012) proposed that WLC comprises two dimensions, namely, work interference with leisure (WIL) and leisure interference with work (LIW). Although previous studies have already identified the potential antecedents of WLC (Lin, Wong, & Ho, 2013; Lin, Wong, & Ho, 2014), few have clearly explained the possible impact that WLC has on the individual. Thus, the causal relationship between WLC and the individual is a noteworthy topic of discussion.

In context of the WIL dimension, one of the primary objectives of leisure is relaxation. However, when individuals transfer their work pressure and tense emotions into their leisure activities, WIL is generated, which hinders individuals from satisfying their demand for relaxation. Thus, when individuals are confronted with WIL situations, their leisure satisfaction may be reduced. In addition, Lin et al. (2013) asserted that the individual perception of freedom is a fundamental human need, and is essential to a sense of well-being. Because multiple roles may compete for an individual's time, time allocation is an important factor in the emergence of conflict (Tsaur et al., 2012). In summary, the occurrence of WIL reduces the sense of freedom and the participatory opportunity perceived by individuals, hindering them from achieving their goals of relaxation and pressure adjustment when participating in leisure activities, thereby negatively impacting their health and sense of well-being. The article will draw out important managerial implications.

A literature review on role conflicts showed that WLC may negatively impact leisure and health. Subsequently, by observing the theoretical development of WLC, a necessity to investigate WL outcomes from a leisure perspective was identified. Therefore, the present study endeavoured to investigate the relationships between the WLC of high-tech personnel and their leisure satisfaction, health, and well-being. In addition, the present study included free-time management as a moderator to verify how free-time management facilitates high-tech personnel in processing the conflict between their work and leisure roles. The findings obtained in the present study can be provided to high-tech personnel as free time planning and management strategies to effectively achieve work-leisure balance, and as management strategies to organisations, which can then be used as resources to support their personnel, thereby reducing stress and role conflicts.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS

Work-leisure conflict

The concept of work-leisure conflict emerges from Zuzanek and Mannell's (1983) perspectives. For example, the socio-economic perspective is primarily economic and explores trade-offs and choices individuals make between work and leisure. The interrole conflicts in which the role pressures from the work and leisure domains are mutually incompatible and make work-leisure conflict research important. Tsaur et al. (2012) defined WLC as a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from work and leisure domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. WLC comprises two dimensions, namely, work interference with leisure (WIL) and leisure interference with work (LIW), as well as three forms of work-leisure conflict: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflicts. By combining these two WLC dimensions and three conflict types, a total of six constructs were obtained, specifically, time-based WIL, time-based LIW, strain-based WIL, strain-based LIW, behaviour-based WIL, and behaviour-based LIW (Tsaur et al., 2012). Time-based WIL is defined as an excessive amount of time devoted to the work role, which consequently creates difficulties for individuals in fulfilling their leisure role requirements, and vice versa for time-based LIW. Strain-based WIL is defined as the excessive strain produced by the work role, which consequently creates difficulties for individuals in fulfilling their leisure role requirements, and vice versa for strain-based LIW. Behaviour-based WIL is defined as the behaviour required in the work role, which consequently creates difficulties for individuals in fulfilling their leisure role requirements, and vice versa for behaviour-based LIW (Tsaur et al., 2012).

Time-based WLC occurs when the time devoted to the work (or leisure) role creates difficulties for individuals in fulfilling their leisure (or work) role requirements (Tsaur et al., 2012). Because multiple roles may compete for an individual's time, time allocation is an important factor in the emergence of conflict (Tsaur et al., 2012). Typically, individuals that assume a role in the work (or leisure) domain are unable to simultaneously assume another role in the leisure (or work) domain, resulting in time-based WLC (Tsaur et al., 2012). Strain-based WLC occurs when the excessive strain produced by the work (or leisure) role creates difficulties for individuals in fulfilling their leisure (or work) role requirements (Tsaur et al., 2012) and strain-based conflicts occur when strain in one role affects the performance of another (Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980). When individuals perceive an incompatibility

between the two roles they play, the strain of one role creates difficulties that hinder them from complying with the demands of the other (Tsaur et al., 2012). Behaviour-based WLC occurs when specific behaviours required in the work (or leisure) role create difficulties for the individual to fulfil their leisure (or work) role requirements.

Free time management

Lay and Schouwenburg (1993) defined the concept of time management in terms of clusters of behaviours that are deemed to facilitate productivity and alleviate stress. Macan, Shahani, Dipboye, and Philips (1990) conducted a study focusing on university students and proposed a tool for measuring time management in four dimensions, namely, setting goals and priorities, mechanical planning of schedules, perceived control of time, and preference of disorganisation. Time management behaviour is closely related to individuals' perceived control of time (Nonis & Sager, 2003), and individuals' perceived control of time is closely related to their well-being at work (Claessens et al., 2004; Schwäble et al., 2009). Additionally, time management behaviour is closely related to individuals' perceived control of time (Nonis & Sager, 2003; Pinneker, Pinneker, Häfner, Stock, & Oberst, 2009), and individuals' perceived control of time is closely related to their well-being at work (Claessens et al., 2004; Schwäble et al., 2009).

Wang, Kao, Huan, and Wu (2011) considered work time and free time to present varying characteristics. Because work hours occupy only a portion of an individual's 24-hour day, the remaining time is considered free time which, excluding that required for sleep, requires appropriate management. Tabarsa, Tehrani, Lotfi, Ahadian, Baniasadi, and Tabarsa (2013) indicated that free-time activities and organisations must be distinguishable from formal job activities. Mannell and Kleiber (1997) suggested that the utilisation of free time is a primary factor in improving well-being. To distinguish their research from previous studies focusing only on the management of work time, Wang, Kao, Huan, and Wu (2011) developed a scale to measure free-time management in four dimensions, namely, setting goals and priorities, attitudes toward free time, techniques for managing free time, and making schedules.

Conceptual framework and hypotheses development
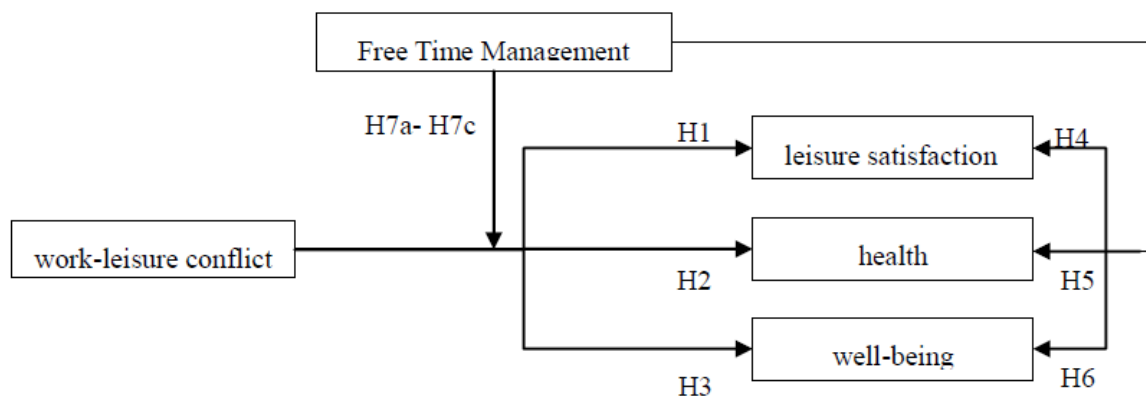


Fig. 1 Conceptual framework

Figure 1 indicates that work-to-leisure conflict is associated with three main consequences, namely, leisure satisfaction, health, and well-being, and we also the moderating role of free time management.

Beard and Ragheb (1980) defined leisure satisfaction as the positive perceptions and feelings individuals form, elicit, or gain from engaging in leisure activities. To objectively evaluate the satisfaction individuals gain from engaging in leisure activities, Beard and Ragheb (1980) developed the Leisure Satisfaction Scale (LSS), which included a psychological, a social, an education, a relaxation, a physiological, and an aesthetics dimension. Pearson (2008) confirmed that role overload

is negatively correlated to leisure satisfaction. Sampling women employees who worked full time, Pearson (2008) confirmed that role overload is negatively correlated to leisure satisfaction. Tsaur et al. (2012) asserted that prolonged work time influencing the performance of leisure activities is a classic WIL situation. Thus, the leisure satisfaction of individuals declines when they fail to gain expected performance from leisure activities. In other words, both WIL and LIW can reduce leisure satisfaction. Health comprises physical and mental health. Physical health denotes the absence of physical illnesses and the presence of a positive personal estimate of health status (Idler & Kasl, 1991), and mental health is "a state of well-being in which the individual realises his/her abilities and can cope with the normal stresses of life" (World Health Organisation, 2004, p. 12). From a WIL perspective, leisure participation alleviates the adverse effects of stress and promotes health (Iwasaki, 2003; Payne, Mowen, & Montoro-Rodriguez, 2006). In addition, Iwasaki (2003) maintained that participation in leisure activities effectively alleviates the hazards that stress inflicts on health. When WIL occurs, individuals are unable to gain the benefits of leisure participation, such as gaining appropriate relaxation, maintaining physical health, or escaping normal routine (Philipp, 1997). Therefore, when work interferes with the leisure of individuals, forcing them to reduce or postpone their leisure participation, their mental health may be negatively influenced in the long term. Well-being comprises individuals' emotional responses (i.e., happiness), satisfaction in specific life domains, and overall life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999). Moreover, from a WIL viewpoint, the leisure participation of individuals is forcibly reduced when work requirements influence their leisure time and opportunities, consequently decreasing their sense of well-being. Individuals that experience interrole conflicts for prolonged periods of time tend to experience negative emotions that make them unhappy and unsatisfied with their lives (Adams, King, & King, 1996). Pleck, Staines, and Lang (1980) further maintained that the increased frequency of working overtime negatively influences the leisure requirements of employees, thereby increasing their loads and reducing their sense of well-being. In summary, individuals that experience interrole conflicts for prolonged periods of time tend to experience negative emotions that reduce their satisfaction with life and their sense of well-being. Hence,

H1: Employees' work-leisure conflict is significantly and negatively related to leisure satisfaction.

H2: Employees' work-leisure conflict is significantly and negatively related to health.

H3: Employees' work-leisure conflict is significantly and negatively related to well-being.

Wang, Kao, Huan, and Wu (2011) developed a scale to measure free-time management in four dimensions, namely, setting goals and priorities, attitudes toward free time, techniques for managing free time, and making schedules. Tabarsa et al. (2013) proposed that individuals should evaluate and select appropriate leisure programs to achieve favourable leisure time management. Misra and McKean (2000) conducted a time management and leisure satisfaction study, and proposed that the emotional reactions of individuals can be reduced and their cognitive reactions can be increased by employing techniques to manage time and set schedules, thereby enhancing their leisure satisfaction. The findings of several previous studies suggest that time management positively influences leisure satisfaction (Misra, & McKean, 2000) and maintains physical and mental health (Sasidharan et al. 2006; Roberson 2007; Schwartz and Campagna, 2008). In summary, individuals can identify their personal leisure requirements by employing time management to set goals, and evaluate and select the leisure activities most suited to their needs. Finally, they can employ techniques to manage their time and set schedules, thereby achieving their goals and gaining leisure satisfaction.

Free time is a period in which individuals are without obligations and can effectively employ free time to improve their physical and mental health (Wang, Kao, Huan, & Wu, 2011). Trenberth (2005) suggested that educating and counselling people on how to manage their time and plan for leisure can help people apply those skills and improve physical and mental health. Wang, Kao, Huan, and Wu (2011) also found that among four dimensions of free-time management, university students primarily employed "goal setting and evaluating" and "technique" to effectively manage their free time and enhance their quality of life. For example, they set goals for free time and evaluated whether those

goals were appropriate and achievable. They then used specific techniques to manage their free time, such as collecting relative information to organise their free time and leisure time daily and weekly. Pierceall and Keim (2007) asserted that appropriately managing free time allows individuals to participate in a number of activities to relieve stress, such as conversing with family and friends, participating in leisure activities, and exercising. Previous studies have asserted that the use of free time to perform physical activity, social activities, and leisure activities provides a sense of belonging to a group and social support, improving mental and physical health and enhancing quality of life (Sasidharan et al. 2006; Roberson 2007; Schwartz & Campagna, 2008). In summary, effective management of free time facilitates selecting appropriate and achievable leisure activities, and setting leisure goals and establishing schedules to enhance quality of life, thus alleviating stress and maintaining physical and mental health. Moreover, Pawelko et al. (1997) found that skilful management of free time facilitates favourable leisure activity choices, contributing to well-being and quality of life. Therefore, by constructively allocating free time to increase social interaction, the sense of well-being of an individual can be enhanced (Lee & McCormick, 2004). Therefore, by effectively managing free time and appropriately choosing leisure activities, individuals are able to satisfy their leisure requirements, and thereby enhance their sense of well-being. Consequently,

H4: Employees' free time management is significantly and positive related to leisure satisfaction.

H5: Employees' free time management is significantly and positive related to health.

H6: Employees' free time management is significantly and positive related to well-being.

A number of studies have characterised leisure as activities that individuals freely choose and engage in during their free time to enhance their quality of life. Management of free time involves individuals using their uncommitted time with a positive attitude according to a plan, set goals or priorities, and by exploiting certain techniques for organising and scheduling (Wang, Kao, Huan, & Wu, 2011). Gussen (1967) argued that the way free time is used can influence not only the individual, but also the surrounding environment, and even societies at large. Wang, Kao, Huan, and Wu (2011) maintained that spending time without planning may make an individual feel rushed because their time is not well-organised and allocated. Tsaur et al. (2012) suggested that if employees can use their free time effectively to participate in a suitable leisure activity that has a higher congruence with their personality, then a balance between work and leisure can be attained. In other words, individuals that employ free-time management to set goals and priorities for their leisure time and maintain a positive attitude in completing their leisure schedules are able to not only reduce time stress, but also satisfy their leisure role requirements during the occurrence of WIL. Numerous previous studies have also indicated that individuals who use their free time to engage in activities are able to gain social support, improve their mental and physical health, and enhance their sense of well-being (Sasidharan et al. 2006; Roberson 2007; Schwartz and Campagna, 2008; Wang, Kao, Huan, & Wu, 2011). Thus, free-time management is able to abate the influences that WIL has on leisure satisfaction, health, and well-being. Consequently,
H7a: Free time management significantly moderates the positive effect of work-leisure conflict on employees' leisure satisfaction.
H7b: Free time management significantly moderates the positive effect of work-leisure conflict on employees' health.
H7c: Free time management significantly moderates the positive effect of work-leisure conflict on employees' well-being.

METHODOLOGY

*Sampling and data collection*

The presented study recruited professional engineers serving in the high-tech industry as the participants in the questionnaire survey. In Taiwan, a large portion of high-tech enterprises are agglomerated within the Hsinchu and Neihu Science Parks. During the initial phase of research, we

visited numerous directors of human resources (HR) serving in the science parks to explain our goal to administer and collect WLC-related data using a questionnaire survey. Using a digital questionnaire survey method, the HR directors were entrusted with the responsibility of administering and collecting the questionnaires using convenience sampling and based on the willingness of their engineers. The present study selected 10 enterprises as the research subjects. The HR directors at these enterprises were asked to provide their full names and e-mail addresses. The questionnaires were then sent to the e-mail addresses provided, and the HR directors were instructed to administer the questionnaire to 50 engineers. A total of 418 valid questionnaires were retrieved.

*Measurement*

This study uses a work-to-leisure conflict (15 items) scale adapted from the work-family conflict research conducted by Tsaur et al. (2012). Leisure satisfaction was measured with a six-dimensions (12items) from Beard and Ragheb (1980). The short-form health scale (SF-12) was adapted from Ware et al. (1996) study. SF-12 was measured with physical (six-items) and psychological dimensions (six-items). With three dimensions adopted from the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (Diener & Emmons, 1984), the well-being scale has 4-items. Items are scored on a 5-point rating scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often). And four dimensions adopted from the free time management scale was adapted from a study conducted by Wang et al. (2011), total have 15-items. Items are scored on a 5-point rating scale, ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (very often).

RESULTS

A confirmatory factor analysis was applied to evaluate the measurement model fit. According to de Jonge, Janssen, and Van Breukelen (1996), then, SEM was used to assess the fit of the hypothesized model. The composite reliability (CR) of construct measures latent variable's internal consistency. The higher the CR, the more precisely the measures can predict construct reliability. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), CR should be above 0.60. This study shows that the CR of all constructs are between 0.77 and 0.93. Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that an adequate convergent validity contains less than 50% average variances extracted (AVE). In other words, AVE should be 0.50 or above. The result shows that each AVE is between 0.50 and 0.78. They also suggested that discriminant validity is based on a comparison of squared pair-wise correlations between constructs and the AVE for each of the constructs. As shown in Table 1, bold numbers on the diagonal are the square root of each construct's AVE (between 0.70 and 0.76) and are greater than their correlations with other constructs. The correlations between each construct and other constructs are listed off the diagonal. Thus, the discriminant validity is achieved. The means of the four primary variables in this study (i.e., work to leisure conflict, leisure satisfaction, health, and well-being) are between 2.41 and 3.44, and the standard deviations are between 0.66 and 0.81. The relationships between all variables are -0.29 and 0.26.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations between constructs

| Construct | Mean | SD | A | B | C | D | E |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A. WLC | 3.44 | 0.80 | *0.72* | | | | |
| B. Leisure satisfaction | 2.61 | 0.66 | -0.712** | *0.71* | | | |
| C. Health | 2.41 | 0.81 | -0.144** | 0.301** | *0.75* | | |
| D. Well-being | 2.57 | 0.72 | -0.536** | 0.631** | 0.340** | *0.76* | |
| E. Free time management | 2.56 | 0.72 | -0.964** | 0.805** | 0.157** | 0.584** | *0.70* |

Note: a. Square root of the AVE on the diagonal; WLC: work-leisure conflict. Bold text: Square root of the AVE on the diagonal.

b. *$P<.05$; **$P<.01$; ***$P<.001$.

*The relationship of body image, leisure self-efficacy and leisure constraints*
This study conducts a hierarchical moderated multiple regression analysis to test the research hypotheses. The analysis was carried out for the dependent variables (i.e., leisure satisfaction, health

and well-being), and moderating variable blocks were added in the following order. For the structure model, the structure parameter estimates were all statistically significant. WLC ($\gamma11 = -0.712$, $p < 0.001$) was negatively and free time management ($\gamma21 = 1.664$, $p < 0.001$) was positively related to leisure satisfaction. Thus, H1 and H4 are supported. And WLC ($\gamma11 = -0.144$, $p < 0.01$) was negatively related to health. Thus, H4 is supported. As well, WLC ($\gamma11 = -0.536$, $p < 0.01$) were negatively and free time management ($\gamma21 = 0.947$, $p < 0.001$) was positively related to well-being. Thus, H3 and H6 are supported, but H5 is not support.

Test for the moderating effect of leisure self-efficacy
This study shows that when employees have a low free time management, their health is also relatively low. On the other hand, as free time management was decrease the relationship between work-to-leisure conflict and health becomes 0.131 according to the higher free time management. H7b is thus supported. However, the results imply that free time management could not moderate the relationship between work-to leisure conflict, leisure satisfaction and well-being. Thus, these results were not support H7a and H7c.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

For all employees, time management is also needed to reduce levels of work-leisure conflict. If employees can use their free time effectively to participate in a suitable leisure activity that has a higher congruence with their personality, then a balance between work and leisure can be attained. Tabarsa et al. (2013) suggest that employees desire to accept voluntary recreation programs provided by their working organizations in order to help them to be engaged in interesting activities during their non-working times, they will have better perception of their managers and accept that managers not only think about work but also consider employees wellbeing and their personal needs. However, most people do not act on these beliefs and some do not know how to improve the ''quality'' of their free time. Leisure education could therefore provide a significant benefit. To educate people to use their free time more effectively and improve their quality of life is the responsibility of not only the individuals, but also government and leisure service organizations.

The current study was driven by the lack of research into the effects of work-leisure conflict. Although it is argued that the presented study is novel and generates interesting insights, it is recognized that such contributions constitute merely the first step toward greater understanding of the effects of work-leisure conflict. Thus, in conclusion, this study culminates with the call for more research into these intriguing issues.
We believe that contributes of this study is derived from the focus of the present study on the consequences of work-leisure conflict. Employees will perceive a higher level of work-leisure conflict if they work over nine hours per day (Shamir, 1983). Participants in serious leisure activities will perceive a higher level of work-leisure conflict due to their high levels of commitment to work, family and leisure (Staines & O'Connor, 1980). Therefore, other samples, such as workaholic managers and serious-leisure participants who also experience high levels of work-leisure conflict are worthy of investigation. Future research could focus on the relationships between work-leisure conflict and its antecedents and its consequences.

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# GENDER SEGREGATION OF THE FEMALE TOUR LEADERS

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## INTRODUCTION

Gender segregation, gender discrimination and wage injustice exist in the tourism industry (e.g., Jordan, 1997; Thrane, 2008) and female workers thus confront some unequal treatments. Furthermore, certain degree of stereotyping toward female role and irrational role expectation exists in our society both in the family and occupation circumstances (Berkery, Morley, & Tiernan, 2013). Female workers thus have to face the most difficult situation in their career barrier. Female workers in the tourism context are thus often asked or assigned to specific work, division or position according their gender. Tour leaders have the most complicate work environment and work condition. For the female tour leaders, the career development they face is more difficult than other jobs and positions in the tourism and hospitality industry. Previous studies have accumulated plentiful outcomes on issues of the work roles, service quality and job satisfaction of tour leaders (e.g., Holloway, 1981; Cohen, 1985; Quiroga, 1990; Wong, & Wang, 2009); however our understanding about gender segregation of female tour leaders is still waiting for more efforts.

The purpose of this study is to explore the issues about gender segregation of female tour leaders. Since the gender segregation issues of the female tour leaders are still poorly understood, a qualitative research approach was thus used to identify significant issues and draw out important managerial implications. In order to pinpoint particular individuals who have knowledge and insights about the topics being studied in this study, the method of judgment sampling was used. Since the nature and content of the work of the female tour leader differs among several major foreign destinations, such as Asia, America, Europe and Oceania, only the female tour leaders who had led tour groups to all these major types of destination were recruited.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Jordan (1997) indicated that the employment across a wide spectrum of industries is segregated by gender. Stockdale (1991) defines gender segregation as "the jobs that women do are different from those done by men (horizontal segregation) and women work at lower levels than men in the occupational hierarchy (vertical segregation)." Thus most of the women workers may predominate in the 'female' occupations, such as secretarial, administrative and catering work, and the 'caring' professions, such as teaching, nursing and hotel frontline employee, but are still under-represented in the management structures of these sectors (Witz & Savage, 1992; Ng & Pine, 2003; Akrivos, Ladkin, & Reklitis, 2007).

Several previous works (e.g., Imray & Middleton, 1983; Reskin and Padavic, 1994) have

shown that sex segregation has a tendency to locate female employees in the less skill required parts within the organization and as a result less valuable to the economy. Sex segregation thus also has created a corresponding imbalance of financial reward. Reskin and Padavic (1994) suggested that occupational segregation does not have to be actively encouraged, but can be reproduced simply through 'organizational inertia'. Collinson, Knights, and Collinson (1990) indicated that job segregation can be 'reproduced, rationalized and resisted' within organizations, and then forming what they describe as the 'vicious circles of job segregation'.

The family structure has changed nowadays. The amount of the dual-career couple and single-parent household is increasing gradually. On the contrary, the traditional single-earner household is decreasing. This phenomenon means that the responsibilities for work, housework, and childcare are not merely restricted to the traditional gender roles (Bryon, 2005). Gradually, employees find themselves difficult or struggling to satisfy or to deal with the competing demands from the work and family. This problems and issues faced by the employees has stimulated an increasing body of research and theory on the intersection of work and family lives for an individual (e.g., Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996; Kossek, Noe, & DeMarr, 1999; Friedman, & Greenhaus, 2000; Perrewe & Hochwarter, 2001). Among the related issues discussing the intersection of work and family lives, one of the most studied issues in the literature is work-family conflict. Work-family conflict, also termed work-family interference, is a kind of inter-role conflict (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Work-family conflict may occur when the demands of work and family roles conflict.

Further studies also concentrate some intention to discuss the direction of interference (O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Work-family conflict is thus gradually acknowledged as two distinct, although related, concepts, those are work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW). According to Frone, Yardley, and Markel (1997), WIF (also termed work-to-family conflict) occurs when work interferes with family life, and FIW (known also as family-to-work conflict) occurs when family life interferes with work. Several works try to justify and differentiate these concepts. For example, Kossek and Ozeki (1998) distinguished the directions of work-family conflict in their work with meta-analysis. Furthermore, several works (e.g., Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992a, 1992b; Kelloway, Gottlieb, & Barham, 1999) also demonstrated that WIF and FIW may have different causes and effects.

After the concept of work-family conflict was introduced, a large number of studies have been carried out to examine its antecedents and consequences (Bryon, 2005). Job/work involvement, job stress, work support, schedule flexibility, hours spent at work, family/non-work involvement, family stress, family stress, and spouse employment are the frequently studied antecedents in the literature (e.g., Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Bryon, 2005). Job and life satisfaction, burnout, withdrawal behaviors, family interruptions at work, turnover intentions, and absenteeism are the frequently studied consequences in the literature (e.g., Kossek & Ozeki, 1998, 1999; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Hammer, Bauer, & Grandey, 2003; Bryon, 2005).

Previous studies also claimed that the perception of work-family conflict is remarkable between female and male workers (e.g., Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991) and different marital statuses (e.g., Netemeyer et al., 1996). The study of Gutek et al. (1991) indicated that female workers perceive higher work interference with family than male workers. Furthermore, the work of Netemeyer et al. (1996) also demonstrated that married employees perceived higher work interference with family than unmarried employees. These results are consistent with the work of Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) that claimed work-family conflict has become the career penalty for the married career women.

METHODS

Interviews were conducted without the direct assistance of the tour companies in order to reassure the interviewees that their comments would be kept confidential. One of the co-authors once acted as a

tour leader for several years in Taiwan. Personal social networks of the author were thus used to identify possible interviewees and invite their participation. Semi-structured one-to-one interviews were conducted for data collection in this study. All of our interviewees participated voluntarily.

Each interview lasted between one and three hours. Interviews were carried out at the convenience of our interviewees, and were audio-recorded and transcribed fully. Data collection was ended at the twelfth interview since no further information was available. A total of twelve female tour leaders were interviewed in this study. Each interviewee had performed the job of the tour leader for at least six years. Anonymity was maintained using pseudonyms and the detailed information has been kept confidential. The narratives collected from the tour leaders during the interviews were examined to identify significant issues. A dialogue developed in the process of analysis in which themes were identified in relation to relevant literature in order to draw out important managerial implications.

RESULTS

Most of the interviewees indicated that gender is not an important attribute or at least it is not a determining criterion to recruit a candidate. Most of them considered that both male and female candidates have their own strength to act as an excellent tour leader. Consequently, the recruitment and selection procedure seems not be to a mechanism to create the context of gender segregation.

Our company doesn't have certain preference or specific criterion about the gender of tour leader. However, the amount of male tour leaders is slightly higher than the amount of female tour leaders. (Tour leader A, 32 years old, act as a tour leader for 7 years)

I think....... Our company would like to recruit the candidates with good ability and right personality. ... ... In my opinion, gender is not an issue in the recruitment process in my company. (Tour leader C, 43 years old, act as a tour leader for 17 years)

Even though most of the interviewees didn't consider gender could be a constraint for the female tour leaders. However, these interviewees indeed perceived certain degree of gender segregation. Some of these situations can be attributed to the nature of the work and the inherent difference in physical capacity between the female and male tour leaders. For example, most of the female tour leaders recognized that male tour leaders may be more competent at a few remote and difficult destinations, such as Antarctica and other extreme tours. Furthermore, the tours that required extremely vigorous energy are also more capable for the male tour leaders rather than the female tour leaders.

Even if the difference between the amounts of female and male tour leaders is not remarkable in our company, some specific destinations and tours are almost dominated by the male tour leaders. ... ... For example, the long day tours, extreme destinations, adventure tours, and so on. ... ... I think the male tour leader is more suitable for these tours than the female tour leader. (Tour leader L, 38 years old, act as a tour leader for 12 years)

Both female and male tour leaders have its own strength to lead a tour group successfully. However, some specific tours are more capable for male tour leaders than female tour leaders indeed, such as long day tours or sport theme tours. ... ... Consequently, most of female tour leaders are thus restricted from these tours. (Tour leader E, 31 years old, act as a tour leader for 6 years)

Most of our interviewees also indicated that work and family conflict is one of the major reasons for the female tour leaders determine to leave the job of tour leader. Some of our interviewees indicated that they will leave the job of tour leader and transfer to other positions within the travel agency. Furthermore, some of them would find new jobs in other industries to meet their expectation about the balance between work and family.

Moreover, some of them may quit the job to be a housewife to satisfy the expectation of their family members. Even if some of them would stay in the current job, they may restrict themselves to some

shorter day tours and short haul destinations. This phenomenon further increases and reinforces the degree of gender segregation.

I think I would quit this job if I get married. ... ... For me, I think the family is the most important thing rather than the work. ... ... I would transfer to other positions in my company or find another job beyond my company. ... ... I would do everything to satisfy my family members. (Tour leader B, 33 years old, act as a tour leader for 7 years)

Women have to take more responsibility for the family. ... ... The job is only a temporary of my life and the family is the most important thing for me. ... ... If I keep working to act as a tour leader, it would interfere with my family life. I won't let it happen. (Tour leader J, 31 years old, act as a tour leader for 7 years)

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study indicate that the female tour leaders indeed perceived certain degree of gender segregation. However, some of the situations of gender segregation can be attributed to the nature of the work requirements of tour leader for specific destinations and tours. Furthermore, the results of these interviews also revealed some similar theoretical contexts, including work family conflict (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996; Friedman, & Greenhaus, 2000) and gender stereotyping (Heilman, 2012; Berkery, Morley, & Tiernan, 2013). The social expectation towards specific gender may thus further increases and reinforces the degree of gender segregation for the job of tour leader. We hope this study can extend our understanding about the issues of gender segregation of female tour leaders in the context of tourism and hospitality industries and provide an initiative basis for further quantitative studies and theoretical model.

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# MOTIVATIONS OF EASTERN EUROPEAN STUDENTS TO STUDY TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY (HND LEVEL) IN THE UK: CASE OF ROMANIAN STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The economic ramifications of tourism and hospitality have led to the considerable growth of global education in this sector. The ever changing needs of this industry for appropriate skills and expertise have made it more competitive in nature which has led to the increase in studies exploring the motivations for students to choose a specific destination. This paper explores the relative importance of UK as location focus for East European students: case of Romanian students to undertake tourism and Hospitality qualifications. The research conducted was based on mixed method approach through two sequential phases. The results revealed a set of motivational factors influencing Romanian student's choices to study tourism and hospitality in the UK.

Key words: Student Motivation, Study Tourism and Hospitality, HND

INTRODUCTION

Tourism and hospitality today has become a global phenomenon. The economic importance of these industries has created ever- increasing demand for skilled and qualified human resources in the labour market thus convincing the education providers to offer them as part of wider programmes at various levels. Tourism was introduced as a subject by European universities in 1930s (Faulkner, 2003; Ruhanen and McLennan, 2010). The supply of tourism courses has been met by an increasing student demand and since then there has been a sustained level of applications to tourism-related courses (Dale and Robinson, 2001). Many studies in various disciplines have reported on the reasons why students choose a particular college major. Such research efforts can be also found in the hospitality and tourism field (Bushell et al., 2001; Huyton, 1997; Kim et al., 2007; Lee, Kim, & Lo, 2006; O'Mahony et al., 2001; Purcell & Quinn, 1996; Zhao, 1991). The recent rise in migration to the UK from eight EU Accession countries (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia), which started in 2004, as well as subsequently from Romania and Bulgaria in 2007, has generated a good deal of controversy (Blanchflower and Shadforth, 2009). According to the UK Council for International Student Affairs (UKCISA), Romania and Bulgaria are among the top ten EU sending countries when it comes to higher education in the UK. With 4,625 and 4,615 students respectively in

the 2010-2011 academic years, these numbers are likely to increase annually. Currently one in six college applicants are Romanian or Bulgarian and more than 5,000 apply for vocational courses that make 5,000 students from the two countries on vocational courses in England accounting for a staggering one in six of all applicants. Overall, numbers enrolling for higher national diplomas (HNDs) and certificates (HNCs) have more than doubled from 13,000 to 30,000 in only 12 months since 2013. In the United Kingdom HNDs are equivalent to two years' study on a university course and can be used to gain entry to a university in England and Wales. HNCs are equal to one year of study in higher education. The vocational qualifications can be taken in variety of subjects including Tourism and Hospitality. The purpose of this study is to understand why Romanian students prefer to study in the UK, and their preferred concentration of study in the Tourism and Hospitality major. The study further tries to make a comparison between the motivations factors of two countries and the impact of gender on these factors. The study was carried out in one of the major FE provider in London with a big percentage of the students coming from Romania.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Bodycott (2009), in his study, mentioned that the majority of students who leave their country for educational purposes are influenced by *push–pull* factors. 'Push' factors are those that operate within a country and initiate a student's decision to undertake study abroad. These include economic, social, and political forces within the source country. 'Pull' factors are those that make another country attractive to students (Mazzarol and Soutar, 2002). Understanding why students participate in formal higher education has been a key focus of educational research (Altbach and Knight, 2006; Finn, 1991; James, 2002; Romaniuk and Romaniuk, 1982). Anderson et al., (1998) in their study, mentioned that although personal interest in the study area is still a major driver, professional and financial advancement is also a key factor. Suventola (2004) found self-development and knowledge enhancement as important factors and, further, Coulthard (2000) and Moogan & Baron (2003) found students motivated by subject interest and enhancement of professional practice.

Other studies investigated the motivations of students for studying outside of their home country (Lee et al., 2008; Moogan and Baron, 2003). For example, Davey (2005) investigated Chinese postgraduate students studying in the United Kingdom and found that these students were motivated by: the quality education, course reputation, opportunity to develop their English language and communication skills, the Western culture, social networking opportunities, personal development and the immigration opportunities. Rahimi et al., (2014) found that the majority of south Asian students in the UK are motivated by their friends and relatives; by an opportunity to improve their English and by enjoying a multi-cultural environment. According to Mazzarol & Soutar (2002), the decision to study abroad is carried out by members of the family and this even applies for postgraduates and graduates levels. They further highlighted in their research that the parental influence is higher among undergraduate students when they are choosing a country or a destination to study. To some extent the decision of the students choosing the destination, can be so influenced by others that the students end up studying in the countries or disciplines that would not necessarily have been their choice if they were able to make their own decision. Patterns and motivations of student migration to Western countries is investigated by a variety of studies (Baldwin and James (2000), Mazzarol (2001), Mazzarol and Soutar (2002), Moogan et al. (1999); Gomes and Murphy (2003). The findings of these studies suggest that the process of decision-making and motivations for overseas students differ among EU students. For example, Maringe and Carter (2007) found that Taiwanese students choose to study abroad because they consider the international acceptability and recognition of UK HE as a tremendous benefit for their long-term investment. On the other hand, EU students choose to come to UK HE mainly because it provides them with an opportunity to learn the English language and British cultural traditions (Davey, 2005). Moogan and Baron (2003), in their research, found that the characteristics of the student influenced their decision and that the prospectus is the most important source of information and that course content is more

important to females, whereas reputation is more important to males.

Further studies investigated the motivation of students to study Tourism and Hospitality, in particular (Cole, Cole, & Ferguson, 2006; Lee, Kim, & Lo, 2008; O'Mahony, McWilliams, & Whitelaw, 2001; O'Mahony et al., 2008; Stuart-Hoyle, 2003; Wickens, Forbes and Tribe, 2006). According to Bushell et al. (2001), students join Tourism and Hospitality programmes because the industry provides benefits through its contribution to cultural enrichment and economic growth, and provides challenging and exciting career opportunities for people with a variety of talents and interests. Other research indicated that other factors comprised an increase in employment and travel opportunities, career advancement and wage improvements (Hannam et al., 2004). Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) carried out wide research and pointed out that other factors influencing the selection of a country have been a commonality of language, the availability of science or technology-based programmes and the geographic proximity of the home and host countries.

METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted with a mixed method approach through two sequential phases (Rahimi, 2014). It started with a qualitative phase via a focus group to find in-depth information about student's motivations. For gaining variety of perspectives, 30 Romanian students majoring in Tourism and Hospitality were selected. With the moderation of the researcher the focus group discussion was conducted for an hour and students were encouraged to talk about their motivations to select the UK and study Tourism and Hospitality. The focus group was recorded, transcribed and the data was analyzed via an inductive approach and content analysis (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994). A list of codes - students' motivations - emerged and was used for the second phase of the research. In the second, the results of the focus group proceeded to design a questionnaire to investigate the most important motivational factors influencing student's decision. The questionnaire comprised two parts a) motivations for selecting UK b) motivations to select Tourism and Hospitality based on a 5 point Likert-Scale between Strongly *Agree – 1* to *Strongly Disagree – 5*. The population of this study consisted of 300 Romanian and Bulgarian students and the questionnaire distributed via email in October 2014. In total 74 responses were collected. SPSS Software (Version 21) was used and the data was subjected to descriptive analysis.

RESULTS

*Qualitative Results*

The results of the focus group showed different sets of motivational factors for selecting UK and studying tourism and hospitality. In the first part most of the students mentioned that they selected the UK as they have friends and relatives in the UK; it is close to their home countries, they have the opportunity to improve their English and they can enjoy a multi-cultural environment. The good reputation of the UK education system was also mentioned as one of the reasons for selecting the UK. They also mentioned that, not only having more job opportunities and but also the support from the loan company for their education and living costs was the important factor for selecting the UK. Support from the loan company is only available to EU citizens resident in the UK for a minimum of three years. EU residents can apply for a loan of up to £6,000 to cover the cost of tuition fees and Romania and Bulgaria have been members of the European Union since 2007. One of the students mentioned that *"getting the financial support for my education was the initial motivation to start my study"*. Those already living in the UK are also entitled to a maximum £3,400 maintenance loan for living costs. From 2011/12 The Student Loans Company lent almost £4.5 billion in tuition fee loans (HESA, 2011).

The second part of the focus group tried to identify the main reasons why students study Tourism and Hospitality. Most of the students mentioned that they are currently working in

Tourism and Hospitality or have previous work experience and they believe studying this major will help them with career progress. One of the students said "*I used to work in hotel as the receptionist back home and now I am working as a housekeeper but my manger promised to promote me after my first year*". Encouragement and influence from friends and families and the fact that the tourism field is easier in comparison to other fields like business (having less maths involved, for example) was also mentioned by students as an important factor in studying this field. Some of the students mentioned that they have been interested in traveling and geography and they thought that, as part of the course, they will find opportunities to travel abroad (field and residential trips). The majority of the students believed that Tourism and Hospitality is an enjoyable major and has a pleasant working environment. One of the students said, "*I love socializing and tourism and hospitality workplaces give me the opportunity to talk with people*". Most of the students decided to do vocational tourism and hospitality courses because of its practical side rather than theoretical and finally they mentioned that being students in tourism and hospitality means more job opportunities during the studies in tourism and hospitality business which currently has a high rate of employment.

*Quantitative Results*

Firstly, toward reliability analysis of the questionnaire Cronbach's alpha test were conducted and the results of .78 were among the accepted range > .70 suggested by Nanaly (1976). 60% of the students were daytime and 60% were belonging to evening programmes. 63% of respondents were between 25 to 30 ages and 27% between18 to 24 and 8% between 35 to 44. Demographic analysis further demonstrated that 56% of the respondents were female and 43% were male. Table 1 shows the mean and percentages of the motivational factors.

As table 1 demonstrates the proximity of the UK to Romania is the most important factor. The second most important factor is the UK acting as a platform for moving to a better country in the future. This is then followed by no visa requirement, having relatives in the UK, being easy to find a job in the UK and having friends in the UK as the main reasons why Romanian students select the UK. The results further showed that financial support via student finance plays the most important role for selecting tourism and hospitality among Romanian students. Those living in the UK are also entitled to a maximum £3,400 maintenance loan for living costs and from 2011/12, the Student Loans Company lent almost £4.5 billion in tuition fee loans (HESA, 2011). The majority said that they did not have any specific interest but because it was financially supported they decided to do it. Influence from friends and relatives were the second and third important factors for studying tourism and hospitality.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This paper has found a considerable range of motivating factors influencing Romanian students' decision to undertake tourism and hospitality education in the UK and thus provided valuable insight into their relative importance with regards to the destination location. This has obvious implications for marketing and recruiting international students thus opening further opportunities for UK Further Education institutions. Also, it indicates towards combining the destination promoter's efforts with the tourism and hospitality education marketers as well.

Table 1- Mean of motivational factors

| Item | Strongly agree % | Agree % | Neutral % | Disagree % | Strongly Disagree % | Total | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| SELECTING UK FOR STUDY | | | | | | | |
| It is close to home | 12 | 22 | 27 | 24 | 13 | 74 | 3.04 |
| It can be like a platform and I can move to a better country in the future | 18 | 18 | 37 | 13 | 10 | 74 | 2.78 |
| There is not any visa issue | 27 | 16 | 32 | 12 | 12 | 74 | 2.66 |
| I have relatives in the UK | 29 | 21 | 21 | 9 | 17 | 74 | 2.64 |
| It is easy to find a job in the UK | 21 | 37 | 24 | 10 | 5 | 74 | 2.41 |
| I have friends in the UK | 24 | 3 | 18 | 8 | 9 | 74 | 2.39 |
| UK has a good currency exchange | 21 | 33 | 32 | 8 | 4 | 74 | 2.39 |
| I can get financial support in the UK | 36 | 32 | 20 | 2 | 8 | 74 | 2.14 |
| I can settle in the UK after study | 36 | 32 | 18 | 9 | 2 | 74 | 2.09 |
| UK education has a global reputation | 47 | 35 | 12 | 4 | 1 | 74 | 1.77 |
| I can improve my English | 48 | 36 | 12 | 1 | 1 | 74 | 1.70 |
| UK is a multicultural country | 48 | 36 | 12 | 1 | 1 | 74 | 1.70 |
| STUDY TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY | | | | | | | |
| I did not have any specific interest but because it was financially supported I decide to do it | 8 | 6 | 24 | 24 | 36 | 74 | 3.74 |
| My friends influenced my decision | 9 | 12 | 39 | 29 | 9 | 74 | 3.18 |
| My family encouraged me to study this field | 8 | 14 | 39 | 29 | 8 | 74 | 3.15 |
| I am working in Tourism and Hospitality and wanted to learn more about it | 14 | 10 | 39 | 29 | 5 | 74 | 3.00 |
| I have previous experience in tourism and hospitality | 22 | 18 | 37 | 16 | 4 | 74 | 2.59 |
| I thought classes are more practical rather than theoretical | 18 | 31 | 37 | 81 | 4 | 74 | 2.47 |
| It is an easy major in comparison to other fields such as business | 16 | 45 | 32 | 4 | 15 | 74 | 2.28 |
| Tourism and hospitality is an enjoyable major | 33 | 44 | 18 | 1 | 1 | 74 | 1.92 |
| Traveling is my hobby and I wanted it as a career | 43 | 39 | 14 | 1 | 1 | 74 | 1.78 |
| Tourism and hospitality has pleasant working environment | 35 | 52 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 74 | 1.77 |
| There are a lot of job opportunities in this field | 41 | 45 | 8 | 45 | 0 | 74 | 174 |

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# THE IMPACTS OF COMPLAINT-HANDLING ON RESTAURANT SERVICE EMPLOYEES' PERSONAL SELF

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ABSTRACT

Many studies have been conducted on the consequences of complaint handling from the customers'- perspectives but the literature remains scant on work from the employees' perspectives. This paper aims to study the personal-related consequences of complaint handling on restaurant service employees. 26 in-depth interviews were conducted and thematically analysed. As the experiences of handling complaints accumulate overtime, employees in this study reported being more confident, patient, flexible in thinking and mature in complaint handling. However, employees in this study also reported bouts of trauma and phobia, sleepless night, and high blood pressure especially at the beginning of their occupation that deals with complaints.

Key words: Impacts, Complaint Handling, Restaurant, Service Employees

## INTRODUCTION

Frontline service employees who always handle service failure situations may experience high levels of stress and job dissatisfaction (Yoo *et al*., 2006). Also referred to in the literature as emotional labourers, service employees often have to suppress their own negative feelings in front of their customers so as to create desirable facial expressions and body language (Hochschild, 2003). Having to do so on a daily basis is stressful and could lead to negative organizational outcomes including emotional exhaustion, turnover intentions and negative work-related attitudes (Ben-Zur and Yagil, 2005; Grandey *et al*., 2007).

It is therefore surprising to found that empirical studies examine the consequences of complaint handling on employees are scant. Majority of the previous studies on complaint handling predominantly focus on the consequences of complaint handling on customers, presumably because they are the direct source for profit. For example, scholars have looked into: (a) the impact of service recoveries on customer satisfaction (Komunda and Osarenkhoe, 2012; Lin *et al*., 2011); (b) re- patronage intentions (Lin *et al*., 2011; Miller *et al*., 2000); (c) word-of-mouth intentions (Chang *et al*., 2013; Lee *et al*., 2008); and (d) customer loyalty (DeWitt et al., 2008; Komunda and Osarenkhoe, 2012). Of the few studies which investigated the effects of service recovery performance on employees, the focus has been particular to organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction and the intention to resign (Boshoff and Allen, 2000; Yavas *et al*., 2003). To the best of our knowledge, only limited studies have examined the consequences of complaint handling from the service employees' welfare perspective.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Effectiveness of Complaint Handling*

Effective complaint handling is indeed important and has considerable positive impacts on customer outcomes such as customer loyalty (DeWitt *et al*., 2008; Komunda and Osarenkhoe, 2012), re-patronage intention (Leong *et al*., 2002; Mueller *et al*., 2003), word-of- mouth (Bhandari *et al*., 2007), and customer's decision to stay loyal. Customer profitability is another outcome of effective complaint handling (Hart *et al*., 1990; Johnston, 2001; Rust *et al*., 2004) as it enhances the relationship between customers and employees (Tantawy and Losekoot, 2001). In this relationship, employees play important roles in complaint handling and they are directly impactful on customer satisfaction as well as subsequent outcomes that may include for example, increased gratuities. In this regard, effective complaint handling has direct impacts on not only customers but also service employees.

*Effect of Complaint Handling on Employees*

Although past studies have highlighted the negative consequences of poor complaint handling on customers and organizations, we argue that the impacts on employees are at least equally significant. Employees who often fail to handle complaints properly may feel powerless (Johnston and Clark, 2008) and stressed and thus, behave negatively. When a similar problem recurs, they will undergo the entire episode of helplessness experience. Several effects of complaint handling on employees including alienation and frustration, passive and maladaptive behaviour and stress, which in turn cause low job satisfaction, low morale, low organizational commitments, ill health and poor performance (Bowen and Johnston, 1999). Different consequences could occur depending on the varied complaint situations as well as the diverse customer profiles. Yet, there is a dearth of studies that have looked into how complaint handling experiences affect service employees personally. The objective of this paper is therefore to investigate the impacts of complaint handling on restaurant service employees' personal lives.

METHOD

In-depth interviewing method was employed in this study because there are weaknesses of existing literature and the lack of knowledge or theories on the study area. In other words, this method can enable the researcher to obtain insightful data about the topic (Johnson, 2002). Criterion sampling and snowball sampling techniques were employed. Three selection criteria were used to qualify study participants. These were that the individual must: (a) be service employees who serve customers, (b) have handled customer complaints, and (c) have worked at table service restaurant for at least one year. Thematic analysis was used for data analysis.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

*Participants' Profiles*

At the point of data saturation, 26 in-depth interviews were conducted with restaurant service employees from 15 different restaurant brands in Malaysia. Table 1 summarizes the respondents' profiles.

*Self-related Consequences*

The findings in this study revealed that complaint handling indeed have effects on employees' personal aspects. Surprisingly, there was greater number of positive personal effects identified than the negative personal effects. The results could imply that the employees accept complaint handling as part of their job, especially for those who hold managerial positions. Even though the encounters in complaint handling are challenging, they were still trying their best to think

positive about customer complaints and complaint handling. Positively, the employees reported that after repeatedly handling complaints, they became more confident, patient, flexible in thinking and mature in not just complaint handling but also at work in general.

Table 1.Respondents' profile

| Respondent | Age | Gender | Ethnic Group | Position | Years in the current company |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| R1 | 23 | Female | Chinese | Cashier | 1.5 |
| R2 | 25 | Female | Chinese | Restaurant Manager | 3 |
| R3 | 21 | Female | Chinese | Service Crew | 2 |
| R4 | 36 | Female | Indian | Supervisor | 1.5 |
| R5 | 28 | Male | Indian | Senior Restaurant Manager | 5 |
| R6 | 34 | Male | Others | Assistant Restaurant Manager | 4 |
| R7 | 25 | Male | Others | Assistant Restaurant Manager | 5 |
| R8 | 38 | Male | Indian | Area Manager | 16 |
| R9 | 30 | Male | Indian | Supervisor | 2 |
| R10 | 24 | Male | Malay | Assistant Restaurant Manager | 1.5 |
| R11 | 27 | Female | Chinese | Restaurant Manager | 8 |
| R12 | 24 | Female | Others | Supervisor | 1.5 |
| R13 | 24 | Female | Malay | Cashier | 6 |
| R14 | 41 | Male | Others | Restaurant Manager | 5 |
| R15 | 20 | Male | Chinese | Captain | 1 |
| R16 | 25 | Female | Chinese | Restaurant Manager | 3.5 |
| R17 | 26 | Male | Chinese | Restaurant Manager | 7 |
| R18 | 25 | Male | Indian | Restaurant General Manager | 6 |
| R19 | 28 | Male | Indian | Restaurant General Manager | 4 |
| R20 | 26 | Male | Chinese | Restaurant General Manager | 3 |
| R21 | 25 | Female | Chinese | Restaurant Manager | 1 |
| R22 | 35 | Male | Others | Restaurant General Manager | 2.5 |
| R23 | 30 | Male | Malay | Restaurant General Manager | 10 |
| R24 | 30 | Female | Malay | Assistant Restaurant Manager | 4 |
| R25 | 36 | Female | Malay | Restaurant Manager | 6 |
| R26 | 40 | Male | Malay | Restaurant General Manager | 16 |

*Confidence*

Repeatedly handling similar complaints from different customers enable employees to gain experience and subsequently confidence to handle and cope with more complaints. The majority of employees explained that their confidence soared after handling many complaints. Ten of the participants expressed confidence when relating their complaint handling experiences:

*Previously I was [a] coward. After that, customer asked me questions, I [still] felt very scared to answer. Because I did not know [if] my answers are correct or not. But now I have the confidence to answer. Because by answering with confidence,...,it is more convincing. (R1)*

This finding confirms Kim and Han's (2009) notion that service employees who are able to manage their emotions could lead to positive impacts on themselves such as enhance their confidence in human relations. It seems that this new level of confidence comes hand in hand with decision- making. This is to say that employees reported having learnt to become more flexible in their decision-making while handling complaints. This theme on flexibility is discussed in detail in the next section.

*Flexibility*

Service employees do not blindly follow the rules and procedures; in fact, they become more "flexible" in thinking and executing handling actions. In the past, they had rigid mindsets when handling complaints, particularly when they held lower portfolios or positions such as a Service Crew and Supervisor. For example:

*Previously I felt that, if...if my superior said it is like this, cannot change then I accepted it. But, indeed it can be flexible. I learn from that. (R1)*

Some managers in the hospitality industry inform their employees that they can impose any recovery action they deem most appropriate as long as the customer leaves the restaurant happy. Although this statement is spelled out to the employees, sometimes, employees are still restricted by company policies and procedures which cause the employees to experience role ambiguity. Role ambiguity occurs 'when an individual is uncertain about the expectations of the role and does not know what to do to enact the role' (Widmer, 1993, p.340). However, with the learning experience in handling complaints, employees seem to acquire the flexibility to overcome role ambiguity and make the right decision to satisfy complaining customers.

*Patience*

The following excerpts from the interviews illustrate this:

*I learned to be more patient, I was [previously a] hot tempered person. By looking at my attitude, I [have] become more patient. And I learn to talk slowly to customers, listen to customers patiently because before this, I'm not the one who does the talking... When I was a service crew, the customer was not patient, I also felt not patient. So how to give customer...So I have to be patient [with] myself, then customer will be patient, too...(R10)*

When the employees become more patient and are able to listen to customers' complaints well, most of them can handle the complaints better. This however seems to happen only after a few years of work experience in the restaurant industry.

*Maturity*

A mature person can be described as active, alert, friendly, generous, helpful, independent and so on but not necessarily confident and patient (Nielson and Curry, 1997). Service employees acknowledged that they were naïve and immature, but have become more mature after handling many complaints. Due to the learned handling-coping experience and, employees feel that they have become more mature in decision-making. This new level of maturity impacts upon their personal thoughts. For instance:

*Compared to last time (the past), I [had] no experience at all and I [was] so immature; but now, of course we see things in a mature way, and of course more positively. (R16)*

A more mature thinking is a positive consequence, not only on the employees, but also on the organization because when the employees have mature thinking they are able to solve problems calmly and professionally. In this regard, complaint handling is a good ground for training the employees to possess good criteria as a leader or decision maker.

Besides the positive self-impacts, the service employees in this study also regrettably expressed a number of negative personal-related impacts such as trauma, phobia, high blood pressure and sleepless nights. Nevertheless, these negative impacts manifested for a few weeks and for some, months after a complaining incident.

*Trauma and Phobia*

The employees interviewed reported bouts of trauma and phobia, sleepless nights, and high blood pressure. The employees needed some time to overcome their trauma and phobia before continuing to serve and handle more customers' complaints. A manager highlighted that during the early stages of his role as a manager, he was unable to handle customer complaints. His traumatic experience is illustrated as follows:

*[During] the first year when I joined as a manager, the feelings are like, haunting me, you know? So I feel, most of the time [when] I have any problems with customers, I said, I better [not] handle it. I [will] get my seniors to handle. It takes some time... I was [in a ] trauma...I tried to avoid customers, [so] I stay[ed] in the kitchen. (R8)*

Trauma and phobia are psychological outcomes of stress (Birdir *et al*., 2003). The negative outcomes do not exist for a particular day; instead the employees may need weeks or even months to overcome it. Company management and superiors of the affected employees need to be aware of the mental health of their employees and put in place systems to support those employees who suffer from the stress outcomes. Related to and resulting from trauma and phobia, some employees encountered difficulty with sleeping.

*Sleepless Nights*

The employees also highlighted that they had sleepless nights. They were being haunted by the complaint handling experiences which also made it difficult for them to focus at work. The employee expressed his feelings and thoughts as below:

*I used to be afraid of customers complaints. To me customers simply want to complain to get things out... I can't sleep at night, thinking of it. When you're going to sleep, the thing's still haunting you. "Why did he do this to me? Why has it happen?" (R26)*

The employees were unable to sleep after experiencing and handling serious complaint issues, for example, about food poisoning. Difficulty in getting to sleep during the night is one of the physiological outcomes of stress (Birdir *et al*., 2003). However, this impact remains only for a short period of time. After the complaint issue is over, the employees learn to cope with their emotions and complaint handling better.

*High Blood Pressure*

A manager who has been working for 18 years in the food and beverage industry, (16 of those years in the same company) reported that he had high blood pressure a few years due to being overstressed at work. He emphasized that the main source of his stress is the restaurant staffing issues, followed by the handling of customer complaints. The manager's experience is described as follows:

*My blood pressure went high. So then, doctor said I need to calm down, cool down, do some readings and all that...No, because they said we are still young for medicine...Switch to [another] outlet, the workload lesser, less complaints...Changed my lifestyle...(R8)*

High blood pressure is another physiological outcome of stress (Birdir *et al*., 2003).  Handling difficult customer complaints could cause high stress among the employees. Management concern and care towards employees' condition and health are important to help employees reduce or eliminate the negative impacts.

CONCLUSIONS

This study is the first to offer insights on how customer complaint could affect service employees. Employees who handled customer complaints commonly expressed their phobia, claimed to be traumatised by the episodes, and experienced high blood pressure and sleepless nights. Apart from the expected negative consequences, this study uncovered some positive outcomes on employees' personal well-being. Specifically, the study revealed that customer complaint handling allows one to develop into a more confident, patient, and matured individual. In addition, the experience also widens the employees' thinking perspective.

From a managerial point of view, human resource department of restaurant companies could benefit from the findings of this study. According to the findings, employees who are experienced and capable of handling complaints well generally possess certain good attributes at work like patience, confidence, maturity and passion in serving customers. In addition, employees who are capable in complaint handling possess certain skills like problem solving skills and social skills which equip them to hold a higher position. Thus, this can be one good source of reference to human resource departments and management in selecting the right candidate for a promotion.

Several limitations of this study were acknowledged. First, the data was obtained from a single source only which is the service employees. Future studies can include organization, employees and customers as the sources of data triangulation. Due to the sensitivity of the topic relating to their work performance, it is unavoidable that a certain degree of self-serving bias could exist. However, every care was taken to minimize the bias. For instance, allowing the participants to choose the interview setting, briefing them that they have the right to refuse answering any questions or even withdraw from the interview anytime.

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# PROMOTING "ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR" IN THE HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM EDUCATION AND TRAINING

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## INTRODUCTION

The service sector in most developed economy contributes more than 70% of GDP and offers employment to more than 75% of the population. In our current competitive business environment, improvement of service is not optional but a matter of survival and a necessity for success in service-oriented companies. The mission of the hospitality and tourism management program is to educate and train professionals to provide quality services to guests. While we educate and train our students on technical aspects of services such as knowledge and professional skills, our industry recruiters have been constantly telling us that they are looking to hire graduates with good service attitude and behavior (Carbonara, 2011). The service guru. Albrecht (1992), defined service attitude and behavior as the "Spirit of Services" that is going above and beyond the bare minimum, which is being attentive to the person behind the need, and being there psychologically and emotionally as well as physically. In organizational theory, such behavior - *going above and beyond job descriptions to fulfill or even exceed customer expectations*, is defined as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). OCB are individual contributions in the workplace that are discretionary, good for the organization, and not contractually rewarded (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith et al., 1983). Empirical evidences suggest that OCBs are positively related to a variety of important organizational outcomes, such as customer satisfaction, revenue and operating efficiency (Organ et al., 2006).

One challenge facing educators is to promote and nurture OCB in educational programs. There is little research on investigating how OCBs could be taught and promoted in educational curriculum. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between students' OCB and service quality when OCB theories are taught and promoted in the curriculum.

The research design includes two phases: Phase 1: Theory Building. OCB concepts and theories were introduced and taught in a hospitality service class. Phase 2: Practice and Evaluation. Survey study will be conducted in a student-run restaurant on campus to test the hypothesis that higher level of OCB among students are associated with higher level of service quality perceptions among customers. This study only addresses the first phase of the research.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we meant that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable."

Organ (1988) described the following five categories of OCBs:

*Conscientiousness:* whereby employees do more than just the minimum
*Altruism:* where employees concern and help others selflessly
*Civic virtue*: employees concern and participate responsibly in the political life of the organization such as defending the organizational policies and practices
*Sportsmanship:* whereby people have proper consideration for fairness, do not complain but have positive attitudes
*Courtesy*: where people treat others politely and courtly

OCBs represent one of the most widely studied topics in organizational behavior research (Coyle-Shapiro, et. Al, 2004). The OCB concept has increasingly been applied in the hospitality context in recent years (e.g. Ma et al, 2013; Lu et. al, 2013; Liang, 2012; Kim et. al, 2011; Nadri and Tanova, 2010; Cho and Johanson, 2008). Research indicated that many service encounters in the hospitality industry required unscripted behavior or performance that flexibly and innovatively meets customer needs and expectations. Ma et al. (2013) suggested "While job description and scripts may prescribe what is to be done, the way in which that service is delivered may be much more variable and discretionary effort." Research findings of Bienstock (2006) also indicted that OCBs increased 38% service quality and 25% customer satisfaction.

Literature suggest that OCB may be a more critical component of creating customer satisfaction (Ma et al. 2013). It is necessary to promote OCB in the hospitality education curriculum. This study is to introduce and teach OCB concepts and theories in a hospitality service class

RESEARCH METHOD

In the Phase One of the studay, two-class sessions (6 hours) were spent on teaching OCB theory and its impact on organizational efficiency and customer satisfaction. The author selected a hospitality service class and conducted two three-hour lectures. In the first lecture, the concept of OCBs was introduced and five categories of OCBs were defined and explained. The research on the benefits of OCB was discussed. In the second lecture, literature on the determinant of OCB was introduced and discussed. Quizzes were conducted to assess the student's understanding of OCB concepts and theories at the end of the second lecture.

RESULTS

This study only reports the first phase of the research. The class chosen for this research is a hospitality service class. Twenty students enrolled in the class and 60% were female. Seventy percent of the students are juniors and 30% are seniors. Students learn the concept and theory of service and service quality in the hospitality industry. OCB was an especial topic for the class. Students were provided extra credits in taking the quiz at the end of lectures.

Two three-hour lectures were conducted in two days in April 2014. In the first lecture, the author started the class with a story of OCB (e,g, The Good "Sam" story in Organ's book , 1988). The concept of OCB was introduced and the five categories of OCB by Organ were defined. Examples were used to explain the concepts. For instance. Conscientiousness was defined as "doing more than just minimum". Examples included:
Volunteer for extra work assignments
Come in early without extra pay to complete a project
Go above and beyond the call of duty to satisfy a guest's need

Other class activities included the discussion among groups of 4 students. Each student was asked to think of 3 examples of OCB he/she experienced as a guest or an employee. They then shared these examples with their group members. Each group selected 2 OCB examples to share with the whole class. The activities reinforced student's understanding of OCBs. Table 1 shows the results of OCBs shared by students in the class. Students were able to give examples of Altruism, followed by conscientiousness. Students had a hard time to give examples on sportsmanship.

Table 1: Students' examples of OCBs

| OCB Categories | Examples (Numbers) n=12 | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| Conscientiousness | 3 (25%) | i.e.does not take extra breaks during work |
| Altruism | 7 (58%) | i.e. help a co-worker to complete a project, give a helping hands for a co-worker |
| Civic virtue: | 1 (7.5%) | i.e. attending workshops that are not mandatory |
| Sportsmanship | 0 | |
| Courtesy | 1 (7.5%) | ie. try to handle a difficulty guest for a co-worker |

In the second lecture, the author asked students to list the benefits of OCB to an organization. Table 2 showed that most students mentioned the low rate of employer turnover as the top benefit of OCB, followed by "create social capital" and "attract and retain good employees"

Table 2: Student responses on the benefits of OCBs

| OCB Benefits | Student Responses n=20 | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| Enhance productivity | 0 | |
| Free up resources | 0 | |
| Attract and retain good employees | 8 | i.e.Supporting working environment and a sense of belonging |
| Create social capital | 10 | i.e. better communication and stronger groups |
| Low rate of turnover | 17 | i.e. the helping environment makes employees like to go to work, treated as a big family |
| Enhance organizational effectiveness | 0 | |

The literature on how to encourage OCB in the workplace was also discussed in the lecture. Leadership was single out as an important factor that might shape the work environment to provide greater opportunities for OCB.

At the end of the second class, students completed the quiz on OCBs. There are 10 multiple choice questions in the quiz and each question worths1 point. Five questions are related to the category of OCB. Three questions tests the understanding of the OCB benefits. Two questions are related to encouraging OCB in the work place. Table 3 showed the quiz result. Fifty percent of the students received the score of 8 and 3% received 9, and 5% received 10. Seventy percent of the students received a grade B and above from the quiz.

Table 3 Quiz results of OCBs

| Grade n=20 | 5 points | 6 points | 7 points | 8 points | 9 points | 10 points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Frequency | 1 | 2 | 3 | 10 | 3 | 1 |
| Percentage | 5% | 10% | 15% | 50% | 15% | 5% |

DISCUSSION

The phase one of the research only addressed the theory building of OCB in the classroom. Various teaching methods were applied such as storytelling, lectures, group discussions and the in-class test. The results showed that students were able to identify different types of OCBs. They could also see the benefits of OCBs to an organization. The quiz results indicated that students had the basic understanding of OCB theory and concepts. In the next phase of the study, students will be observed and evaluated if they might engage in OCB in a work environment (e.g. managing the student-run restaurant). The study will also evaluate if OCBs are related to positive service comments from guests in the student-run restaurants

The results of this study will provide empirical findings on promoting OBC in educational curriculum to prepare graduates with good service attitude and behavior for future employment.

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# EMPLOYEES' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE ISLAMIC HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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## ABSTRACT

A core construct of emotional intelligence is empathy that is essential in developing quality of service experiences, particularly in the hospitality industry where customers seek interaction with host communities and an emotional and cultural link to the places they visit. The article uses the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1980) in an Islamic context to determine hospitality employees' predisposition to engage in empathic relations in delivery of services. The results observed were vastly different from patterns in normative values, which are likely to be attributed in part by both cultural and industry contexts. Managerial implications are discussed, along with suggestions for future research.

Key words: Hotel industry; Service experience, Empathy, Interpersonal Reactivity Index.

## INTRODUCTION

In a travel setting, tourists seek interaction with host communities and an emotional and cultural link to the places they visit (ITB, 2011). Tourists not only expect professional services, but also seek positive emotional experiences when consuming tourism and leisure services. This has induced increasing attention in recent years to the role of empathy among other components in the delivery of quality services (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1994) but, to the best of our knowledge, there is a void of literature that has to date sought to actually identifying levels of empathy within hospitality employees of an Islamic destination. In line with an attempt to fill up this void, the present investigation aims to determine how well positioned the emergent Iranian hospitality industry is in terms of empathic relations, to compete in an increasingly challenging market place.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Empirical evidence posits that EI correlates positively with individual and job performance and more broadly even life success (Newman, Moncarz, & Kay, 2014). A core construct of emotional intelligence is empathy (Goleman, 2006) that is essential in developing memorable service experiences, particularly in the tourism and hospitality industry. Its importance in hospitality is of such an extent that in many mutli-dimensional scales introduced by researchers to measure service quality, empathy, either with this name or an implicit name, have been regarded as one of the dimensions. As two examples from the former group of scales, LODGQUAL and HISTOQUAL introduced by Getty and Thompson (1994) and Frochot and Hughes (2000),

respectively and as an example from the latter group, in a recent investigation by Wu and Ko (2013) "interaction quality" (somehow refers to empathy) along with two other dimensions of environmental and outcome quality, make an attempt to measure overall service quality in the hotel industry.

METHOD

*Measuring empathy*

The Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI) (Davis, 1980) is the predominant instrument used to measure dispositional empathy and is employed in this investigation. Several studies have demonstrated its reliability and validity in a variety of contexts mostly in social and personality psychology and also in cross-cultural settings (Ozdikmenli-demir and Demir, 2014), yet no comprehensive studies have examined the IRI in an Islamic hospitality industry. The IRI comprises 28 items, with seven items to assess each of the four sub-scales PT, F, EC and PD as discussed earlier.

*Procedure and sample*

At the main step of sampling, eight front-line employees from 18 four- or five star hotels located in two primary tourism destinations in Iran -the cities of Tehran or Shiraz- were randomly invited to participate in this investigation in July 2012 (n=144). In each hotel one employee from each of the six *uniform services* divisions (Bell Stand, Private Branch Exchange, Valet Parking, Shuttle Driver, Concierge, and Door person) and two from Front Desk were invited by random sampling. Of the 144 surveys distributed, 109 questionnaires were returned, giving a response rate of 76%, with nine surveys excluded from analyses due to missing data.

RESULTS

*Gender*

Significant differences were observed across only two of the four subscales as a function of gender. Females showed a significantly higher tendency to feel PD (emotional response) than males, whereas males showed a higher predisposition to engage in cognitive empathic relations with significantly higher scores in PT. Observed scores for males and females across each of the IRI sub-scales demonstrated a significant departure from normative scores. Fantasy, PT, and EC scores for male and female participants were lower than normative values, while PD scores of respondents were significantly higher.

*Generation*

A series of 2x3 ANOVA (gender x generation) showed there was no significant main effects or interaction observed on Fantasy, PT, or EC subscales. PD scores showed a significant main effect for gender ($F(1,94)= 15.72$; $p<0.05$), and generation ($F(1,94)= 3.88$; $p<0.05$). There was no significant generation x gender interaction ($F(2,94)= 1.22$; $p>0.05$). Females recorded higher levels of PD than did males across all generations, with female Baby Boomers reporting highest levels of PD ($M=19.00$) and male Gen Y reporting the lowest ($M= 11.31$). There was no significant difference between male Baby Boomers or male Gen X in levels of PD.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Although this finding contradicts commonly held beliefs that females hold a greater capacity to feel and display appropriate emotions, it is consistent with Özdikmenli-Demir and Demir's (2014) research with a sample of university students. Their findings gained with a culturally specific empathy, the Scale of Ethnocultural Empathy in Turkey located in the neighbourhood of

Iran with some similar cultural aspects, put forward that males's predisposition to understand, recognize and adopt perspectives of different ethnic groups members is significantly higher compared with females. Konrath et al., (2011) showed that over the last 30 years there has been a decline in other- orientated subscales of EC and PT, the most prototypical conceptions of empathy, in American college students. Within their study, limitations in data collection prevented them from reporting differences in empathy levels between genders over time, while the results of this investigation demonstrate some differences in gender across generations. In contrary to Konrath et al' study, in this investigation an increase in other-oriented empathy traits across generations particularly for females is found.

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# INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES in TOURISM

# EVALUATION OF FRENCH LUXURY HOTELS BY UK LEISURE TRAVELERS: AN ONLINE REVIEWS ANALYSIS

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## ABSTRACT

The positioning of French hotel industry is changing due to the 5 stars category creation by French government since 2009. A study by the French Tourism Council shows that a large part of French luxury hotels' consumers comes from the United Kingdom. Consequently, understanding the British travelers' behaviors is critical for French hoteliers. This study aims to deeply understand the evaluation of French luxury hotels by UK leisure travelers. A content analysis of 284 online hotel reviews using Sphinx Lexica V.5 was deployed. The results indicate that the image of French luxury hotels by UK leisure travelers is overall positive.

Key words: French luxury hotels, UK leisure travelers, online hotel reviews.

## INTRODUCTION

In regard to tourist arrivals, France is the most visited destination in the world with 84.7 million of international tourist arrivals in 2013 (DGE, 2014). But despite this, the French tourism industry may seem problematic; it is only ranked third place in terms of revenue with 42.2 billion euros in 2013 after the United States and Spain (DGE, 2014). Indeed, if France would improve the average expenditure per traveler, a high-value service must be offered to tourists. But in a country where the labor and land costs are high, it seems indispensable to attract consumers with high purchasing power who frequent luxury hotels since the spending for accommodation is one of the most important expenditures regarding a tourism stay (Peypoch and Robinot, 2004; Favre-Bonté and Tran, 2013).

Among international travelers, UK travelers represent for France a major foreign market in terms of arrivals and overnight stays. In 2013, with 12.6 million of arrivals and 85.2 million of overnight stays in France, the UK travelers account for nearly 15 percent of international travelers visiting France. Furthermore, a study by the French Tourism Council shows that 62 percent of French luxury hotels' consumers are foreigners and that a large part of them comes from the United Kingdom. Thus, it appears essential for France to improve its luxury hotel industry in order to improve the average expenditure per traveler. This first needs a good knowledge of consumers' expectations. But in an industry increasingly competitive like hotel, how should the French luxury hotel industry be? To answer this research question, it is necessary to know what image of the French luxury hotel industry foreign travelers have, especially those from the United Kingdom. Thereby, this research aims to identify the image of French luxury hotels seen by UK leisure travelers in order to improve the average expenditure per traveler from this major market. For this purpose, owing to the increasing

importance of online user-generated content (UGC) in the decision making process (Sweeney, Soutar, and Mazzarol, 2008; O'Connor, 2010), a content analysis of online hotel reviews posted on social media platforms by UK leisure travelers is deployed. Given that the strategic importance of social media for tourism companies' competitiveness relies on their marketing potential in terms of enhancing brand awareness, customer engagement, as well as customer loyalty (Jansen et al., 2009; Leung et al., 2013). In addition, consumers' reviews on social media could provide strategic information for tourism companies in product improvement and product development since these reviews could be an excellent innovation source (Jansen et al., 2009; Chan and Denizci Guillet, 2011; Leung et al., 2013).

ONLINE UGC ROLE IN MANAGEMENT

According to Sigala (2015), online UGC can create reciprocal benefits for consumers and suppliers. On the one hand, thanks to online UGC, potential consumers can learn about products and services directly from other consumers. These experiences, in turn, may influence potential customers' intention to purchase (Kim and Hardin, 2010; Soo Ong, 2012; Milwood, Marchiori, and Zach, 2013) since UGC has augmented in credibility in the perception of consumers as an unbiased input in the decision making process (Sweeney, Soutar, and Mazzarol, 2008; O'Connor, 2010) and consumers tend to trust better their peers rather than marketing messages from companies (Buhalis and Law, 2008; Jansen et al., 2009). On the other hand, the analysis of UGC is an efficient way to gain a deep comprehension of customers' feeling about their experiences with the supplier (Pullman, McGuire, and Cleveland, 2005; Dickinger and Koltringer, 2011). Hence, monitoring online UGC provides an opportunity for suppliers to understand past experiences and prospective customers' expectations (Huang and Benyoucef, 2013; Milwood, Marchiori, and Zach, 2013). Online UGC can play a pivotal role in offering a fast and an extent free advertising for hotel organizations (Nusair et al., 2013). By analyzing and understanding online consumer reviews, managers could gain knowledge concerning which element influence to form a positive brand image (O'Connor, 2010; Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013; Huang and Benyoucef, 2013). UGC could also enable hotel managers to make management decisions in order to improve service operations, maximize profits and optimize revenues (Kim and Hardin, 2010; Huang and Benyoucef, 2013; Memarzadeh and Chang, 2015). Therefore, from a management perspective, according to management literature, UGC could be used by managers for improving existing products and services or developing new products and services and for building brand and attracting new customers (e.g. Chan and Denizci Guillet, 2011; Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013; Leung et al., 2013). Consequently, a number of companies have already used social networking websites as a tool to analyze customer experiences (Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013).

METHODOLOGY

The broad goal of this study is to apprehend the evaluation of French luxury hotels by UK leisure tourists through analyzing their positive and negative experiences they had when staying in a French luxury hotel in order to help hotel managers better meet their UK clients' expectations. Concretely, the design of this research is as follows:
- Identify the main themes mentioned in the online hotel reviews.
- Identify the main strengths of the French luxury hotels.
- Identify the main weaknesses of the French luxury hotels that hotel managers should pay attention to improve.

*Data Collection Method*

In this research, data were collected from three main hotel reviews websites: www.tripadvisor.com, www.booking.com, and www.vinivi.com. TripAdvisor offers travelers' evaluation in the form of comments and ratings of travel and hospitality organizations such as hotels and restaurants. Acting as the largest traveler-generated content website around the world (O'Connor, 2010; Memarzadeh and Chang, 2015), TripAdvisor also offers travelers the opportunity to interact with their peers (O'Connor, 2010; Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013). Booking is a hotel reservation platform where potential consumers

can read experiences from other consumers. These experiences are written by true consumers since after their stay at a hotel booked on Booking, consumers systematically receive from Booking a questionnaire to share their experiences. Vinivi is a French hotel reviews website that has a lower visibility than the previous two. This is due to its recent creation. This website was created in 2006, but since 2012 it only publishes the authentic reviews. It means, before posting a review, the website checks its veracity. This concerns the date of stay, the name of the hotel where the reviewer stayed and a proof of payment. Since 2014, February 13th this website was certified by AFNOR (French Agency for Normalization). Therefore, there is normally no place for fake reviews on this website.

Reviews that were the subject of analysis in this study were only related to 5 star hotels (luxury hotels) situated in France. These reviews concerned both positive and negative experiences. However, reviews to be used in this research have to answer seven criteria below:
- They have been posted by a UK tourist who stayed at a French luxury hotel for leisure purpose.
- They have been posted over the past 12 months, between October 2013 and October 2014.
- They have to be written in English.
- They have to be composed of at least 20 words.
- It is necessary to be able to determine the sex of the reviewer.
- It is necessary to be able to determine the stay context.
- Only single reviews are selected.

We chose to study only the reviews posted over the past 12 months since we wanted to have a current image of the French luxury hotels. Based on the reviews' selection criteria mentioned above, we collected 284 reviews (153 on TripAdvisor, 121 on Booking and 10 on Vinivi) that are the subject of a content analysis.

*Data Analysis*

In this research, a content analysis of 284 online hotel reviews using Sphinx Plus² Edition Lexica V.5 was deployed. The content analysis interface of Sphinx Lexica allows us to turn back on reviews already coded and provides us with information on the characteristics of the text (number of words, richness of words used) (cf. Figure 1).

Figure 1. Content analysis interface of Sphinx Lexica V.5
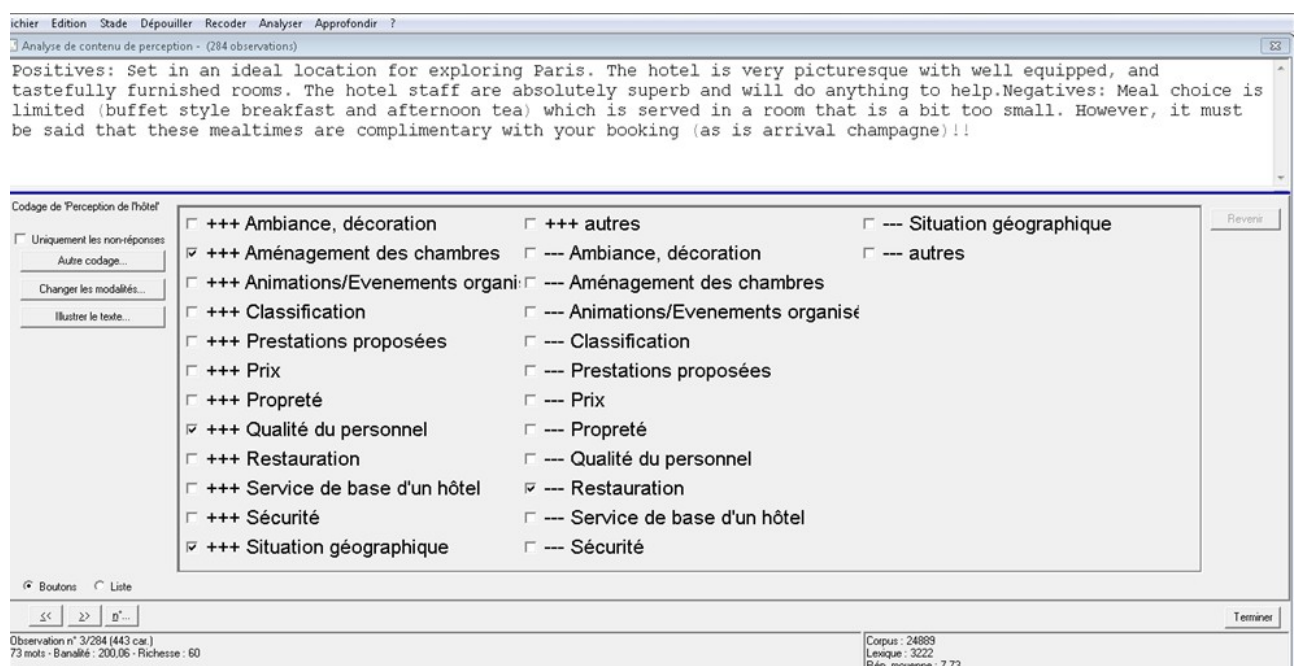
Content analysis is a research method that has gained popularity in recent years, specifically in the hospitality and tourism research (Stringam and Gerdes Jr, 2010) and this method is considered as an adaptable tool for analyzing text-based data (Cavanagh, 1997). Moreover, in the hospitality, tourism and travel industry, several researchers have used content analysis method for analyzing online reviews (e.g. Holcomb, Okumus, and Bilgihan, 2010; O'Connor, 2010; Stringam and Gerdes Jr, 2010; Sparks and Browning, 2011). Given the exploratory nature of this research, a grounded approach by applying inductive analysis was adopted.

Regarding the data analysis process, according to the procedure recommended by Miles and Huberman (1984), firstly, recurring themes have been separately identified by two coders with the utilization of knowledge of prior research and theory. Secondly, the researchers were open to new themes and discoveries in the data analysis. After treating 20 reviews, two researchers compared their results in order to establish, for the rest of the analysis, the list of recurring themes which are below:

- Location: hotel accessibility (signage to find out the hotel easily, parking, access facility for disabled people) and local amenities proximity (tourist sites, railway station, airport, shops, etc.).
- Price: room rates.
- Room arrangement (room size, bedding, bathroom, insulation, air-conditioner, audio-visual equipment).
- Catering (breakfast, restaurant of the hotel).
- Staff (politeness, availability, reactivity, languages).
- Hotel rating (services and equipment provided and tariffs in equation with hotel rating).
- Cleanliness (room, common areas).
- Social and physical ambience (warm atmosphere, other customers, decoration for example).
- Events nearby (concerts, festivals).
- Additional services no included in the room rates (telephone, spa for example).

For a given review, there may be various themes with positive and/or negative connotation. This was carefully taken into consideration by two researchers in the coding phase. Thereby, the coding has been content oriented; it was based on the information (positive and/or negative) provided in each online review. After having separately coded 284 reviews by two researchers using the list of recurring themes identified in the first step, in order to augment external validity, a collective approach was operated: two researchers conducted a comparison of their coding. Specifically, for reviews where there were disparities in terms of coding, two researchers re-coded them together to reach at a consensus solution.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The demographics analysis determines that 52.8 percent of reviews are written by men and 47.2 percent by women. This meets the result by Barreda and Bilgihan (2013). In their study, these authors found out that among 920 online hotel reviews 54 percent were posted by men and 46 percent by women. So, it could be said that gender does not influence the act of posting a review on a UGC website. Furthermore, 84.8 percent of reviews are posted by tourists who traveled as a couple (54.2 percent) or with family (30.6 percent) (cf. Table 1).

Table 1. Sample characteristics

| Stay context | Number of reviews | % |
|---|---|---|
| Couple | 154 | 54.2 |
| Family | 87 | 30.6 |
| Friends | 26 | 9.2 |
| Solo | 15 | 5.3 |
| **Total** | **284** | **100,0** |

As shown in Table 2, three principal themes that are mentioned by more than 50 percent of the sample are respectively "room arrangement", "staff" and "location". It is clear that when referring to service experience in a hotel, the key element is for travelers "room arrangement". Additionally, travelers pay attention to intangible aspects; interacting with hotel staff is one of the most discussed themes by consumers. Furthermore, the hotel "location" also represents a critical element for consumers as it is the third theme the most frequently mentioned.

Table 2. Main themes mentioned in the online hotel reviews

| Main themes | Frequency | % (N = 284) |
|---|---|---|
| Room arrangement | 199 | 70.1 |
| Staff | 159 | 56.0 |
| Location | 147 | 51.8 |
| Social and physical ambience | 129 | 45.4 |
| Catering | 119 | 41.9 |
| Cleanliness | 90 | 31.7 |
| Price | 72 | 25.4 |
| Additional services | 36 | 12.7 |
| Hotel rating | 18 | 6.3 |
| Events nearby | 18 | 6.3 |

Concerning the one sided reviews, among 284 reviews analyzed there are 98 reviews purely positive and 23 reviews purely negative. This could suggest that globally the French luxury hotels are positively evaluated by UK leisure travelers as the recent study by Pantano and Di Pietro (2013) indicates, from a travelers' point of view, the still limited usage of social networks like Facebook as an informative channel, but a large usage of this medium as a direct complaining channel, and customers are more influenced to post negative reviews (Kowalski, 1996). As can be seen in Table 3, among positive experiences the most cited themes by UK leisure travelers are "room arrangement", "staff" and "location" respectively. Among negative experiences the themes frequently cited are "room arrangement" and "price" (cf. Table 4).

Table 3. Main themes positively evaluated

| Main themes positively evaluated | Frequency | % (N = 284) |
|---|---|---|
| Room arrangement | 145 | 51.1 |
| Staff | 143 | 50.4 |
| Location | 134 | 47.2 |
| Social and physical ambience | 88 | 31.0 |
| Catering | 87 | 30.6 |
| Cleanliness | 82 | 28.9 |
| Price | 20 | 7.0 |
| Additional services | 20 | 7.0 |
| Events nearby | 10 | 3.5 |
| Hotel rating | 9 | 3.2 |

Regarding the main strengths of the French luxury hotels, this study highlights three points: "location", "staff" and "cleanliness". Hotel location is a fundamental aspect that has contributed positively to

travelers' experience (O'Connor, 2010; Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013). "Location" is one of the major advantages of French luxury hotels. This theme was positively evaluated by 47.2 percent of reviewers while only 5.6 percent of reviewers negatively evaluated it (cf. Tables 3 & 4). This could be explained primarily by the richness and diversity of France destination that boasts many historical monuments and tourist places compared to the size of the country, which allows each hotel to have a lot of places to visit nearby. Additionally, France has a road and rail network highly developed that allows a majority of hotels to be located in a geographical area easily accessible. While France destination is often blamed for its poor hospitality towards foreign travelers, this study reveals that the French luxury hotel has a staff highly qualified. Over 50 percent of reviewers highlight the quality of hotel staff. Most travelers agree that hotel staff is available, reactive, open-minded and well-trained particularly in terms of English. This positive evaluation of French hotel staff by travelers could be translated by the negative image of France destination before visiting France, but travelers were pleasantly surprised by the quality of hotel staff during their stay. The cleanliness is also an important element of the French luxury hotel industry for UK leisure travelers' satisfaction; it is interesting that 28.9 percent of reviewers positively evaluated the cleanliness theme while only 2.8 percent of them evaluated it negatively (cf. Tables 3 & 4). Therefore, the cleanliness is a critical element that could enhance the travelers' experience in hotels (O'Connor, 2010; Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013).

Table 4. Main themes negatively evaluated

| Main themes negatively evaluated | Frequency | % (N = 284) |
|---|---|---|
| Room arrangement | 62 | 21.8 |
| Price | 52 | 18.3 |
| Social and physical ambience | 41 | 14.4 |
| Catering | 33 | 11.6 |
| Staff | 16 | 5.6 |
| Location | 16 | 5.6 |
| Additional services | 16 | 5.6 |
| Hotel rating | 9 | 3.2 |
| Cleanliness | 8 | 2.8 |
| Events nearby | 8 | 2.8 |

With regard to the main weaknesses of the French luxury hotels, two real weaknesses that emerge from the analysis are "price" and "additional services". This study shows that UK leisure travelers evaluated negatively the pricing by French luxury hotels. Indeed, 18.3 percent of reviewers had a negative perception towards the pricing by French luxury hotels, while only 7.0 percent evaluated it positively (cf. Tables 3 & 4). Furthermore, this negative perception of the price is not only linked to room rates, but also to other additional services. Many travelers criticize French luxury hotels for charging expensively for breakfasts, not including certain services in the room rates and billing them expensively for these services (wifi, telephone, spa, parking, etc.). This negative perception could be explained by the fact that the current economic climate has reduced the purchasing power of customers and that the average price by hotel room has declined sharply since the economic crisis. Perhaps, French luxury hotels may not sufficiently adapt their prices to these evolutions.

Finally, the study also shows three themes that have been the subject of many reviews both positive and negative. However, positive reviews are more important than negative. These themes concern "room arrangement", "catering" and "social and physical ambience". "Room arrangement" is the theme the most frequently mentioned. However, the evaluation of this theme is mixed: 51.1 percent of reviews were positive and 21.8 percent negative (cf. Tables 3 & 4). This is explained by the fact that a large number of sub-themes were taken into account by travelers when posting reviews. Indeed, 21.8 percent of reviewers believe that the rooms do not meet their expectations and that they could be

improved. In this regard, for them, the room size is a little small and bathrooms are quite outdated. About catering, in France it is considered a cultural particularity. The French gastronomy is well-known around the world and this should be one of the major strengths of the French luxury hotel industry. Nevertheless, while 29.6 percent of reviewers positively assessed this theme, 12.3 percent evaluated it negatively (cf. Tables 3 & 4). Indeed, the catering theme concerns both the hotel restaurant and breakfast. It is often that the breakfast is frequently cited negatively both because of its high price as seen above and its mediocre quality. This may be partly explained by the fact that the British clientele is accustomed to savory and copious breakfasts of high quality (full English breakfasts), but French luxury hotels are supposed to offer their UK customers continental breakfasts that should satisfy a large clientele. With reference to "social and physical ambience", some French luxury hotels do not necessarily respond to customers' expectations. For example, some hotels are outdated and some complain about the noise from other guests.

## CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS

The research helped clearly identify the image of French luxury hotel industry by UK leisure travelers. This image is overall positive. The "French luxury hotel product" is characterized by main assets in terms of location, staff and cleanliness. However, this product could still be improved at the level of room size, bathroom, catering and ambience. More specifically, the price and additional services represent the main weaknesses of French luxury hotels.

In line with the work by Memarzadeh and Chang (2015), this research sheds light on the importance of online reviews by hotel guests to provide better hotel services. Because of this growing importance of online reviews, it is necessary for hoteliers to allocate the necessary amount of resources to analyze reviews in order to identify features that require attention. This could help increase customer satisfaction, improve services and products quality and reinforce brand image (Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013) as online reviews are becoming a critical element for hotel businesses to better determine consumers' expectations.

Like all research, this research suffers from several limitations. It used a relatively small sample size and only treated online hotel reviews from leisure travelers. Then, in order to better identify the image of French luxury hotel industry by UK travelers, it would be interesting for future studies to analyze a larger sample and to include reviews from business travelers, given that they represent an important market share of the luxury hotel industry. Furthermore, although every effort has been taken into account to reduce coding errors in this study, the content analysis method gives a certain place to the subjectivity (O'Connor, 2010). This may lead researchers to put a review in one theme rather than in another or to evaluate it positively or negatively. Only the reviewer itself can guarantee 100 percent this interpretation. In this regard, further quantitative research is needed to follow up on and validate the findings of this study. Finally, via this research, in the French luxury hotel industry context, we observed that some hotel managers have begun to consider online reviews by responding to consumers who posted their experiences on TripAdvisor. Although this does not fall within the objectives of this research, it seems necessary to conduct research on actual actions conducted by hoteliers and travelers' perception towards their experiences shared on UGC websites.

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# IDENTIFYING TOURISM INFORMATION SEARCH CHARACTERISTICS ON THE SMARTPHONE

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ABSTRACT

Mobile technology shapes tourism information search (TIS) behavior. This research investigates the smartphone-based TIS activities and attempts to understand the related search characteristics. Two-staged studies using both qualitative and quantitative approaches are conducted and seven major behavioral factors which identify the structure between observed indicators and latent constructs are extracted. The research findings provide a basis for testing the relationships among the latent constructs and facilitate a further knowledge of the TIS process through the use of smartphones.
Key words: Tourism information search behavior, Smartphone-based tourism information search characteristics.

## INTRODUCTION

Many people's search for tourism-related information has shifted to web-enabled cell phones with mobile Internet access. As smartphone users gain more experience with the Web and the flow of information (e.g., the gathering, assimilation and using of information) becomes increasingly complex, their needs will expand (Gómez-Barroso, Bacigalupo, Nikolov, Companó & Feijóo, 2012). Attention should be focused on the new ways that people have to retrieve tourism information.

Previous studies have indicated that mobile technology changes search behavior in terms of tourism information (Yuan, Gretzel, & Fesenmaier, 2006; Kramer, Modsching, Hogen and Gretzel; 2007). The TIS process may be composed of a set of complex interactions with people and technology. A few studies have focused on how individuals use a smartphone to search for tourism information (e.g., Wang, Xiang and Fesenmaier 2014b; Lamsfus, Wang, Alzua-Sorzabal and Xiang, 2014). However, little is known about the search process involving the smartphone. For example, TIS involves more social and collaborative aspects with the advancement of Web 2.0 technology. The limited functionalities of smartphones in terms of information processing and storing may be the constraints for search activities as well.

Therefore, to gain a better understanding of the search characteristics of smartphone users, we investigate what types of activities are relevant to mobile-based TIS, and which activity structures are involved. Two-stage studies have been conducted, which address these questions with different methodologies. The research findings may contribute to the existing literature on TIS behavior and be applicable to other aspects of TIS.

BACKGROUND

We apply the conceptual model of Web-based TIS (Ho, Lin and Chen, 2012) as a guiding theoretical framework to identify the search characteristics underlying mobile searching. It presents the temporal order in a search process as consisting of four stages from an online environment to an offline setting. The information-seeking experiences constitute eight common elements, including processing, utilizing and disseminating information. Hence, this model is an appropriate theoretical lens for use in classifying the activities that smartphone users extract from their TIS.

METHODOLOGY

We refer to the methods of Reddy and Jansen (2008) and Ho, Lin and Chen (2012). Our first study examines TIS in a small group setting through semi-structured interviews and on-site observations. The interview starts with the question: "How do you search for tourism information by using your smartphone?" and provides additional requested information through the follow-up questions. The 21 participants' narrative descriptions and related observations yielded more than 150 pages of transcribed interviewing data and field notes for analysis. We also employ content analysis to empirically investigate the data at the paragraph, sentence, and word level by openly coding the responses to acquire an overview of the categories and their properties related to smartphone users' TIS activities (Krippendoff, 2004). At this point, we do not employ any theoretical framework to guide that analysis, but allowed the codes to emerge from the data (Glaser, 1978; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The task of checking the reliability of the open coding is undertaken following the completing of the open-coding for each transcript. A researcher is employed to independently code three of the interview transcripts and compare his renditions with our work. Intercoder reliability was measured based on the formula proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994). The result for the first interview is 89%, which is better than the criteria of 70% proposed by Miles and Huberman. The results rise to 92% and 94% as the procedure is repeated for the second and third transcripts. Since the three transcripts are all coded prior to the checking procedure, the findings might represent a consensus regarding the analyses. The theoretical sampling procedure follows the concept. The data collection continues until it reaches theoretical saturation to the extent that there are no additional data from additional cases that develop new insights or extend/refine the insights already gained (Taylor and Bogdan, 1998). Thus, we stop interviewing after 21 informants have been interviewed. Seven major behavioral characteristics are identified, including 1) internal search, 2) individual mobile search, 3) saving information in the smartphones, 4) preliminary collaborative TIS, 5) barriers to TIS, 6) an end of mobile search, and 7) summarizing information through the use of the smartphone.

Our second study uses a survey to gather data on TIS from a larger population sample. The findings of the first study along with the literature are the sources used to develop the initial pools of items for the identifying constructs. The items/questions are adapted from previous studies by adding, removing or modifying the statements to make the domain of the constructs relevant to this study. As to the new constructs, the items are mainly developed through the interviewing data. The proposed measures are pre-tested by means of an expert review to ensure that they are suitable for application in TIS activities. Then, a pilot test is conducted with 30 respondents who are requested to review the items to evaluate the constructs, semantics, length and format of the questionnaire. The instrument is revised and purified according to their feedback.

Data are obtained using a traditional paper-based survey. A strong relationship is identified between dependence on smartphones and university students' purchasing behavior (Suki, 2013). In addition,

tourism information search behavior may differ according to searchers, travel products/services and situational factors. Therefore, university students who are over 18 years old and who searched for tourism information using their smartphones before taking overnight domestic trips within the past 6 months constitute the sample used in this study. Convenience sampling is used to draw subjects from three universities with locations in northern and central Taiwan. A total of 414 questionnaires are distributed. Of these participants, 88 responses are removed because of their failure to qualify. In total, 326 valid questionnaires are obtained for the data analysis.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

A series of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is conducted to delineate the underlying factors for each construct. We use criteria based on eigenvalues being greater than 1 to extract the factors. The principal component method with varimax rotation is also used, with all factors that are less than 0.5 being suppressed. In addition, each scale was subjected to a Cronbach alpha reliability test, where the values of alpha are required to be more than the generally accepted required level of 0.7 (Foreman et al., 1998). As a result, all of the constructs achieve the standard except for the dimensions of two constructs that are slightly below 0.7. Two uni-dimensional constructs were identified, including internal search and summarizing information. The other constructs are all multi-dimensional constructs, with two or more factors being extracted. The detailed estimation results are shown in Table 1 (at the end of the paper).

In addition, based on Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Lee (2003), Harmon's one factor test is used to test whether the common method variance exists. The results show that of 13 factors that are extracted, the eigenvalue is greater than 1 and the explained variance is 67.2%. As the majority of the variance is not accounted for by one single factor, the common method variance does not pose a problem in this study.

The means of the delineated factors of the multi-dimensional constructs will be calculated and used in sequential analyses. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) will be performed to specify the structure between observed indicators and latent constructs and to test the validity of the measurement model. Subsequently, structural equations among latent constructs will be examined by using the PLS.

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Table 1.  Exploratory factor analysis results of 7 constructs

| Construct | Dimensions | Items | Factor loading | Cronbach α value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Internal search | | The past travel experiences | .834 | .818 |
| | | The experiences of TIS | .817 | |
| | | The recalled travel experiences impacted on the on-going search | .793 | |
| | | The already known | .773 | |
| Mobile search | Browsing & comparison | Link following | .747 | .884 |
| | | Back and forward going | .738 | |
| | | To request more result pages | .702 | |
| | | To select a document for review | .701 | |
| | | Scrolling | .660 | |
| | | To re-visit earlier result pages or search history | .656 | |
| | | Many Web browser windows open in parallel | .640 | |
| | | Scanning a Web page | .523 | |
| | Using keywords | To use the items in the hot list provided by search engines | .723 | .809 |
| | | To use the hot keywords provided by search engines | .704 | |
| | | To reformulate my search queries using the same search engine | .653 | |
| | | To start with keywords that represent the given topic | .627 | |
| | | To change the keyword and narrow down the search results | .597 | |
| | Social networking sites (SNS) | To review e-WOMs | .756 | .705 |
| | | Doing searches by accessing the home page of the portal website | .683 | |
| | | To visit the SNSs or blogs | .547 | |
| | Using different search engines | To switch search engines | .928 | .885 |
| | | To use multiple search engines | .906 | |
| | Using Apps & bookmarks | Using Apps as a short cut seeking | .782 | .696 |
| | | To use bookmarks with the URL of a visited website | .706 | |

| Construct | Dimensions | Items | Factor loading | Cronbach $\alpha$ value |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Barriers to mobile search | Website-related problems | The found information not corresponding to my needs | .772 | .787 |
| | | The failure to link the web pages | .762 | |
| | | Poor layout of the web pages | .739 | |
| | | Web pages filled with text and without photos | .725 | |
| | | Web pages being out-of-date | .621 | |
| | Device-related problems | The small screen size of a mobile handset | .825 | .694 |
| | | A malfunction in the mobile phone | .803 | |
| | | Limited battery usage | .696 | |
| Preliminary collaborative TIS | | Cooperative browsing of results | .887 | .898 |
| | | To exchange opinions | .867 | |
| | | To inquire of useful information available | .861 | |
| | | Concurrent seeking for information | .823 | |
| | | To share search strategies | .779 | |
| An end of mobile search | Personal factors | The limited battery usage | .846 | .823 |
| | | To attend to other personal affairs | .823 | |
| | | To want to quit | .785 | |
| | Factors of mobile Internet/websites | The failure to surf or search for | .857 | .812 |
| | | Slow speed of connection to the website | .744 | |
| | | The failures to link the web pages | .704 | |
| | | No wanted information being available | .610 | |
| Summarizing information in the smartphones | | Information compiling and editing | .864 | .722 |
| | | Information filtering | .807 | |
| | | To store the found information | .740 | |
| Saving information in the smartphone | | To clone web pages | .763 | |
| | | To deliver information by LINE | .737 | |
| | | To save information as bookmarks | .714 | .739 |
| | | To save documents in smartphones | .698 | |
| | | To post information on Facebook | .593 | |

# FACTORS INFLUENCING USE INTENTION OF ONLINE SHARING ECONOMY PLATFORMS IN TOURISM

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## ABSTRACT

Recently, sharing economy has been paid attention as a major economic trend. Sharing economy, often used as collaborative consumption, is a kind of consumption that people share goods and services online. This study examined the determinant values of use intention of online sharing economy platforms. Survey data from 248 college students samples were used to test an empirical model. As results, economic value, social values and information values have positive effects on use intention of online sharing economy platforms and economic value's effect was highest among them. In addition, price sensitivity moderated the relationship between the value and use intention.

Key words: Online marketing, SNS, Accommodation, Rent Car, Tourism

## INTRODUCTION

According to developments of SNS and other IT platforms, many companies use them as a great marketing tool of their products and services, and had brought the economic term 'sharing economy (Gold, 2010; Chow and Chan, 2008).' Sharing economy, often used as collaborative consumption, is a kind of consumption that people share goods and services online (Hamari, Sjöklint, and Ukkonen, 2013). It can be described as a blue ocean and a new business paradigm which will dominate the future (Botman, 2011; Gold, 2004). As using SNS (social networking site), sharing economy has become effective, convenience, and reliable way to get an accommodation and to rent a car. There are successful businesses such as Airbnb, Zipcar, Kozaza, and Socar in sharing economy platform.

Previous studies examined comprehensive analysis about sharing economy, case studies of some platforms adopted sharing economy as a business model and the comparison of social enterprises which have similar characteristics with sharing economy but this study examines the determinant values of use intention of online sharing economy platforms.

## MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS

Figure 1 presents a proposed model of the casual relations among economic values, social values, information values, price sensitivity and the use intention of online sharing economy platforms.

Fig.1 Research model
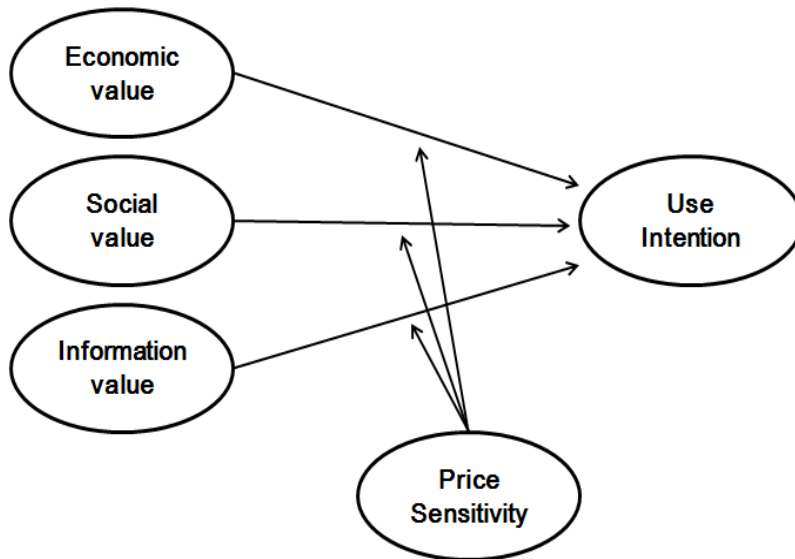


Based on the above conceptual framework designed to study the effects on platform use intention, 6 hypothesis are proposed as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Hypothesis

| No. | Hypothesis |
|-----|-----------|
| 1 | Economic values are positively related to the use intention of online sharing |
| 2 | Social values are positively related to the use intention of online sharing |
| 3 | Information values are positively related to the use intention of online sharing platforms. |
| 4 | Price sensitivity has a moderating effect on the relation between economic values and the use intention of online sharing platforms. |
| 5 | Price sensitivity has a moderating effect on the relation between social values and the use intention of online sharing platforms. |
| 6 | Price sensitivity has a moderating effect on the relation between information values and the use intention of online sharing platforms. |

## METHODOLOGY

This study conducted a survey of 20-30 aged college students and graduate students. Before the survey, the explanation of some features and the using procedure of Airbnb site was done to research targets. The sample of this paper consisted of 248, (male were accounted for 51.6%, female accounted for 48.4% of the total). This study also surveyed the period of use of SNS, average annual travel frequency and knowledge about the sharing economy. And it showed that only 3.6% of respondents had understood sharing economy thoroughly and had experiences using of its sites.

And the exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine the reliability and validation between each measurements item using SPSS 18.0, and confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using AMOS 18.0.
RESULTS

This paper conducted multiple regression analysis to test hypotheses. The results of multiple regression analysis are reflected in Table 2. The results indicate positive and statistically significant relations between EV and UI(B=.403, β=.414, t=8.060, p=.000), SV and UI(B=.121, β=.111, t=2.022, p=.044), and IV and UI(B=.388 β=.339, t=6.239, p=.000).

In order to analyze the effect of Price sensitivity as a moderator variable, interaction terms were made(EV*PS, SV*PS, IV*PS). According to the results, PS has a positive moderating effect on the relation between EV and UI(B=.190, β=.224, t=2.764, p=.006). And PS has negative moderating effects on the relations between SV and UI(B=-.148, β=-.149, t=-1.969, p=.049), and IV and UI(B=-.211, β=-.231, t=-2.648, p=.009).

Table 2. Results of regression

| Dependent variable: Use intention (n=248) | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | Independent variable | B | β | t | $R^2$ (Adj. $R^2$) | $\Delta R^2$ | F | p |
| 1 | EV | .403 | .414 | 8.060 | .450(.443) | .450 | 66.453 | .000 |
| | SV | .121 | .111 | 2.022 | | | | .044 |
| | IV | .388 | .339 | 6.239 | | | | .000 |
| 2 | EV | .340 | .349 | 6.162 | .464(.455) | .014 | 52.622 | .000 |
| | SV | .133 | .122 | 2.235 | | | | .026 |
| | IV | .358 | .312 | 5.722 | | | | .000 |
| | PS | .155 | .141 | 2.564 | | | | .011 |
| 3 | EV | .311 | .319 | 5.814 | .510(.496) | .046 | 35.692 | .000 |
| | SV | .141 | .130 | 2.459 | | | | .015 |
| | IV | .357 | .312 | 5.834 | | | | .000 |
| | PS | .119 | .107 | 1.923 | | | | .056 |
| | EV*PS | .190 | .224 | 2.764 | | | | .006 |
| | SV*PS | -.148 | -.149 | -1.969 | | | | .049 |
| | IV*PS | -.211 | -.231 | -2.648 | | | | .009 |

As results, economic value, social values and information values have positive effects on use intention of online sharing economy platforms and economic value's effect was highest among them. In addition, price sensitivity moderated the relationship between the value and use intention.

CONCLUSION

This paper attempted to explore factors influencing the use intention of online sharing economy platforms in tourism. Implications for tourism service are suggested based on the results as follows.

First, the price competitiveness is important, but it is more important to develop differentiated services of online sharing economy platforms which have their own identities. And the findings of this study showed that "Economic values" is the biggest influence on the use intention of online sharing platforms. Online sharing economy platforms have to provide some exclusive services or

special experiences to users and make themselves turn into the fans of the online platforms. Second, online sharing economy platforms should help producers and consumers to build their ties and maintain the relationships between them and hold some events or contests to leads customers to take part in their sites to make them revisit.

However, this study has some limits because the survey was targeted 20-30 aged college students and graduate students specific with platform sites of accommodation and rent car. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct some various surveys targeting a wide variety of ages and occupations with several different types of online sharing economy platforms.

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# EXPORING INFLUENTIAL DETERMINANTS OF TRAVEL APP ADOPTION

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## ABSTRACT

With the increased market penetration of smartphones and the emergence of high-speed wireless network technologies, the tourism industry's interest in using mobile applications (apps) as a means to enhance the tourist experience is rising. However, despite the growing number of companies and organizations that are investing in travel-related apps, there is limited academic research on consumers' intentions to adopt these technological innovations. In this study, the technology adoption model, innovation diffusion theory, and social cognitive theory are utilized to investigate the factors that could affect travel app adoption by tourists visiting rural tourism sites in China. The results show that perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and compatibility are significant antecedents of the intention to use travel apps. Further, self-efficacy indirectly influences the intention to use travel apps through the mediation of outcome expectations. The results do not support social norms as significant predictors of behavioral intention. A discussion and implications are also provided.

Key words: mobile applications, behavioral intention, travel, China

## INTRODUCTION

The uptake of mobile applications, driven by the increasing use of mobile devices (i.e., smartphones and tablets), is generating unprecedented changes in the operation of the travel industry and in how people travel. Despite the promising capacities of travel apps, their adoption is still in the early stages. According to Trip Advisor, although 60% of travelers have downloaded travel apps, only 45% of them used the apps for their travel decision-making (Michaiel, 2011). With increasing numbers of companies and organizations investing in travel-related apps, consumer acceptance and confidence is becoming vital for ensuring a better return on investment and increasing the chances of the successful implementation of the new technology. To further examine this phenomenon, we extracted the factors from three closely related theoretical paradigms, the technology acceptance model (TAM), innovation diffusion theory (IDT), and social cognitive theory (SCT), to form our research framework. Many of these factors have been identified in previous studies on technology adoption and innovation diffusion. By integrating relevant components from these theories, this study extends prior research by examining the synthesized determinants

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of travel mobile apps from the angles of both technology characteristics and users' social cognitive factors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)*

Derived from Ajzen and Fishbein's (1977) theory of reasoned action (TRA), the TAM was proposed specifically to explain computer usage but has since been adopted to explain technology use in various contexts such as consumers' online behavior and mobile service usage (Lin, 2011). The TAM posits that user adoption is based on two key beliefs, namely, perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness. Perceived ease of use refers to the "degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would be free of effort" (Davis, 1989, p.320). In contrast, perceived usefulness is related to the "degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance" (Davis, 1989, p.320). If the technology is easy to use and useful, the user will have a positive attitude toward it, which will in turn increase the user's intention to use it. In the context of information technology (IT) acceptance within the tourism industry, a small number of studies have examined the applicability of the TAM. Kim, Park, and Morrison (2008) applied the TAM and found that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use influenced the intention to use mobile devices in tourism contexts. Ayeh, Au and Law (2013) investigated internet users' intentions to use consumer-generated-media for travel planning with an extended TAM model. The results demonstrated the empirical applicability of the TAM to the context of tourist behavior. Based on the above discussion regarding the TAM framework, the following hypotheses were proposed.

> H1. The perceived usefulness of a travel app has a significant positive effect on the intention to use travel apps.
> H2. The perceived ease of use of a travel app has a significant positive effect on the intention to use travel apps.

*Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT)*

IDT has been widely utilized in studies as a primary theory of innovation adoption (Rogers, 2003). According to IDT, innovation refers to a new product, service, idea, practice, technology, structure, or system, and diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system (Rogers, 2003). IDT provides a set of innovation characteristics that may affect adoption decisions (Agarwal, 2000). These innovation attributes include relative advantage (the degree to which an innovation can offer an advantage over previous ways of performing the same task), complexity (the degree to which an innovation is difficult to use and understand), compatibility (the degree to which an innovation is consistent with the adopter's existing values, beliefs, experiences and needs), observability (the degree to which an innovation is visible to others), and trialability (the degree to which an innovation can be experimented with). Relative advantage and complexity are conceptually overlapped with the TAM's perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use (reversed), respectively. Among these innovation attributes, relative advantage, complexity, and compatibility have been found to be the most frequently identified factors for the adoption and diffusion of IT innovations (Papies & Clement, 2008; Vijayasarathy, 2004). IDT has also been employed to investigate and explain tourism innovations (Hjalager, 2010). Smerenik and Anderson (2011) examined the determinants and driving forces for the diffusion of environmental sustainability innovations in hotels and ski resorts, and complexity was found to be most strongly associated with the adoption of sustainable innovation. Information and communication technology (ICT) implementation in tourism organizations has been a main focus of tourism innovation diffusion. Hung, Yang, Yang and Chuang (2011) examined factors that affected the adoption of online trading systems by travel agencies in Taiwan. Among the three innovation attributes included in their study (compatibility, relative advantage and relative risk), only compatibility affected the adoption decision. As such, according to IDT, relative advantage, complexity, and compatibility will be used in this

study. Because both relative advantage and complexity were captured by the TAM and are presented in Hypotheses 1 and 2, only comparability was predicted in this study to be a significant precursor to travel app adoption.

> H3. Perceived compatibility has a significant positive effect on the intention to use travel apps.

*Social Cognitive Theory (SCT)*

SCT has been recognized as a comprehensive theoretical framework for analyzing human behavior (Bandura, 1986). According to the SCT, human actions are a product of triadic, dynamic, and reciprocal interactions between personal, behavioral and environmental factors (Bandura, 1986). SCT has been widely applied in the information systems (IS) literature, with demonstrated validity (Chiu, Hsu, & Wang, 2006; LaRose & Eastin, 2004; Wang & Wu, 2008). According to SCT, self-regulatory systems mediate external influences and provide a basis for purposeful action (Bandura, 2001). One important factor in self-regulation is people's outcome expectations of an action. People anticipate the likely consequences of their prospective actions and more readily adopt actions that are likely to produce their desired outcomes rather than actions that might bring unrewarding or negative outcomes (Bandura, 2001). Compeau, Higgins & Huff (1999) provided confirmation that outcome expectations impact individuals' adoption of computing technology. They further divided outcome expectations into two categories: performance (improvements in job performance) and personal (changes in image or status or achieving a sense of accomplishment) outcome expectations. Kennedy-Eden and Gretzel (2012) proposed seven service-based functions (navigation, social, mobile marketing, security, transaction, information, and entertainment) and seven customization-based functions (personal preferences, location, security, web access, content addition, aesthetic changes, and the same for all). In accordance with the theoretical proposition, individuals are more likely to use travel apps if they believe that doing so will result in valued outcomes such as economic benefits, efficiency, prestige, or socialization. The expected outcomes from using travel apps might therefore be an important predictor of travel app use intentions, which give rise to the following hypotheses.

> H4: Performance outcome expectations of travel apps have a positive effect on behavioral intention to use travel apps.
> H5. Personal outcome expectations of travel apps have a positive effect on behavioral intention to use travel apps.

As a central construct of SCT, self-efficacy relates to a person's perceived ability to perform a specific behavior (Bandura, 1986). It does not emphasize an individual's actual skills but instead hinges on the degree of the person's confidence in being able to complete a task using those skills (Shu, Tu, & Wang, 2011). People with high self-efficacy are more likely to view difficult tasks as obstacles to be mastered rather than avoided. Previous research has demonstrated a significant link between self-efficacy and a variety of behaviors. For examples, Hsu and Chiu (2004) found internet self-efficacy to be a potentially important driver of people's efforts to use e-services. Ratten (2013) examined computer self-efficacy as a positive predictor of behavioral intentions towards cloud computing. The concept of smartphone efficacy has recently been utilized in empirical studies. For instance, Okumus and Bilgihan (2014) revealed that smartphone self-efficacy served as an immediate antecedent of the intention to use restaurant apps to order food. Hong, Hwang, Tai and Chen (2014) investigated the impact of smartphone self-efficacy on English learning anxiety and judgment using an app. The results demonstrated that smartphone self-efficacy was a significant predictor. SCT further notes that the outcome expectations for a particular behavior are meaningless if the user feels unable to execute it successfully (Badura, 1997). That is, self-efficacy beliefs shape people's expected outcomes from their efforts, which in turn affect their behavior. LaRose and Eastin (2004) found that outcome expectations served as partial mediators between self-efficacy and internet use. In the context of knowledge system usage, Lin and Huang (2008) also confirmed that self-efficacy influenced usage not only directly but also indirectly through performance and personal outcome

expectations. In accordance with SCT's theoretical proposition, smartphone self-efficacy should be a precursor to the outcome expectations of using apps. As smartphone users become more self-efficacious, their expectations of obtaining specific outcomes from using travel apps also increase, which encourages the increased use of travel apps. Therefore, this study proposes the following hypotheses.

> H6: Smartphone self-efficacy has a positive effect on behavioral intention to use travel apps.
> H7: Smartphone self-efficacy will lead to higher performance outcome expectations from travel apps.
> H8. Smartphone self-efficacy will lead to higher personal outcome expectations from travel apps.

According to SCT, the environment is one of the key factors that affects a person's behavior, and one's social environment is a crucial component of this factor. Personal behavioral change occurs within a network of social influences, including social norms and the behavior of the people in one's immediate environment, such as parents, friends, and community members (Bandura, 1986). When technology is relatively new, individuals may lack sufficient knowledge or information to form feelings about it. As a result, behavioral intention can be influenced greatly by the opinions of significant others (Thompson, Higgins, & Howell, 1994). Social norms explain emerging technology adoption in various contexts to a great degree. For instance, Kleijnen, Wetzels, and de Ruyter (2004) reported the positive influence of social norms on mobile finance service adoption. Glegg, et al. (2013) found that social influences were the primary facilitators for therapists' adoption of virtual reality for brain injury rehabilitation. It should be noted that social norms play stronger behavioral roles in collectivistic societies such as China than in individualistic societies. Chinese people tend to focus on the goals of the group to which they belong, fitting in with others, and appreciating commonalities with others (Bagozzi, Wong, Abe, & Bergami, 2000). Collective values can influence individuals' needs to identify with others or to enhance their image by conforming to others' expectations regarding the use of travel apps. Thus, we hypothesize the following.

> H9. Social norms will lead to higher behavioral intention to use travel apps.

METHODOLOGY

The data were collected using a field intercept survey in China from March to April 2014. Seven rural tourism sites (Shangougou Village, Shuikou Village, Wuzhen, Meijiangwu Village, Qiaodao Lake, Donghaitang Village, Gaoyou Village) in Zhejiang and Jiangsu Province were selected as study sites. These sites were selected not only because they were representative of rural tourism sites in China (i.e., water-based, mountain-based, forest-based, home-inn cluster) but also for their convenient access by the field research team. Systematic random sampling was employed, and the survey questionnaire was distributed to every fifth tourist at the gate when they entered the sites. Adult tourists who used smartphones were eligible for this study. One thousand questionnaires were distributed, and 684 questionnaires were returned originally. Through data screening, 71 responses were removed because of incomplete answers or missing variables, resulting in a final sample of 613 participants, an effective response rate of 61.3%.

The survey items were adapted from the related literature, and appendix lists the items. All of the items were measured using a five-point Likert scale, with the anchors being "strongly disagree" and "strongly agree." The intention to use travel apps was measured using a three-item scale adapted from Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) and Bock and Kim (2003). Terms such as likely, need, and want were used to assess tourists' intentions to use mobile apps. The questions for the TAM and IDT constructs (i.e., perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and perceived compatibility) were taken from previously validated inventories (Davis, et.al., 1989; Moore & Benbasat, 1991) and modified to fit the travel app context. The items that measured self-efficacy were developed based on Okumus and Bilgihan's (2014) smartphone self-efficacy measures. We modified two items from Hsu and Chiu (2004) to measure social norms and found that very few studies had explicitly measured performance outcome

expectations of travel apps that targeted rural travel. Ultimately, 22 items were developed for this construct that addressed seven main functions of travel apps based on the work of Kennedy-Eden and Gretzel (2012): information, navigation, safety, transactions, social, entertainment, and marketing. The measurements for personal outcome expectations were adapted from Bock and Kim's (2003) scale, which includes two sub-dimensions: self-expression and self-accomplishment. We also included common demographic measures such as gender, age, education level and personal income level. A pretest of the questionnaire with all of the construct measures was performed with 50 subjects for a pilot study. The Cronbach's α values ranged from 0.65 to 0.93, exceeding the commonly required acceptable reliability level for explanatory research (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In addition, comments collected from experts led to a number of minor modifications to the questionnaire's wording, and suggestions from reviewers were also incorporated in the revised instrument.

RESULTS

The participants for this study were 49.1% male and 50.9% female, ranging in age from 19 to 65 yrs, with a mean age of 36 yrs. The majority of the respondents (71%) had received an undergraduate degree. Nearly half of the respondents had a monthly personal income greater than RMB 3,000. The study constructs were tested for common factors using principal component analysis. Items with highly correlated error variance and items that loaded poorly onto their unique factors were removed. The factor analyses revealed that all of the main constructs except for performance outcome expectations were unidimensional. Six factors were identified for performance outcome expectations: information, interaction, transactions, navigation, marketing and entertainment (the safety dimension was merged with navigation). Item parceling (sum of items) was used to create aggregate items of each factor as manifest variables. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was applied to assess the data fit of the measurement model. For a measurement model to have sufficiently good fit, the chi-squared value normalized by degrees of freedom ($\chi 2/df$) should not exceed 5, and the non-normed fit index (NNFI) and comparative fit index (CFI) values should exceed 0.9. For the current CFA model, the $\chi 2/df$ was 1.96 ($\chi 2=1194$; df=610), NNFI was 0.93, and CFI was 0.94, suggesting adequate model fit. Evaluating the reliability and validity of a research model includes estimating the internal consistency and convergent and discriminant validity of the construct items. Table 1 shows that all of the composite reliabilities were well above the recommended level of 0.70, indicating adequate internal consistency. The indicator loadings exceeded the suggested criterion of 0.50 on their associated factors, which demonstrated the convergent validity in the construct. In addition, convergent validity is considered adequate when all constructs have an average variance extracted (AVE) over 0.50. The AVE of the study constructs ranged from 0.61 to 1.00. Satisfactory discriminant validity can be verified when the AVE from the construct is greater than the squared correlations among the model constructs.

A full structural model with all parameter estimates was then computed using the modified model depicted in Figure 1. The modification indices suggested six additional possible paths that could improve the model fit. Of these, one path met the criterion of being consistent with theory and/or prior research, i.e., the path from advantage to compatibility, and a moderate, positive relationship between these variables has been previously reported (Gerhardt, Schilke, & Wirtz, 2010; Wu & Wang, 2006). The parameter estimates consisted of three aspects: (1) the CFIs, which indicate the model's goodness of fit, (2) the path coefficients, which represent the strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and (3) the $R^2$ value, which indicates the amount of variance explained by the model (Hsu & Chiu, 2004). The overall fit of the final model was satisfactory based on the fit indices: $\chi^2/df=2.62$, GFI=0.91, CFI=0.93, root mean square residual (RMR)=0.07, and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)=0.05. Seven of the hypothesized relationships were significant. Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use and compatibility had positive effects on intention, with path coefficients of 0.49, 0.12 and 0.10. Thus, Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were supported.

Table 1. Measurement statistics of construct scales on reflective indicators

| Construct/ Indicators | Mean | Standard Deviation | Indicator Loadings | t-valuea | Composite reliability | Cron-bachs α | Average Variance Extracted |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Intention | 4.13 | 1.94 | | | 0.84 | 0.83 | 0.76 |
| Int1 | 4.26 | 0.67 | 0.85 | 158.38 | | | |
| Int2 | 4.18 | 0.71 | 0.90 | 145.27 | | | |
| Int3 | 3.95 | 0.85 | 0.86 | 114.94 | | | |
| Self-efficacy | 4.01 | 2.90 | | | 0.88 | 0.88 | 0.73 |
| Sef1 | 4.01 | 0.83 | 0.84 | 119.09 | | | |
| Sef2 | 4.07 | 0.78 | 0.87 | 129.03 | | | |
| Sef3 | 4.03 | 0.82 | 0.86 | 121.59 | | | |
| Sef4 | 3.94 | 0.89 | 0.85 | 109.29 | | | |
| Performance outcome | 3.88 | 3.74 | | | 0.86 | 0.85 | 0.59 |
| Prm1 | 3.94 | 0.74 | 0.78 | 131.19 | | | |
| Prm2 | 3.71 | 0.88 | 0.81 | 92.95 | | | |
| Prm3 | 3.85 | 0.77 | 0.77 | 146.65 | | | |
| Prm4 | 3.71 | 0.86 | 0.81 | 133.14 | | | |
| Prm5 | 4.13 | 0.68 | 0.75 | 102.26 | | | |
| Prm6 | 3.56 | 1.06 | 0.69 | 82.80 | | | |
| Personal outcome | 3.42 | 7.24 | | | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.63 |
| Psn1 | 3.83 | 1.06 | 0.76 | 89.28 | | | |
| Psn2 | 3.68 | 1.08 | 0.74 | 84.45 | | | |
| Psn3 | 3.67 | 1.03 | 0.71 | 88.07 | | | |
| Psn4 | 3.85 | 0.99 | 0.70 | 95.92 | | | |
| Psn5 | 3.00 | 1.19 | 0.85 | 62.37 | | | |
| Psn6 | 3.07 | 1.20 | 0.86 | 63.17 | | | |
| Psn7 | 3.03 | 1.26 | 0.87 | 59.60 | | | |
| Psn8 | 3.23 | 1.25 | 0.85 | 63.77 | | | |
| Perceived usefulness | 4.16 | 2.40 | | | | 0.81 | 0.64 |
| Pu1 | 4.27 | 0.70 | 0.79 | 152.17 | | | |
| Pu2 | 4.22 | 0.74 | 0.84 | 140.92 | | | |
| Pu3 | 4.00 | 0.81 | 0.83 | 121.69 | | | |
| Pu4 | 4.16 | 0.72 | 0.74 | 143.17 | | | |
| Perceived ease of use | 2.20 | 2.75 | | | 0.79 | 0.80 | 0.62 |
| Peou1 | 2.20 | 0.83 | 0.82 | 65.76 | | | |
| Peou2 | 2.22 | 0.87 | 0.78 | 63.25 | | | |
| Peou3 | 2.33 | 0.92 | 0.74 | 63.00 | | | |
| Peou4 | 2.07 | 0.88 | 0.80 | 58.60 | | | |
| Compatibility | 2.84 | 3.57 | | | 0.83 | 0.83 | 0.66 |
| Cpb1 | 2.94 | 1.11 | 0.83 | 65.53 | | | |
| Cpb2 | 2.75 | 1.08 | 0.81 | 63.28 | | | |
| Cpb3 | 2.77 | 1.11 | 0.85 | 61.64 | | | |
| Cpb4 | 2.91 | 1.09 | 0.75 | 65.85 | | | |
| Social norms | 4.16 | 1.46 | | | 0.82 | 0.81 | 0.85 |
| Soc1 | 4.06 | 0.86 | 0.92 | 116.5 | | | |
| Soc2 | 4.25 | 0.72 | 0.92 | 145.1 | | | |

Performance outcome expectations and personal outcome expectations contributed significantly to intention, with path coefficients of 0.43 and 0.15, respectively. Hypotheses 4 and 5 were supported. The path from self-efficacy to intention was insignificant, and thus, Hypothesis 6 was rejected. Corresponding to Hypotheses 7 and 8, self-efficacy had positive effects on performance and personal outcome expectations, with path coefficients of 0.56 and 0.62. As we also see, social norms had no significant effect on intention, and thus Hypothesis 9 was rejected. In total, the model explained 53% of the variance in the intention to use apps in rural tourism.

Figure 1. SEM analysis of the research model
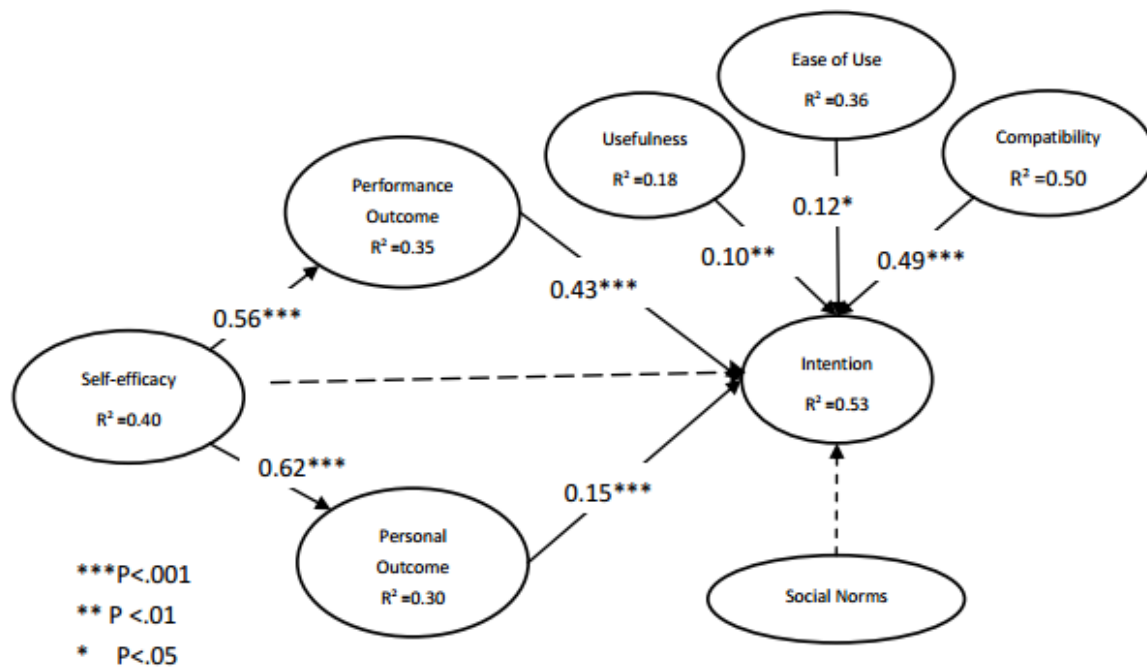


DISCUSSION

By integrating influential determinants from three relevant theories, i.e., the TAM, IDT and SCT, this current research proposed and validated a research model that was designed to enrich our understanding of the predictors of mobile app use among tourists. The three app attributes, namely, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use and compatibility, were found to have significant effects on the behavioral intention to use apps, which confirmed the validity of the TAM and IDT. In particular, compatibility played the most important role in encouraging rural travel app use intentions. This result accords with previous research that showed that perceived compatibility was the best perception-based indicator of attitude towards IT adoption (Meuter, Ostrom, Bitner, & Roundtree, 2003; Vijayasarathy, 2004). This finding can be interpreted from multiple perspectives. From the technology perspective, because mobile devices have been integrated into every aspect of our lives, the use of mobile apps to enhance travel experience is more compatible with our habitual mind-set, which can contribute to sustained habitual or automatic behavior (Verplanken & Aarts, 1999). From the experiential perspective, rural tourists desire to be in nature, escape urban life, and be connected with the outdoors, which may increase the incompatibility with spending their vacation time using modern technology. Further, from the tourism development perspective, rural tourism destinations in China have lagged behind urban destinations in terms of mobile commerce. Although many rural tourists were interested in using apps to facilitate their traveling, they were often frustrated by the poor mobile connections in rural areas or the lack of relevant apps. This finding highlights the urgent need for developing rural tourism strategies based on the use of mobile technology. To eradicate

tourists' worries about the incompatibility of technology and nature, it is important for app developers to incorporate nature-inspired design and marketing techniques to reconcile these two different elements.

In terms of the social cognitive determinants of travel app use, the findings also showed that outcome expectations are important motivational determinants of behavior, which supports the propositions derived from SCT (Bandura, 2001). More precisely, performance outcome expectations serve as a more powerful predictor than personal outcome expectations. This finding suggests that extrinsic motivations may play a more important role in travel app adoption. Referring to specific functional expectancy subcategories, the results showed that tourists have high expectations for transaction functions (mean >4.5). They had moderate expectations for information, navigation, marketing, social interaction and entertainment functions (3.5<mean<4.5). This finding calls for more attention to developing transaction platforms and booking services in mobile commerce to provide more significant value to tourists. Additionally, marketing efforts are warranted to promote the performance and personal values of using travel apps, e.g., enriching the travel experience and demonstrating a certain lifestyle. Moreover, tourists who assess themselves as being highly efficacious tend to look for more rewards from travel app use than tourists with little belief in their ability to use smartphones. This finding implies that sufficient support and necessary learning aids should be considered to enhance rural tourists' smartphone self-efficacy, which can be critical for promoting app use. Contrary to our expectation, social norms did not have a significant impact on app use intentions. This result is similar to the finding by San Martín & Herrero (2012). One possible explanation is that rural travel apps are still new, and thus, people have limited awareness of their significant others or peers using them. As such, the influence of social norms on the behavioral intention to use rural travel apps is negligible.

CONCLUSIONS

This study represents an initial attempt to understand the mechanism by which social cognitive factors and technology characteristics influence tourists' intentions to use mobile apps. The results of this study provide important implications for both researchers and practitioners. For researchers, this study provides a more comprehensive theoretical understanding of what drives the adoption of mobile technology by proposing an integrative approach to predicting behavioral intentions toward travel apps. This research model could be adapted to different mobile service categories to further identify the differences in perceptions and attitudes. For tourism organizations and individual practitioners, understanding the key constructs in the proposed research model is crucial to more effectively designing and implementing mobile travel services that yield high consumer acceptance. Vast sums of capital have been invested in novel and untested technologies such as mobile apps to improve the delivery of tourism services. However, many programs are not readily embraced by end users. Thus, studies that examine which factors are beneficial or detrimental toward the acceptance of emerging technologies may prove particularly valuable. It is important to evaluate our study in light of its limitations. The analysis of cross-sectional data prevents causal inferences. A longitudinal survey or experimental design could clarify causation. Additionally, the factor loadings of a number of items on the functional outcome scale fell below the 0.70 threshold, indicating that the scale should be further validated in future studies.

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APPENDIX

| Measurement constructs and items | |
|---|---|
| App use intention | |
| BI 1 | I will consider using travel apps when traveling to rural destinations |
| BI 2 | I would like to use travel apps when traveling to rural destinations |
| BI 3 | I will increase the frequency of using travel apps when traveling to rural destinations |
| Perceived usefulness | |
| PU 1 | Apps improve the efficiency of travel information searches |
| PU 2 | Apps make it easier to make travel decisions |
| PU 3 | Apps improve my satisfaction with my tourism experience |
| PU 4 | App use brings a burden to my trip (reverse coded) |
| Perceived Ease of Use | |
| PE1 | I find it hard to use travel apps (reverse coded) |
| PE2 | It is easy to collect information with travel apps |
| PE3 | It takes brains to learn how to use a travel app (reverse coded) |
| PE4 | It is a piece of cake to be familiar with travel apps |
| Compatibility | |
| C1 | Using apps for travel fits with my lifestyle |

| C2 | Using apps fits with my travel preferences |
|----|----|
| C3 | Using apps is not compatible with the nature/image of rural tourism (i.e., away from the city, |
| C4 | Using apps does not match the status of rural tourism (i.e., weak mobile network, lack of |

**Smartphone self-efficacy**

| SE1 | I feel confident finding suitable application software |
|-----|----|
| SE2 | I feel confident downloading and installing corresponding app software |
| SE3 | I feel confident and familiar with app interfaces very quickly |
| SE4 | I feel confident mastering the various functions of an app |

**Social norms**

| SN1 | I know many people who use travel apps |
|-----|----|
| SN2 | My family and friends think I should use travel apps |

**Performance outcome expectations: Information**

| P1 | Find official information of tourism destination |
|----|----|
| P2 | Find consumer-generated tourism content |
| P3 | Find real-time monitoring information (traffic, parking spaces, etc.) |
| P4 | Find information on surrounding areas |

**Performance outcome expectations: Mobile marketing**

| P5 | Receive location-based tourism promotion pushes |
|----|----|
| P6 | Receive preference-based tourism information pushes |
| P7 | Interact with tourism merchants online |

**Performance outcome expectations: Social**

| P8 | Record and share travel experiences |
|----|----|
| P9 | Evaluate tourism services |
| P10 | Interact with other tourists |

**Performance outcome expectations: Transaction**

| P11 | Pay for tourism services and products |
|-----|----|
| P12 | Reserve tourism services and products |
| P13 | Purchase Groupons |
| P14 | Purchase special local products online (excluded from further analyses) |

**Performance outcome expectations: Navigation**

| P15 | Plan routes and mark points |
|-----|----|
| P16 | Navigate to the destination |
| P17 | Provide self-help tour guidance and interpretation |
| P18 | Provide roadside assistance |

**Performance outcome expectations: Entertainment**

| P19 | Provide interesting reading material and music to pass the time on the journey |
|-----|----|
| P20 | Play games |
| P21 | Create and edit photos and videos |
| P22 | Provide outdoor workout records (excluded from further analyses) |

**Personal outcome expectations: Self-Accomplishment**

| PA1 | Using travel apps gives me status |
|-----|----|
| PA2 | Using travel apps increases my sense of achievement |

| PA3 | Using travel apps improves my place in my circle of friends |
|-----|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| PA4 | Using travel apps make me more attractive |
| Personal outcome expectations: Self-Expression | |
| PE 1 | Travel apps are a way to show my personality |
| PE 2 | I often share with others about travel apps I am using |
| PE 3 | I often discuss with others about the function, advantages and disadvantages of travel apps |
| PE 4 | Using travel apps keeps me up to date |

# DRIVERS OF SOCIAL MEDIA ADOPTION IN TRAVEL AGENCIES

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## ABSTRACT

With the rapid development of wireless and information technology, social media marketing has become a critical issue for travel agencies. However, there are few studies in the past travel and tourism literature that have explored success decision-making in the context of social media adoption. Therefore, this study used the fuzzy analytic hierarchy process to find out the key drivers of social media adoption. Finally, this study present the theoretical and managerial implications for academics, practitioner, and governments in the form of a comprehensive social media adoption model to enhance business operational efficiency and productivity.

Key words: Travel agency, social media, technology-organization-environment (TOE) framework

## INTRODUCTION

Information communication and technology (ICT) applications have become widely applied in marketing strategies that can help firms in the travel and tourism industries to obtain and maintain sustainable competitive advantages (Buhalis & Deimezi, 2004). Today, ICT applications can not only help companies to enhance their marketing and operations, but also strengthen relationships with customers. With development of Internet-based technologies, social media have become increasingly important (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010), with applications such as blogs (Huang, 2012) and online community websites (Casalo, Flavian, & Guinaliu, 2010), providing platforms for the exchange of information between all parties in the travel industry, including consumers, industry suppliers, travel intermediaries, governmental tourism institutions, as well as non-governmental organizations (Werthner & Klein, 1999). Social media applications have thus become important channels with regard to how travelers search for information and make purchases (Huang, 2012).

However, most travel agencies in general are small and medium-sized enterprises (Huang, 2012; Pansiri, 2008), with limited resources to invest in social media marketing efforts. Therefore, a better understanding of both the development of consumer intentions to use social media and uncovering the critical factors of resource allocation for social media implementation strategies are critical to maintain customer relationships and establish distinctive competitive advantages in very competitive markets. Therefore, since social media are a new phenomenon in the tourism industry (Law et al., 2009), there is still a considerable gap between academics and practitioners with regard to the key factors of social media implementations for a comprehensive of marketing strategy. As mentioned above, this study will utilize the fuzzy analytic hierarchy process (FAHP) to uncover the priority of each factor and identify the key factor to effectively facilitate ICT investments in relation to the implementation of social media applications. Finally, this paper offered a comprehensive of social media solutions with theoretical and managerial implications for the

academics, practitioner, and governments to increase marketing efficiency and enhance organizational performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Social media and travel agency*

Social media refer to Internet-based services that allow individuals to create, share and seek content, as well as to communicate and collaborate with each other (Kim, Jeong, & Lee, 2010). According to a 2012 report on social media produced by Stelzner (2012), approximately 85 percent of marketers stated that their social media efforts have generated more exposure for their businesses, with 69 percent reporting an increase in traffic to their websites. With the rapid growth of Internet-based technologies, the expansion of ICT has resulted in the increased adoption of social media applications by travel and tourism organizations (Aldebert et al., 2011). With the increasing acceptance of social media services, online communities offer travel agencies a competitive alternative to traditional marketing channels with regard to building customer relationships (Wang, Yu, & Fesenmaier, 2002). Furthermore, numerous businesses start to implement a social media strategy that integrates with their corporate strategy and risk management program (Larcker, Larcker, & Tayan, 2012).
Since travel and tourism products and services are essentially experiential goods (Aldebert et al., 2011), it is difficult for users to make ex-ante evaluations of them (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009). Therefore, many travel consumers look for information on the Internet to decrease the risks associated with unfamiliar travel activities. Social media are thus an important ICT application with regard to developing and managing tourism information (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). For example, through online social media networks, companies can extend their customer relationship management (CRM) initiatives to maintain their interactions with customers, leveraging these to attract and retain more consumers, convert browsers to buyers, improve service quality, reduce sales costs, raise sales revenue, and acquire additional insight into their business (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2004). Furthermore, online social media communities also provide a communication platform and social networking opportunities for people to get in touch with others who share the same interests and concerns (Wu et al., 2010). Therefore, this study is valuable to both academics and practitioners, as it examines the theoretical underpinnings of social media research and how these can be used to improve business practices. In today's competitive environment, it is important for travel agencies to better understand the impact of social media applications, so that they can make more intelligent decisions regarding crucial information and marketing strategies and further enhance organizational performance.

*Technology-organization-environment framework*

The technology-organization-environment (TOE) framework, which developed by Tornatzky and Fleischer (1990), has been widely used in investigating with regard to information technology adoption. In considering the critical drivers of organizational innovation adoption (Frambach & Schillewaert, 2002), both external environmental factors and internal organizational factors should be considered (Bigne, Aldas, & Andreu, 2008). In this context, the TOE framework has gradually been used in the field of travel and tourism research. In this study, social media applications can create new opportunities for both businesses and consumers in the domestic and global economy. Therefore, when exploring the organizational decisions of social media applications from the view of TOE framework, this study propose a multiple streams of research dimensions to examine the related factors affecting travel decision-makers in the implementation of social media applications. The theoretical context of this study is illustrated detail as follows:

1. Technological context

Based on the perspectives of TOE framework, technological context means firm perceived technological benefits (Kuan & Chau 2001). Since technology is a major driver of global economic

development, the process of online communication can be addressed effectively at a low cost in the travel industry with the emergence of the Internet (Law et al., 2004). Furthermore, in order to enlarge market share, it is inevitable for businesses to become more technologically oriented (Huang, 2012). Therefore, business professionals need to seek a more effective way to manage emerging social media applications to obtain superior organization performance.

2. Organizational context

In organizational context, it is associated to perceived organizational resources (Kuan & Chau 2001). That is, information technology adoption has been considered as a potential resource of competitive advantage. From the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm, businesses should make use of their resources to develop long-term and sustainable competitive advantages (Wernerfelt, 1984). That is business strategy should focus on industry foresight and competence leveraging (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990). In this context, the travel market has significant changed and developed with the emerging of social media applications. Therefore, the implementation of social media is one of best innovative strategies for traditional travel agencies to create new channels and to develop distinct competitive advantages.

3. Environmental context

In order to face significant competitive pressures, organizations need to confront both the challenges and opportunities present in the current business environment. In TOE framework, the environmental context refers to perceived environmental pressure (Kuan & Chau, 2001). This means that information technology adoption is associated to organization performance linking with environmental context. Thus, in considering organizational innovative adoption, environmental impacts need to take into account the key context of social media implementation in travel agency.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to literatures review, there are many impact drivers influence business to adopt ICTs. However, it should be noted that each drivers should have a relative weights and priorities for decision-makers with regard to develop an optimal resources allocation of social media adoption. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to find out the CSFs of adoption social media decisions. In this context, in considering of social media decision is a multi-faceted issues that needs to take into account the role of numerous key drivers (Li and Ye, 1999), so that it is essentially a multiple criteria decision making (MCDM) analysis problem.

In order to solve MCDM problems and identify the priority of each driver, many academics use the analytic hierarchy process (AHP), as proposed by Saaty (1980). The advantage of AHP approach is suitable for solving the decision-making problems, setting priorities, and allocating resources (Saaty, 1980). Although the AHP approach is a useful and simple method for research analysis, it does not consider the fuzziness of human thinking and environmental uncertainties, and thus may not accurately reflect the actual situation. In order to solve this problem, the method of fuzzy analytic hierarchy process (FAHP) is proposed by Van Laarhoved and Pedrycz (1983) to enable decision-makers to feel more confident about expressing interval judgements, rather than presenting their decisions in the form single numeric values (Erensal et al., 2006). According to related foundation literatures (Buckley, 1985; Csutora and Buckley, 2001), this study conducted the FAHP procedures as follows:

*Construction of a hierarchical table*

Based on the aims of this study, a hierarchical structure of the drivers is constructed from the related theoretical literatures. The hierarchical structure includes the goal, criteria and sub-criteria levels. The

sub-criteria level is a more detailed description than the criteria level, while the criteria level is a precise description of the goal level.

*Questionnaire design*

Second, this study conducts a pair-wise comparison of the factors within each level based on the three-layer factor hierarchical structure that showed as Table 1.

Table 1. Key decisions of social media adoption

| Goal | Dimension | Criteria | Sub-criteria |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Technology | Media characteristic | Easy to use |
| | | | Richness |
| | | | Entertainment |
| | | Investment cost | Equipment cost |
| | | | Labor cost |
| | | | Maintenance cost |
| | Organization | Marketing channel | Product introduce |
| | | | Activities promotion |
| | | | Customer development |
| Key decisions of social media adoption | | Customer relationship | Information transmission |
| | | | Respondence |
| | | | Interaction |
| | | Corporate image | Brand awareness |
| | | | Public relationship |
| | | | Corporate reputation |
| | Environment | Marco-environment | IT infrastructure |
| | | | IT maturity |
| | | | IT acceptance |
| | | Micro-environment | Organization innovative |
| | | | Competitive pressure |
| | | | Consumer need |

*Construction of fuzzy numbers*
This study first constructs fuzzy numbers from all the respondents' answer intervals, and then used the trapezoidal fuzzy numbers α, β, γ, and δ to further set up a positive reciprocal matrix. The fuzzy numbers α and δ represent the minimum and maximum values of the membership function, respectively. The fuzzy numbers of β and γ are the smallest and largest values of the interval. Trapezoidal fuzzy numbers are set as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. A trapezoidal form of fuzzy numbers
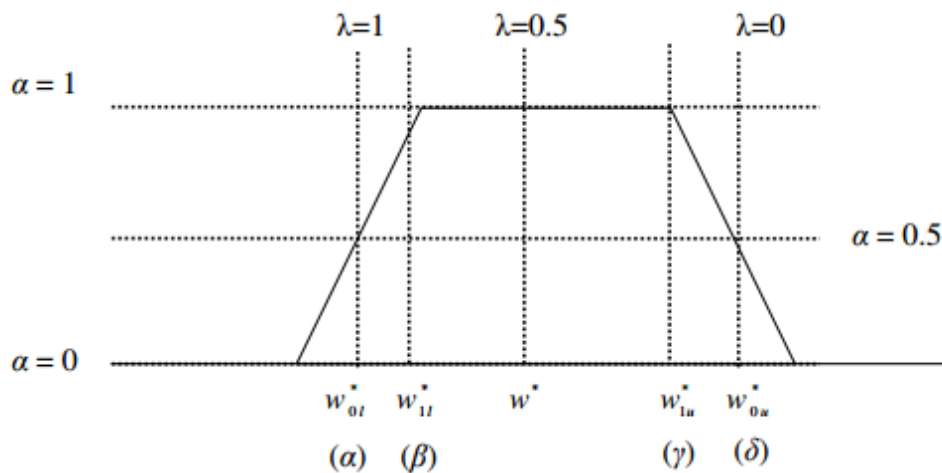


*Constructing fuzzy positive reciprocal matrix*
According to the trapezoidal fuzzy numbers defined above, we can construct a n x n fuzzy positive reciprocal matrix (Ā).

*Consistency test*
This study uses the geometric means (i.e., $\Gamma_{ij} = (\alpha_{ij} \times \beta_{ij} \times \gamma_{ij} \times \delta_{ij})^{1/4}$ ) to obtain the fuzzy criteria weights (Buckley, 1985), and then conducts the consistency test. The consistency index (CI) and consistency ratio (CR) are calculated as follows: $CI = (\lambda_{max} - n) / (n - 1)$ and $CR = (CI / RI_n)$

The consistency test is undertaken after confirming the fuzzy numbers through the geometric means. Saaty (1980) suggested that $CR \leq 0.1$ is an acceptable value, and $\lambda_{max}$ is the maximized eigenvector of a pair-wise comparison matrix, $n$ is an attribute of the matrix, and are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Randomized index of $RI_n$

| $n$ | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| RI | 0.525 | 0.882 | 1.115 | 1.252 | 1.341 | 1.404 | 1.452 | 1.484 | 1.513 | 1.535 | 1.555 | 1.570 | 1.583 | 1.595 |

*Establishing the original matrix (X matrix)*
After consistency tests, we then begin with establishing the original matrix (X matrix). After establishing the original matrix, we can then obtain its n number of eigenvalues. As the n numbers of eigenvalues are normalized ($w_n$ ), we can obtain the fuzzy weight vectors.

*Using the α-cut method*
According to the Lambda-Max method (Csutora & Buckley, 2001), this study can further obtain the interval of fuzzy weights ($W_{0l}$ *,$W_{1l}$ *,$W_{1u}$ *,$W_{0u}$ *).

*Defuzzification*
According to Kaufmann and Gupta (1998), the final defuzzification value can thus be calculated as the following function: $(W^*) = (W_{0l}^* + W_{1l}^* + W_{1u}^* + W_{0u}^*)/ 4$

*Normalization and overall ranking*

Finally, this study conducted the normalization of the final defuzzification value. Within this step, we normalize the relative weights of all factors of each level to determine the synthesis weight of each sub-criterion.

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*Data Collection*

The purpose of this study is to identify the priorities of CSFs which affect travel agencies when they attempt to adopt social media marketing. In order to ensure both the appropriateness and independence of the factors examined in this work, this study invited six experts to confirm the hierarchical framework of this study. Due to fuzzy AHP is not based on quantitative statistical method, so that the key point is whether the available observations constitute an accurate qualitative representation for research analysis. Therefore, the samples of this study are distributed to travel managers who had the power to make decisions in social media adoption. Consequently, a total of 32 valid questionnaires were returned and these are considered suitable enough to use fuzzy AHP approach.

In addition, this study also conducted logical examinations to avoid related errors derived from the returned questionnaires. According to all the participants' interval values, trapezoidal fuzzy numbers were constructed as α, β, γ, and δ, with α as the minimum response interval, β as the minimum common consensus interval, γ as the maximum common consensus interval, and δ as the maximum of all responses intervals.

According to the procedure of fuzzy AHP method, this study used Virtual Basic (VB) software to calculate the weights of each fuzzy matrix, and then obtained the fuzzy weight by using the Lambda-Max method (Csutora and Buckley, 2001). The defuzzification method can be calculated to obtain the final exact value of each factor (Kaufmann and Gupta, 1998). Noted, a consistency test was also examined, and none of the results of the consistency ratio exceeded 0.1, and thus were all acceptable.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

According to Table 3, the priorities of the social media adoption factors in the dimension level are technology (0.203), organization (0.677), and environment context (0.120). This means that the organization is the most critical dimension for travel agencies to consider when adopting social media. Second, the Table 3 also gives the results of social media adoption decision with regard to the criteria level. When looking at the technology context, media characteristic (0.813) is a more important element than investment cost (0.187). With regard to the organization context, the respondents considered the most important priorities were marketing channel (0.627), customer relationship (0.118), and corporate image (0.256). Third, with regard to the environment context, the respondents considered the most important priorities were micro-environment (0.813), and then macro-environment (0.187). Overall, the top three criteria are marketing channel (0.214), corporate image (0.256), and media characteristic (0.165) at the criteria level. The Table 3 also gives the results of social media decision with regard to the sub-criteria level. When looking at the media characteristics context, easy to use (0.659) is a more critical element than richness (0.231) and entertainment (0.11). Second, with regard to the investment cost context, the respondents considered the most important priorities were equipment cost (0.220), labor cost (0.670), and maintenance cost (0.111). Third, with regard to the marketing channel context, the priorities of the impact factors are product introduce (0.214), activities promotion (0.122), and customer development (0.664). Next, with regard to the customer relationship context, the priorities of the factors are information transmission (0.656), respondence (0.164), and interaction (0.180). With regard to the corporate image context, the respondents considered the most important priorities were brand awareness (0.567), public relationship (0.099), as well as corporate reputation (0.334). In the aspect of macro-environment context, the respondents considered the most important priorities were IT acceptance (0.654), IT maturity (0.251), and IT infrastructure (0.096). Finally, with regard to the micro-environment context, the priorities of the factors are customer need (0.680), organization innovative (0.656), and competitive pressure (0.656). Overall, the top three sub-criteria are customer development (0.282), easy to use (0.109), and brand awareness (0.098) at the sub-criteria level.

CONCLUSION

Compared with earlier studies, these researches only find out the influential factors by multiple regression and SEM. However, these finding cannot provide travel executives a useful reference about how to allot their limited corporate resource. On the contrary, this research addressed the question of what critical factors will influence travel executives in their decision-making of adopting social media marketing. As the empirical result showed, this study presents the importance of each social media adoption decision and provides the optimal implementation strategies.

Today, it is necessary for travel managers to allocate optimal resources and achieve both effectiveness and efficiency in a highly competitive environment. Therefore, this study can offer some implications for academic researcher to pay attention on the rapid development of ICTs in travel industry from the perspectives of social media adoption. Furthermore, for the practical management, this study identifies the priorities of the CSFs on adopting the social media adoption decision by travel executives. The travel practitioners can further understand the CSFs which are important to allot their limited corporate resources on the IT investment. Therefore, the empirical results of this study could provide a valuable reference for travel agencies to invest IT efficiently and effectively, as well as establish a successful social community business environment.

Table 3. Synthesis analysis of optimal decisions for social media adoption

| Dimension | Weight | Criteria | Weight | Sub-criteria | Weight |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Technology | 0.203 | Media characteristic | 0.813 | Easy to use | 0.659 |
| | | | | Richness | 0.231 |
| | | | | Entertainment | 0.110 |
| | | Investment cost | 0.038 | Equipment cost | 0.109 |
| | | | | Labor cost | 0.616 |
| | | | | Maintenance cost | 0.276 |
| Organization | 0.677 | Marketing channel | 0.627 | Product introduce | 0.214 |
| | | | | Activities promotion | 0.122 |
| | | | | Customer development | 0.664 |
| | | Customer relationship | 0.118 | Information transmission | 0.656 |
| | | | | Respondence | 0.164 |
| | | | | Interaction | 0.180 |
| | | Corporate image | 0.256 | Brand awareness | 0.567 |
| | | | | Public relationship | 0.099 |
| | | | | Corporate reputation | 0.334 |
| Environment | 0.120 | Marco-environment | 0.187 | IT infrastructure | 0.096 |
| | | | | IT maturity | 0.251 |
| | | | | IT acceptance | 0.654 |
| | | Micro-environment | 0.813 | Organization innovative | 0.193 |
| | | | | Competitive pressure | 0.127 |
| | | | | Consumer need | 0.680 |

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# MEDICAL TOURISM

# GETTING TREATMENT OR GETTING WELL? THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MEDICAL TOURISM AND WELLNESS TOURISM IN INDIA

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ABSTRACT

The focus for the growing phenomenon of medical tourism has been largely on westerners travelling to developing world destinations to receive cheaper conventional 'western' medical treatment than they can receive in their own countries. India is one such destination that has become one of the world's leading providers of medical tourism. However India is also known for a long history of traditional health treatments, including Ayurvedic medicine. While there is a largely undocumented niche market for Ayurvedic 'wellness tourism', the extent to which the dominant conventional Western-based medical tourism sector is linked to and draws upon Ayurveda in the treatment and recovery of its tourist-patients is unexplored. This paper reports on an exploratory study that aims to document the inter-relationships between these apparently disparate forms of medicine (and tourism).

## INTRODUCTION

India has become one of the world's leading providers of medical tourism, with specialties in cardiac and orthopedic surgery, among others, in a sector estimated to be worth US$2 billion in 2015. India offers a range of medical tourist procedures utilising the latest developments in Western medical knowledge and technology, and at a considerably cheaper price than in Western hospitals (Connell 2011; Lovelock and Lovelock 2012; Prakash et al 2011). But also India has a long history of traditional health treatments considered under the umbrella term AYUSH and comprising Ayurveda, Yoga and Naturopathy, Unani, Siddha and Homoeopathy.  A national Ministry of AYUSH exists to ensure consistency of treatment and medications are met. Ayurvedic medicine, one branch of AYUSH, is a system of Hindu traditional medicine dating back to 5,000BC and can be classified as a form of complementary or alternative medicine. Travel to and within India to receive Ayurvedic treatments is increasingly popular among Western travellers, and has been strongly developed and promoted by some states, particularly Kerala in the south of India, as a form of wellness tourism.

Despite the co-existence of these two forms of medical treatment, Ayurvedic and its 'allopathic' (conventional Western-origin) counterpart, a cursory examination of Indian medical tourism websites (both Ayurvedic and allopathic) suggests that there is little opportunity for medical tourists to combine both forms of treatment while in India - at least in the way of formal, institutionalised opportunities for them to engage both forms of treatment.  This study explores this apparent gap, and considers what opportunities there may

be coordination between the two branches of medicine for the treatment of medical tourists. The paper identifies a number of perceived barriers between conventional and alternative medicine in the medical tourism market, considered collectively here as structural and affective barriers to coordination.

METHOD

This study is an exploratory, qualitative study that employed in-depth semi-structured interviews undertaken with stakeholders in both the mainstream medical tourism sector and practitioners and representatives of Ayurvedic medicine. The interviews (n=21) were undertaken largely in Delhi, a centre for medical tourism and Rishikesh, located in the state of Uttarakhand in northern India, a cultural and pilgrammage destination, and centre for Ayurvedic and other non-conventional and wellness treatments. The discussion below represents our findings from an initial scoping analysis of the interview material. Preliminary and tentative themes are identified, but we note that a full thematic analysis of the data is yet to be undertaken.

FINDINGS

Overall, from our preliminary analysis of the data, we found there to be a disjunction between Ayurveda and allopathy in terms of their coordinated deployment for medical tourism. While it is apparent that many Indians freely utilise both forms of medicine on a regular basis for common and serious medical conditions, there is very little in the way of formal combination of the two in the medical tourism or wellness tourism sectors. Our research participants, from both branches of medicine and from the tourism sector, generally recognised the potential for combing the two forms of medicine for the benefit of medical tourists and for the medical tourism industry. They noted that Ayurvedic approaches could assist in the post-operative recovery periods for   allopathic patients, through speeding up the recovery process, reducing pain, enhancing mobility and preparing the recovering patient for the journey back to their home country. Our tourism industry participants saw value in terms of the potential to develop complementary itineraries and overall there was a sense that combing the two could provide a more valuable (to all stakeholders) medical tourism experience. However, our participants also identified a number of barriers that have traditionally hindered cooperation between practitioners of Ayurveda and allopathy and continue to act as barriers for any holistic application of the two for the purposes of medical tourism.

The main barrier is a lack of initiative to bring the two branches of medicine together in an effective form for medical tourists. Until very recently, there has been minimal action in the way of formalised policy or process to help coordinate the two sectors for medical tourism. Our participants believe that this is due to structural and affective barriers – that stem to some extent from the way that Ayurvedic and allopathic practitioners are trained, from the way that the two sectors are regulated and managed, and from a subsequent distancing of one from the other and associated entrenched attitudes of distrust. Most notably, our participants from the Ayurvedic field identified attitudes of arrogance and distrust on the part of their allopathic counterparts that preclude them seeing any value in working alongside Ayurvedic practitioners in medical tourism.

The disjunction between the two sectors, as noted by some of our participants, is also exacerbated by the current regional distribution of Ayurvedic and allopathic service provision. Kerala, in the south, is the main centre for Ayurveda- at least for the provision of Ayurveda for international visitors. Allopathic medical tourism has a number of centres, Delhi, Chennai, Hyderabad, Bangalore and to some extent Mumbai. It is perceived, however, that this barrier is largely addressable as more destinations within India are developed for medical tourism, and as interstate travel (and the perceptions of the ease or difficulties of travel within India held by foreign visitors) improves. Despite some regional concentrations, Ayurvedic practices do exist across India, although few are developed and promoted for international visitors, who apparently may hold a common perception that Kerala is the only destination for Ayurvedic treatment.

Other barriers were identified by our participants, including time restrictions for medical visitors, ongoing access to Ayurvedic medication, the dominance of large corporatised allopathic providers in the industry and a lack of awareness among medical tourists (of the potential to combine treatments). Our Ayurvedic participants were also wary of a 'watering down' of Ayurvedic treatments, that some had observed, as the tourism industry co-opts practitioners to offer a 'lite' form of treatment that could potentially impact upon the credibility of Ayurveda as a serious partner to conventional allopathic treatment.

CONCLUSION

We found that there exist significant structural and affective barriers towards a coordinated approach towards medical tourism that involves both Ayurveda and allopathy as contributing partners. Despite a general scepticism on the part of our participants, however, some noted advances towards a more collaborative approach, as witnessed by recent initiatives of one or two allopathic hospitals and clinics that have employed the services of Ayurvedic practitioners. In particular, the recent policy developments from the national Ministry of Tourism that call for a more coordinated approach to medical tourism, and for a cross-sectoral advisory body are evidence that the potential for Ayurveda and other traditional forms of treatment to work alongside more Western forms of medicine, for the benefit of medical tourism overall, has been at least been noticed.

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# A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF HEALTH TOURISM SEEKERS AND NON-SEEKERS¨ SATISFACTION AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING EVALUATION: THE CASE OF JAPANESE AND KOREAN TOURISTS

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to examine the differences of perception between health tour seekers and non-seekers of SWE (subjective well-being). It also attempts to identify the different perception regarding to the relationship between travel activity satisfaction and subjective well-being of participants and non-participants. Relative data were collected from 158 Korean packaged tourists who traveled to SAPPORO, Japan and visited a thermal hot spring, and from 111 Japanese packaged tourists who traveled to Busan, Korea and participated in a herbal medicine program. The results indicated that health tourism seekers perceived the level of contribution of the health tour to SWE to be more positive than non-seekers. It was also revealed that satisfaction levels of tourism activities have partially significant impact on subjective well-being of participants and non-participants.

Key words: Health tourism, Medical tourism, Subjective well-being, Life satisfaction

## INTRODUCTION

The recent surge of interest in improving one's quality of life through the pursuit of happiness and mental and physical health has led to a high evaluation in advanced countries of the functions of the health tourism(including medical tourism), a new, unique type of tourism products (Hall, 1992) which combines health and sightseeing (Mueller and Kaufman, 2001). The health tourism differs from other tourism activities with its emphasis on treatment and medical care to improve one's health as well as sightseeing, and serves the purpose of improving the participant's quality of life through active participation and involvement in experience-based tours. Quality of life is one's satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding one's personal life; one's personal judgment or feeling on whether one is happy or unhappy. Thus, SWE (subjective well-being) is an index of one's quality of life or degree of happiness, and is a significant means with which to evaluate satisfaction levels in relation to the quality of life through sightseeing (Campbell, 1976). Research on whether one chooses tourism activities and mental satisfaction and happiness only studies the tourist's sightseeing experiences, satisfaction of life, mental status and happiness, and the relationships between vacation and sightseeing experiences and subjective mental well-being (Lee and Jeon, 2005).

In the conference of the International Association of Science Experts in Tourism (IASET) held in Budapest, Hungary in 1989, methods to induce economic profit through health tourism and traditional medical tourism were discussed (Towner and Wall, 1991). Against this trend, health tourism businesses has been in stagnation in Korea few years ago because problematic issues such as lack of business management, advertisement and marketing, professional workers, systematic support, and medical disputations were some of the sources of interference (Korea Health Industry Development Institute, 2002). In 2005, however, the Korea government has designated 17 new dynamic industries, including health tourism, with its efforts to cultivate its economic development. Foreign visitors who take advantage of these are 10 000 in 2005 and 120 000 in 2013 and the country has set the ambitious goal of having at least 1 000 000 foreign patients by 2020(Yu and Ko, 2013). If the government achieves this goal, it could bring the country health tourism earnings of an estimated US$20 million. In comparison, competing countries in Asia are prospering in this health tourism market as analyzed by RNCOS (2008).

- More than 2.9 million patients visited Thailand, India, Singapore, Malaysia and the Philippines for medical tourism in 2007.
- Thailand's low coast and scenic beaches have enabled it to become the largest medical tourism market in Asia; however, an unstable, political environment and occurrence of another epidemic such as new flew can restrain its growth.
- Healthcare costs are considerably high in Singapore as compared to other Asian destination. The country, however, boasts of infrastructure and resources that in some cases are even better than those in the west.
- India, with its low coast advantage and emergence of several private players, represents the fastest growing market. The country's questionable sanitary perceptions in the west are, however, a major road block for growth.
- Malaysia and the Philippines, both relatively new players in the medical tourism market, are expected grow strongly in the next five years.
- A number of employers and health insurance firms in developed countries have now started looking at medical tourism to reduce their surging healthcare expenditure.
- The Asian medical tourism market is expected to grow at an annual rate of 7.6% between 2007 and 2012.

In a time where industrial cultivation of health tourism both within Korea and abroad is attracting an increasing amount of attention, study on subjective well-being of health tourism and its difference is increasing. It is also expected that vital issues will be derived regarding the improvement of one's quality of life through participation in health tourism and subjective well-being. The purpose of this research is the following. To begin with, the difference between subject well-being according to whether one participates in a health tourism will be studied. Secondly, the relationships between levels of satisfaction regarding sightseeing and subjective well-being and health tourism will be studied.

THE CONCEPT OF HEALTH TOURISM

Health tourism is an area which shares the history of tourism (Goodrich, 1993) and shares often the same concepts with medical tourism, health-care tourism, and global health- care services. Although the theme of „health tourism" has not been well defined (Smith and Puczko, 2009), and there is no single definition (Garcia-Altes, 2005), a number of researchers have suggested useful definitions of health tourism. IUOTO in 1973 stated that health tourism is "… the provision of health facilities utilizing the natural resources of the country, in particular mineral water and climate" (cited in Smith and Puczko, 2009, p. 3). Goodrich and Goodrich (1987, p. 217) defined it as "… an attempt on the part of a tourist facility or destination to attract tourists by deliberately promoting its health-care services and facilities, in addition to its regular amenities." Van Spielen formulated five components, each identifying a more specific market segment: sun and fun activities; engaging in healthy activities, but health is not the central motive; principle motive for travel is health; travel for sauna, massage,

and other health activities; and medical treatment" (cited in Hall, 1992, p. 151). Smith and Puczko (2009) presented a diagram which represents a clear relationships among health tourism, wellness tourism, and medical tourism as shown in Figure 1. In this diagram, suggesting types of health tourism, the authors argue that health tourism is composed of medical tourism and wellness tourism, meaning that medical tourism is a subset of health tourism. Connell (2006) points out that a distinction between health tourism and medical tourism must be made, where in the case that specific medical interventions are required medical tourism may be the more correct term to use.

Figure1. Spectrum of health tourism
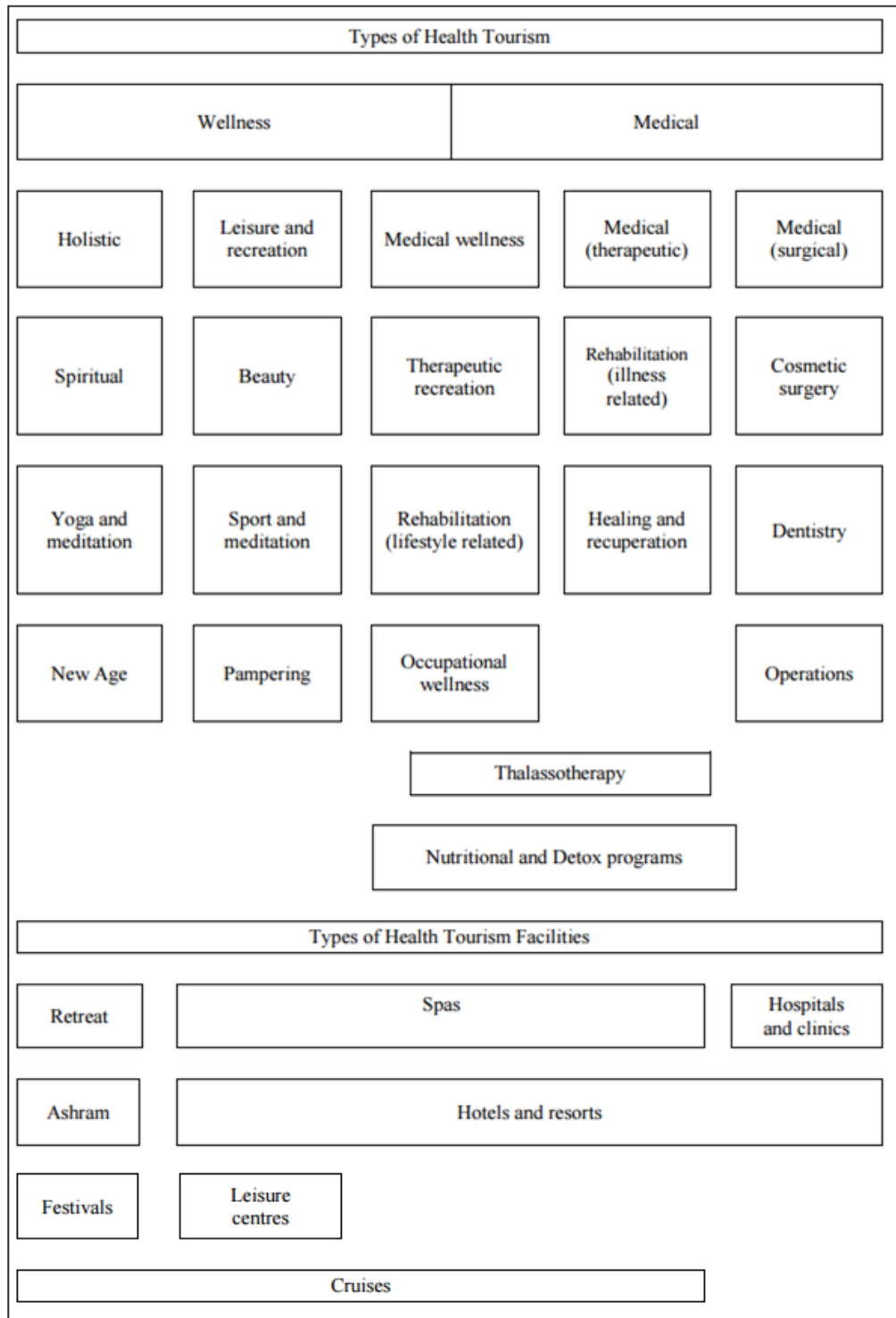
Source: Smith and Puczko (2009: 7).

There currently are few studies regarding motivations for participating in health tourism. This is because, as identified by Lunt and Carrera (2010), the narrative review traverses discussion on health tourist markets, consumer choice, clinical outcomes, quality and safety, and ethical and legal dimensions. Goodrich and Goodrich (1987) discovered that the motivation to choose to participate was more influenced by the variety of facilities and cost rather than the existence of health-care institutions. As a result of subdividing of health tour participants who stayed at hotels, Mueller and Kaufman (2001) distinguished the participants into four categories of health tourists: health care participants, independent infrastructure participants, medical care participants, and recreation-seeking participants without specific needs.

TOURISM ACTIVITIES AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING

Sociology researchers have attempted to evaluate the quality of life using objective standards, but psychologists have evaluated the subjective quality of life through subjective well-being. This is due to the fact that subjective well-being based on subjective evaluation is an index with which to evaluate one's overall satisfaction levels of life, and is a unique area where evaluation levels will show distinct differences (Diener, 1994). Subjective well-being is one's personal evaluation on one's overall life, or cognitive evaluations such as positive and negative feelings (Andrews and Withey, 1976); thus, it is defined as an evaluation based on one's personal emotions. A characteristic of subjective well-being is that levels differ according to one's personal experiences since quality of life and happiness are judged based on subjective judgment (Campbell, 1976). In addition, happiness reflects the positive aspects of life while it simultaneously denies its negative aspects. In this light, subjective well-being must be considered with positive affective experiences and negative affective experiences. Lastly, the quality of life as judged by subjective well-being is an evaluation of one's entire life, and has integrating characteristics (Diener and Emmons, 1984; Gilbert and Abdullah, 2004). With the beginning of research on the quality of life which incurs happiness, personal happiness was studied from a perspective where quality of life and happiness were subjective experiences in the lives of individuals (Andrews and Withey, 1976; Campbell, 1976). Such research employed various vocabulary including subjective quality of life, life satisfaction, happiness, and subjective well-being (Diener, Scollon and Lucas, 2003), and after the 1990s was understood as a multifarious definition comprising an emotional conception and affective judgment (Diener, Suh, Smith and Shao, 1995; Diener, 1996) related to one's personal life.

Andrews and Withey (1976) asserted that the components of subjective well-being were life satisfaction judgment, positive affect, and negative affect, while Diener (1984) claimed that it was comprised of cognitive aspects and affective aspects (Diener, 1984; Emmons and Diener, 1985). Additionally, Shin and Johnson (1978) stated that it was composed of life satisfaction levels of cognitive aspects and positive affective reactions and negative affective reactions of affective aspects. Positive affect and negative affect of affective aspects regarding conditions of life are perceived independently (Diener and Emmons, 1984; Emmons and Diener, 1985). Accordingly, high subjective well-being assumes a high life satisfaction level, low negative affective experience, and many positive affective experiences. Related preceding research are studies on the relation between leisure activities and subjective well-being. David and Junaida (2004) reported that leisure experience positively affects subjective well-being in a research which studied the influences vacation experience has on subjective well-being. In an analysis which looked at the different perceptions of subjective well-being amongst people with and without tourism experiences, Gilbert and Abdullah (2004) have established that those with experiences had higher perception levels of subjective well-being in comparison with those without experiences.

*Hypotheses*

According to previous research (Emmons and Diener, 1985; Diener, Suh, Smith and Shao, 1995), conducted on the relationship between leisure activities and subjective well-being, leisure activities and participation in tourism activities influence subjective well-being. In an analysis which studied the different levels of subjective well-being between those with and without tourism experiences, those with experiences showed higher levels of subjective well-being(Gilbert and Abdullah, 2004). Taking into account preceding research analyses which show that active tourism activities positively affect subjective well-being, it can be derived that health tour participants who seek health benefits will show even higher levels of subjective well-being. Under the assumption that differences will occur according to tourist activities of health tour participants and non-participants, and that levels of participants will be much higher, this study puts forth the following hypothesis.

> H1: Differences will occur in perceptions of subjective well-being according to whether one participates in health tourism.

> H2: Satisfaction levels of tourism activities (health tour participants/non- participants) will considerably impact subjective well-being.

*Definition of Manipulative Variable*

In this research, health tours can be defined into an area of special purpose of tourism activities where the motivation for tourism is to improve one's health and utilize facilities and services suited to the motivation. Among the 5 types of Chinese medicine, western medicine, cuisine, beauty care, and recuperation, as health tour participants of this research have been studied in preceding research, Chinese medicine and recuperation have been selected as health tour products with the highest potential.

As an index to evaluate one's overall life satisfaction levels according to one's judgment, subjective well-being will be defined as one's emotions and cognitive evaluation on one's life. The content construction of subjective well-being has been researched in preceding studies (Andrews and Withey, 1976) as life satisfaction and positive and negative affective experiences. In this study also, the degrees of perception of three areas including quality of life (16 components), positive affective experiences (4 components), and negative affective experiences (4 components) utilized in previous studies (Andrews and Withey, 1976; Diener and Emmons, 1985) to evaluate subjective well-being are questioned to mark on a 7 - point Likert scale. Life satisfaction is defined as overall cognitive judgment on one's entire process of life, and negative affective experiences indicate unpleasant emotions or feelings such as sadness or fear. In addition, positive affective experiences indicate pleasant emotions or feelings such as happiness, and can be defined in more detail as social interest, activities, and extroverted nature. Clauses to evaluate satisfaction levels of tourism activities include intentions to participate again, intentions to recommend activities to family and friends, and overall satisfaction ratings. Participants were asked to give ratings on a 7 - point Likert scale (1: Definitely not, 7: Definitely yes).

The questionnaire drawn up for this research comprises five parts (questions on experience types of tourism activities, population statistics questions, motivation for participation, satisfaction levels after tourism activities, and subjective well-being after tourism activities), but this research excluded motivation to participate and used four parts.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS METHODS

In the case of health tour participants, the questionnaire survey was conducted right after the tourism activities of 210 Japanese tourists who participated in herb health tours in Busan, Korea (from 2012

December 1 to 2013 April 20) and 123 (58.6% valid survey) responses were collected. Of 220 Korean tourists who participated in hot springs health tours in Sapporo, Hokkaido, Japan (from 2013 June 23 to July 28), 168 respondents (76.4% valid survey) were collected. In the case of non-participants, it was conducted on 300 Japanese tourists (from 2012 December 1 to 2013 April 20), and 167 people (55.7% valid survey) who visited Busan on a program which did not include health tour programs were collected. Of 360 Korean tourists (form 2013 June 23 to July 28), 275 people (76.4% valid survey) who visited Sapporo, were collected. Both group samples were tourists who used travel agents" products or were free independent tourists. For a better understanding of this study, participants were divided into 4 categories: Japanese herb medicine health tourists, Japanese non-participants, Korean health-seeking tourists, and Korean non-participants. Input and reaffirming processes of collected questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS 14.0.

Table 1. Characteristics of population statistics

| Variable | Category | Japanese herb medicine health tourists | | Japanese non-participants | | Korean health-seeking tourists | | Korean non-participants | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | n | % | n | % | n | % | n | % |
| Gender | Female | 58 | 47.2 | 97 | 58.1 | 98 | 58.3 | 149 | 54.2 |
| | Male | 65 | 52.8 | 70 | 41.9 | 70 | 41.7 | 126 | 45.8 |
| Age | 20-29 years | 36 | 29.3 | 41 | 24.6 | 80 | 47.6 | 82 | 29.8 |
| | 30-39 years | 18 | 14.6 | 37 | 22.2 | 30 | 17.9 | 54 | 19.6 |
| | 40-49 years | 19 | 15.5 | 50 | 29.9 | 35 | 20.8 | 55 | 20.4 |
| | 50-59 years | 37 | 30.1 | 24 | 14.4 | 17 | 10.1 | 70 | 24.7 |
| | Over 60 years | 13 | 10.5 | 15 | 8.9 | 6 | 3.6 | 14 | 5.1 |
| Education | Less than high school | 53 | 43.1 | 59 | 35.3 | 58 | 34.5 | 86 | 27.6 |
| | College students | 32 | 26.0 | 48 | 28.7 | 50 | 29.8 | 91 | 47.6 |
| | College graduates | 33 | 26.8 | 50 | 29.9 | 52 | 31.0 | 80 | 21.8 |
| | More than graduate school | 5 | 4.1 | 10 | 6.0 | 8 | 4.8 | 18 | 2.9 |
| Marital status | Single | 50 | 40.7 | 72 | 43.1 | 92 | 54.8 | 121 | 44.0 |
| | Married | 73 | 59.3 | 95 | 56.9 | 76 | 45.2 | 154 | 56.0 |
| Average monthly wages (US$) | Less than 1 000 | 30 | 24.4 | 53 | 31.7 | 20 | 11.9 | 33 | 11.3 |
| | 1 000-2 000 | 52 | 42.3 | 42 | 25.2 | 58 | 34.5 | 135 | 49.1 |
| | More than 2 000 | 41 | 33.3 | 72 | 43.1 | 90 | 53.6 | 107 | 38.9 |
| Job | Office worker | 15 | 12.2 | 24 | 14.4 | 19 | 11.3 | 39 | 14.2 |
| | Engineer | 7 | 5.7 | 17 | 10.2 | 13 | 7.7 | 18 | 6.5 |
| | Student | 18 | 14.6 | 43 | 25.7 | 55 | 32.7 | 56 | 20.4 |
| | Public officer | 10 | 8.1 | 11 | 6.6 | 10 | 6.0 | 33 | 12.0 |
| | Independent enterprise | 26 | 21.1 | 23 | 13.8 | 30 | 17.9 | 49 | 17.8 |
| | Housewife | 40 | 32.5 | 38 | 22.8 | 32 | 19.0 | 66 | 24.0 |
| | Other | 7 | 5.7 | 11 | 6.6 | 9 | 5.4 | 14 | 5.1 |

*General Characteristics of Samples*

Table 1 shows characteristics of population statistics of those who answered the questionnaire. To begin with, in the case of Japanese herb medicine health tourists, there was a higher percentage of male participants (52.8%) with the highest rate of participants in their 50s (30.1%) and 20s (29.3%), and highest rate of jobs were housewife (32.5%), independent enterprise (21.1%), and student (14.6%). Among Japanese non-participants, there was a slightly higher rate of women (58.1%), with the most participants in their 40s (29.9%), 20s (24.6%), 30s (22.2%) and the jobs with the highest rates were less than high school (35.3%) and housewife (22.8%). Among Korean health seeking tourists, there was a slightly higher rate of women (58.3%), with most participants in their 20s (47.6%), and the highest rate of participants were less than high school (34.5%) and student (32.7%) and housewife (19.0%). In the case of Korean non-participants, there were more women (54.2%), with most in their 20s (29.8%) and 50s (24.7%), and the highest rated jobs were housewife (24.0%) and student (20.4%). Overall, the rate of females is slightly higher, and it can be assumed that there was a comparatively higher rate of college students who answered the questionnaire as it was conducted during summer break, which accounts for the high rates of students and housewives in their 20s and 40s respectively.

*Comparison of Satisfaction Levels and Subjective Well-being of Participants and Non- Participants in Health Tours*

Before analyzing satisfaction levels and well-being, t-test was conducted to study perception differences of satisfaction levels regarding health tourism activities, which showed that it was partially significant (See Table 2).

Table 2. Comparison of satisfaction levels of tourism activities

| Category | Japanese | | | | Korean | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | A: Herb medicine health tourists B: Non-participants | | | | C: Health seeking health tourists D: Non-participants | | | |
| | t-value | Significance | A | B | t-value | Significance | C | D |
| Overall satisfaction | -3.315 | .001* | 4.09 | 4.52 | -1.388 | .166 | 4.52 | 4.37 |
| Recommend to family and friends | -1.654 | .099 | 4.06 | 4.34 | 0.685 | .494 | 4.35 | 4.44 |
| Intention to participate again | 4.371 | .000* | 4.16 | 3.46 | 7.170 | .000* | 3.47 | 4.40 |

Note: *Significance $p<0.01$        1= Definitely not 7= Definitely yes.

Analysis results showed that in the case of Japanese herb medicine health tourists, there were significant differences in perceptions on 'intention to participate again" and 'overall satisfaction". In satisfaction levels on 'intention to participate again" were higher for participants (m=4.16) in comparison to non-participants. Whereas satisfaction levels on 'overall satisfaction" were higher for non-participants (m=4.52) in comparison to participants. In the case of Korean tourists, there were significant differences in perceptions on 'intention to participate again' between the two groups, showing a higher levels of 'intention to participate again" (m=4.40) for non-seekers in comparison to health-seeking tourists.

The results of t-test which studied perception differences in subjective well-being according to whether one participated in a health tour were partially significant (See Table 3). Analysis results showed that a significant difference occurred in perceptions of 'life satisfaction', 'positive affect', 'negative affect' among Japanese oriental medicine health tourists and non- participants. Significant differences also occurred in perceptions of 'positive affect' and 'negative affect' among Korean health-seeking health tourists and non-participants.

Table 3. Comparison of subjective well-being differences

| Category | Japanese | | | | Korean | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | A: Herb medicine health tourists B: Non-participants | | | | C: Health-seeking health tourists D: Non-participants | | | |
| | t-value | Significance | A | B | t-value | Significance | C | D |
| Life Satisfaction | 4.700 | .000* | 3.91 | 3.34 | 1.456 | .146 | 3.34 | 3.49 |
| Positive Affect | 8.138 | .000* | 3.72 | 2.85 | 12.222 | .000* | 2.85 | 3.95 |
| Negative Affect | -3.863 | .000* | 3.19 | 3.57 | -6.748 | .000* | 3.57 | 2.93 |

Note: *Significance p<0.01          1= Definitely not 7= Definitely yes.

Table 4. Analytical comparison of sources to affect subjective well-being among Japanese tourists according to participation in health tours

| | | Herb medicine health tourists | | | | | | Non-participants | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Factor | Category | Factor loadings | Communality | Eigen value | α | Factor | Category | Factor loadings | Communality | Eigen value | α |
| LIFE SATISFACTION | IS13 | .858 | .782 | 10.292 | 0.967 | LIFE SATISFACTION | IS12 | .829 | .734 | 6.450 | .927 |
| | IS15 | .850 | .776 | | | | IS3 | .820 | .683 | | |
| | IS12 | .845 | .749 | | | | IS2 | .794 | .698 | | |
| | IS16 | .844 | .761 | | | | IS13 | .788 | .635 | | |
| | IS11 | .837 | .753 | | | | IS4 | .740 | .617 | | |
| | IS1 | .806 | .728 | | | | IS6 | .727 | .616 | | |
| | IS9 | .800 | .723 | | | | IS8 | .691 | .481 | | |
| | IS10 | .798 | .701 | | | | IS7 | .656 | .615 | | |
| | IS3 | .796 | .640 | | | | IS1 | .645 | .613 | | |
| | IS7 | .787 | .704 | | | | IS5 | .642 | .662 | | |
| | IS2 | .787 | .713 | | | | IS14 | .638 | .584 | | |
| | IS8 | .757 | .687 | | | | IS9 | .537 | .517 | | |
| | IS14 | .737 | .645 | | | | | | | | |
| | IS5 | .694 | .634 | | | | | | | | |
| | IS6 | .675 | .612 | | | | | | | | |
| | IS4 | .657 | .622 | | | | | | | | |
| Dispersion (%) = 51.45 | | | | | | Dispersion (%) = 40.30 | | | | | |
| POSITIVE AFFECT | PA2 | .798 | .724 | 3.267 | 0.867 | NEGATIVE AFFECT | NA4 | .786 | .618 | 3.099 | 0.701 |
| | PA3 | .766 | .709 | | | | NA2 | .718 | .560 | | |
| | PA4 | .669 | .723 | | | | | | | | |
| | PA1 | .602 | .64 | | | | | | | | |
| Dispersion (%) = 12.96 | | | | | | Dispersion (%) = 11.44 | | | | | |
| NEGATIVE AFFECT | NA3 | .859 | .754 | 3.212 | 0.853 | POSITIVE AFFECT | PA3 | .824 | .706 | 2.001 | 0.626 |
| | NA1 | .816 | .731 | | | | PA2 | .766 | .624 | | |
| | NA2 | .781 | .639 | | | | | | | | |
| | NA4 | .740 | .626 | | | | | | | | |
| Dispersion (%) = 5.47 | | | | | | Dispersion (%) = 9.05 | | | | | |

*Analysis of Factors to Affect Subjective Well-being among Different Nationalities*

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A survey was conducted to evaluate the subjective well-being of health tour participants and non-participants, and the analytical results of factors to decrease variables (positive affect; PA1: affection, PA2: happiness, PA3: satisfaction, PA4: pride, negative affect; NA1: fear, NA2: anger, NA3: sorrow, NA4: guilt, life satisfaction; IS1: family, IS2: friends, IS3: residents, IS4: leisure, IS5: health, IS6: freedom, IS7: education, IS8: personal relationships, IS9: finances, IS10: job, IS11: self, IS12: country, IS13: food, IS15: service, IS16: facilities) are represented in Table 4. In the case of Japanese oriental medicine health tourists (See Table 4), numbers of communalities all overreached 0.6, so all variables were included in the analysis of factors. KMO was 0.888, Bartlett"s sphericity test was 2824.909(p=0.000), and the overall dispersion of 69.88% shows that the analysis of factors was appropriate. Using the standard of an eigenvalue over 1, the 3 factors of life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect were drawn as a result of analyzing the factors. In the case of Japanese non-participants, the 6 variables (IS10, IS11, IS15, IS16, PA1, PA4, NA2, NA3) of which the number of communalities did not exceed 0.4 were eliminated. After a second factor analysis, the KMO was 0.793, Bartlett"s sphericity test was 2243.868(p=0.000), and the overall dispersion of 60.79% shows that the factor analysis was appropriate. The 3 factors of life satisfaction, negative affect, and positive affect were deduced as a result of the factors analysis.

Table 5. Analytical comparison between sources of subjective well-being according to participation in health tourism among Koreans

| Health-seeking health tourists | | | | | | Non-participants | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Factor | Category | Factor loadings | Communality | Eigen value | α | Factor | Category | Factor loadings | Communality | Eigen value | α |
| LIFE SATISFACTION | IS12 | .834 | .747 | 6.322 | .927 | LIFE SATISFACTION | IS11 | .825 | .691 | 9.516 | .954 |
| | IS3 | .813 | .673 | | | | IS13 | .824 | .652 | | |
| | IS2 | .808 | .705 | | | | IS15 | .818 | .671 | | |
| | IS13 | .801 | .646 | | | | IS7 | .805 | .652 | | |
| | IS4 | .755 | .621 | | | | IS12 | .805 | .652 | | |
| | IS6 | .714 | .620 | | | | IS9 | .789 | .628 | | |
| | IS8 | .698 | .488 | | | | IS8 | .784 | .644 | | |
| | IS1 | .663 | .574 | | | | IS2 | .779 | .649 | | |
| | IS7 | .647 | .630 | | | | IS14 | .773 | .607 | | |
| | IS14 | .633 | .546 | | | | IS3 | .765 | .620 | | |
| | IS5 | .621 | .678 | | | | IS16 | .731 | .538 | | |
| | IS9 | .576 | .540 | | | | IS6 | .729 | .557 | | |
| | | | | | | | IS5 | .728 | .538 | | |
| | | | | | | | IS10 | .724 | .551 | | |
| | | | | | | | IS1 | .704 | .572 | | |
| | | | | | | | IS4 | .697 | .489 | | |
| Dispersion (%) = 38.29 | | | | | | Dispersion (%) = 46.68 | | | | | |
| POSITIVE AFFECT | PA2 | .814 | .675 | 2.761 | 0.703 | NEGATIVE AFFECT | NA4 | .818 | .681 | 2.846 | 0.837 |
| | PA3 | .803 | .700 | | | | NA3 | .818 | .681 | | |
| | | | | | | | NA1 | .800 | .679 | | |
| | | | | | | | NA2 | .782 | .625 | | |
| Dispersion (%) = 11.78 | | | | | | Dispersion (%) = 11.67 | | | | | |
| NEGATIVE AFFECT | NA4 | .793 | .633 | 2.014 | 0.627 | POSITIVE AFFECT | PA3 | .849 | .721 | 2.751 | .833 |
| | NA2 | .739 | .580 | | | | PA2 | .837 | .704 | | |
| | | | | | | | PA4 | .833 | .711 | | |
| | | | | | | | PA1 | .713 | .560 | | |
| Dispersion (%) = 8.38 | | | | | | Dispersion (%) = 8.48 | | | | | |

In the case of Korean health-seeking health tourists, (See Table5), 5 factors (IS16, PA1, PA4, NA1, NA3) where the number of communalities did not exceed 0.4 were eliminated. As a result of a second factor analysis, 3 factor (IS10, IS11, IS15) where the number of communalities did not exceed 0.4

was eliminated. As a result of a third factor analysis, all variables exceeded 0.4 and therefore included in the factor analysis. KMO was 0.789, Bartlett‟s sphericity test was 2092.919 (p=0.000), and the overall dispersion of 61.65% shows that the analysis was appropriate. Using the standard of an eigenvalue over 1, the 3 factors of life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect were deduced. In the case of non- participants, all variables exceeded 0.4 and therefore included in factor analysis. KMO was 0.910, Bartlett‟s sphericity test was 4637.281(p=0.000), and the overall dispersion of 62.97% shows that the analysis was appropriate. The 3 factors of life satisfaction, negative affect, and positive affect were deduced as a result of the factor analysis.

The 3 factors of life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect can be deduced when studying analytical results of sources to influence subjective well-being in Table 4 and Table 5 regardless of whether one participated in a health tour, but while sources to impact perceptions of subjective well-being of health tour participants are in the order of life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect, in the case of non-participants it is in the order of life satisfaction, negative affect, and positive affect, hence pointing to the fact that there are differences in levels of perception of factors.

*Comparison between Satisfaction Levels of Tourism Activities and Subjective Well- being*

Regression analysis was conducted using Least Square Method to study the relations between satisfaction after tourism activities and specific factors that influence subjective well-being (Table 6).

Table 6 and Table 7 show that the degree of fitness of the regression model is in general low. However, it is judged that for the research purpose of this study, it is of an acceptable value. The influence of tourism activities on subjective well-being between Japanese oriental medicine health tourists and non-participants was partially significant, considering the significance rate p<0.05 (see Table 6). In examining satisfaction levels of tourism activities regarding life satisfaction as an independent variable for oriental medicine health tourists, only the factor of 'recommend to friends and family' had significant impact on the dependent variable, and standardized regression coefficient value(β) shows a positive trend. In considering satisfaction levels of tourism activities regarding positive and negative affect, it can be seen that 'overall satisfaction' had significant impact on the positive affect and that 'intention to participate again' had significant impact on the negative affect. Standardized regression coefficient value(β) shows a positive trend. In turn, this shows that for oriental medicine health tourists, overall satisfaction, recommend to friends and family, and intention to participate again have significant influence on life satisfaction in relation to subjective well-being.

When satisfaction levels of tourism activities regarding life satisfaction was included as an independent variable for non-participants, 'intention to participate again' was the selected factor,  and the  standardized regression coefficient value(β) was  positive. When satisfaction levels of tourism activities regarding negative affect was included as an independent variable, 'recommend to friends and family' and 'intention to participate again' were the 2 selected factors. Standardized regression coefficient value(β) was negative for 'intention to participate again', while 'recommend to friends and family' showed a positive value. When satisfaction levels of tourism activities regarding positive affect was included as an independent variable, 'recommend to friends and family' was the selected factor. Standardized regression coefficient value(β) showed a positive value.

In Table 7, when studying whether satisfaction levels after tourism activities among Korean health-seeking health tourists and non-participants impacted subjective well- being, it was shown to be significant at a significance level of p<0.05. To begin with, when satisfaction levels of tourism activities regarding positive and negative affect are included as an independent value, it can be seen that 'intention to participate again' had positively significant impact on the life satisfaction. And 'recommend to friends and family' had significant impact on the positive affect and that 'intention to participate again' and 'recommend to friends and family' had significant impact on the negative affect. And the standardized regression coefficient value(β) on 'recommend to friends and family' shows a

positive trend but the standardized regression coefficient value(β) on 'intention to participate again' shows a negative trend. In the case of non-participants, only 1 factor of 'recommend to friends and family' was shown to be significant to positive affect and the standardized regression coefficient value(β) shows a positive trend.

Table 6. Regression analytical results of satisfaction levels of tourism activities and subjective well-being among Japanese tourists

| Group | Dependent Variale | Independent Variable | Standardized β | t | P | B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ORIENTAL MEDICINE HEALTH TOURISTS | Life satisfaction | Constant | | 7.103 | .000 | 1.967 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | .277 | 1.500 | .136 | 0.188 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | .377 | 2.462 | .015* | 0.298 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -.009 | -0.060 | .952 | -0.007 |
| | | $R^2$=.328, Adjusted $R^2$=0.311, F=19.348** | | | | |
| | Positive affect | Constant | | 7.433 | .000 | 2.100 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | .351 | 2.190 | 0.30* | .280 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | .273 | 1.685 | .095 | .208 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -.116 | -.719 | .474 | -.089 |
| | | $R^2$=0.250, Adjusted $R^2$=0.231, F=13.205** | | | | |
| | Negative affect | Constant | | 8.325 | .000 | 2.407 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | .298 | 1.669 | .098 | .217 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | -.045 | -.251 | .802 | -.032 |
| | | Intention to participate again | .200 | -.002 | .000** | .241 |
| | | $R^2$=0.068, Adjusted $R^2$=0.045, F=2.877** | | | | |
| NON-PARTICIPANTS | Life satisfaction | Constant | | 6.334 | .000 | 3.000 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | -0.124 | -1.567 | .119 | -0.152 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.009 | 0.116 | .908 | 0.007 |
| | | Intention to participate again | 0.350 | 4.772 | .000** | 0.279 |
| | | $R^2$=0.136, Adjusted $R^2$=0.121, F=8.542** | | | | |
| | Negative affect | Constant | | 7.121 | .000 | 3.566 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | -0.085 | -1.149 | .252 | -.118 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.445 | 6.005 | .000** | .378 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -0.228 | -3.322 | .001** | -.206 |
| | | $R^2$=0.243, Adjusted $R^2$=0.229, F=17.241** | | | | |
| | Positive affect | Constant | | 6.637 | .000 | 3.576 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | -0.161 | -1.930 | .055 | -0.212 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.200 | 2.389 | .018* | 0.161 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -0.004 | -0.056 | .955 | -0.004 |
| | | $R^2$=0.042, Adjusted $R^2$=0.024, F=2.333** | | | | |

Note: *: p<.05, **: p<.01

Table 7. Regression analytical results of Korean tourists' satisfaction levels of tourism activities and subjective well-being

| Group | Dependent Variale | Independent Variable | Standardized β | t | P | B |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| HEALTH-SEEKING HEALTH TOURISTS | Life satisfaction | Constant | | 6.325 | .000 | 2.981 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | -0.241 | -1.577 | .117 | -0.153 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.017 | 0.213 | .831 | 0.013 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -.239 | 1.757 | .000** | 0.281 |
| | | $R^2=0.139$, Adjusted $R^2=0.123$, F=8.693** | | | | |
| | Positive affect | Constant | | 6.841 | .000 | 3.645 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | -0.164 | -1.975 | .050 | -0.216 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.203 | 2.439 | .016 | 0.166 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -0.034 | -0.444 | .658 | -.029 |
| | | $R^2=0.045$, Adjusted $R^2=0.027$, F=2.519** | | | | |
| | Negative affect | Constant | | 7.259 | .000 | 3.624 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | -0.085 | -1.142 | .255 | -0.117 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.429 | 5.737 | .000** | 0.367 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -0.238 | -3.438 | .001** | -0.210 |
| | | $R^2=0.228$, Adjusted $R^2=0.214$, F=15.867** | | | | |
| NON-PARTICIPANTS | Life satisfaction | Constant | | 11.711 | .000 | 2.954 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | 0.183 | 1.966 | .050 | 0.158 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.013 | 0.120 | .905 | 0.011 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -0.058 | -0.548 | .584 | -0.048 |
| | | $R^2=.024$, Adjusted $R^2=0.014$, F=2.251** | | | | |
| | Negative affect | Constant | | 10.933 | .000 | 2.691 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | 0.038 | 0.403 | .688 | 0.032 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.061 | 0.540 | .590 | 0.049 |
| | | Intention to participate again | -0.034 | -0.314 | .753 | -0.027 |
| | | $R^2=0.005$, Adjusted $R^2=0.006$, F=0.417** | | | | |
| | Positive affect | Constant | | 10.590 | .000 | 2.258 |
| | | Overall satisfaction | 0.165 | 1.970 | .050* | 0.134 |
| | | Recommend to friends and family | 0.275 | 2.710 | .007** | 0.213 |
| | | Intention to participate again | 0.048 | 0.496 | .621 | 0.037 |
| | | $R^2=0.205$, Adjusted $R^2=0.196$, F=23.245** | | | | |

Note: *: $p<.05$, **: $p<.01$

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This research was conducted under the assumption that satisfaction levels of tourism activities and subjective well-being would show differences, and that satisfaction levels and subjective well-being would be affected according to whether one participates in health tours and the type of tour. A subjective well-being scale was applied in the analysis, and participants were divided into 4 groups of Japanese herb medicine health tourists, Japanese non-participants, Korean health-seeking tourists, and Korean non-participants to help the understanding of this study. Results of this research and points of discussion are the following. To begin with, there were significant differences in satisfaction levels after tourism activities according to whether one participated in a health tour. The 'intention to participate again' among Korean health-seeking tourists and non-participants was the only variable, and the 2 variables of 'overall satisfaction' and 'intention to participate again' among Japanese herb medicine health tourists and non-participants were significant. However, in the evaluation which used a 7 - point Likert scale, most were in the 4 point range which shows that effort is needed to create alternatives to tourism products.

Second, as a result of conducting t-test to study differences in perceptions on subjective well-being according to one's participation in a health tour, it was shown that 'life satisfaction', 'positive affect', and 'negative affect' of Japanese herb medicine tourists and non- participants had significant differences. 'Positive affect' and 'negative affect' of Korean health-seeking tourists and non-participants showed significant differences in part. Health tour participants showed a higher level of subjective well-being in comparison to non- participants, supporting the hypothesis that there are differences in perceptions of subjective well-being according to whether one participates in a health tour. This is in accordance with the research of David and Junaida (2004), and Gilbert and Abdullah (2004).

Third, looking at the analysis of sources to affect subjective well-being, differences exist in sources according to whether one has participated in a health tour. Although in each group there are 3 sources, for Japanese herb medicine health tourists and Korean health- seeking tourists they are lined in the order of life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect, while for Korean and Japanese non-participants the order is life satisfaction, negative affect, and positive affect. Among the areas of subjective well-being perceived after tourism activities, the importance of life satisfaction was shown to be the most significant, supporting Shin and Johnson's (1978) research which claims that life satisfaction is the most important judgment process of one's overall quality of life under one's personal standards.

Fourth, an analysis of the relation between the factors of satisfaction after tourism experiences and subjective well-being shows that in the case of Japanese oriental medicine health tourists, there are significant influences on the overall satisfaction levels of life satisfaction. In the case of non-participants, „intention to participate again‟ had significant influences on overall life satisfaction. In the area of positive affect, „recommend to friends and family‟ and „intention to participate again‟ had significant influences. In the case of Korean health-seeking tourists, „recommend to friends and family‟ had significant influences on the area of positive affect, while „recommend to friends and family‟ and „intention to participate again‟ had significant impact on the negative impact. For non-participants, only „recommend to friends and family‟ impacted the area of positive affect. Thus, in part, significant relations exist among subjective well-being and satisfaction levels after tourism activities according to whether one participated in a health tour. These results differ from those of previous studies of Lee and Jeon (2005) and Neal, Sirgy and Uysak (1999) which state that there is no correlation between leisure activities and subjective well-being.

However, the area of subjective well-being as influenced by satisfaction after tourism activities among oriental medicine health tourists(Japanese) is smaller than that of non- participants, while

health seeking tourists(Korean) is bigger than that of non-participants. From this, it can be derived that in the cases of oriental medicine health tours and health- oriented tours, rather than a specialized tour program for health tourism, short-term city tour programs are being provided to foreign tourists. In the case of health tours, long-term experiences are needed for tourists to experience the effects, but only simple medical treatment and hot spring programs are provided as of now. Also, oriental medicine health tours are expected to have high tourism product potential by differentiating from other types of health tours, but such products which emphasize uniqueness are rarely found. More advertisement and health tour products which include special programs such as oriental medicine and recuperation are needed to develop tourism products and the tourism industry.

This research, like other studies, should be understood within a few restrictions. First, when conducting the survey, oriental medicine health tourists and health-seeking hot spring tourists were put under the category of health tour participants, while city tourists of Busan and Sapporo were labeled as non-participants. Hence, limitations may exist to generalize the results of this study. However, the significance of this study exists in that it provides a base stone for industrial development of future health tourism. This research on health tourism are also differentiated from other research with an emphasis on oriental medicine and recuperation. Second, the concept of subjective well-being as used in this study is an index used in the area of social psychology, and was utilized as a research tool to provide methods to further develop and activate the area of health tourism. Therefore, future studies should focus on methods to develop criteria of subjective well-being and ways to utilize psychological estimation tools. Since this research reflects peoples' desires to participate in experience-oriented tourism activities as well as a healthy lifestyle, improvement of quality of life through health tours and satisfaction of sightseeing may be fulfilled simultaneously. In addition, the significance of this study lies in that the industry will be activated with research and development of characteristics of health tourism differentiated from other city tourism products.

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# SURROGACY TOURISM: THE ETHICAL AND LEGAL CHALLENGES

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## ABSTRACT

Although surrogacy has been practised since ancient times, its resurgence in the contemporary era has been phenomenal. With advances made in reproductive technology, it is now possible to fertilise eggs and sperms in laboratories and have the embryo transferred into the womb of a surrogate mother for gestation. Through a combination of push and pull factors, this possibility of gestational surrogacy has led to the meteoric rise of cross-border surrogacy. This paper seeks to highlight the ethical and legal challenges associated with the practice and calls for better legal oversight at international level.

Key words: Surrogacy; medical tourism; reproductive ethics; IVF; bioethics; medical law

## INTRODUCTION

Surrogacy has been defined as the practice where one woman carries a child on behalf of another with the intention of handing over the child after birth (Warnock, 1984). Derived from the Latin word 'surrogatus' which means a 'substitute' or 'in place of another' (Mahon, 2009), it is known to have been carried out since Biblical times (Genesis 16: 1-4; Blyth & Farrand, 2005). The 1980s saw the revival of interest as well as a revolution in the practice with the arrival of *in vitro fertilization* (IVF) technology. As this technique allows for eggs to be fertilised with sperm inside a laboratory before the fertilised egg or embryo is transferred to the womb to grow (NHS Choices, 2015), it opens up the door for gestational surrogacy. Thus unlike traditional surrogacy where the surrogate mother is also the biological mother of the child, IVF enables the commissioning parents' own eggs and sperms to be fertilised and transferred into the surrogate's womb for gestation. The surrogate mother would therefore retain no genetic ties with the child while an infertile couple has an opportunity to have a child that is genetically theirs (Lee, 2009; Jadva & Imrie, 2014). The technique has also opened up the possibility of the fertilization and subsequent transfer of the commissioning mother's egg with a donor's sperm; a donor's egg with the commissioning father's sperm; or even the use of both donated eggs and donated sperms. This has therefore also made it possible for single people or homosexual couples to become parents (Brugger, 2012; Pennings, 2002). This new possibility gave rise to commercial surrogacy where monetary compensation is paid to a woman to serve as a gestational surrogate (Lee, 2009). However, numerous factors have served as barriers to entering into a commercial surrogacy arrangement domestically. There could perhaps be a lack of sufficiently skilled healthcare professionals and/or technological resources in the home country or a strong desire to protect their privacy

(Palattiyil, Blyth, Sidhva & Balakrishnan, 2010). Even if the relevant technology and personnel may be available, some countries may exclude aspiring parents on the basis of age, marital status or sexual orientation (Palattiyil, Blyth, Sidhva & Balakrishnan, 2010). A number of countries (e.g. France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Spain, Sweden, and a few states in the USA) have even placed a legal ban on surrogacy, while others (like Canada, New Zealand, the UK, and a number of states in Australia) have made commercial surrogacy illegal or heavily regulated (Ahmad, 2011; Callaghan & Newson, 2014; Cohen, 2015; Lee, 2009). In addition, surrogacy may also be prohibitively expensive in certain countries.

These factors have triggered the proliferation of cross-border surrogacy. Infertile or homosexual couples desiring to be parents are increasingly attracted to transnational gestational surrogacy 'hubs' like India, Ukraine, Thailand, Russia and Slovenia. Demand is fuelled by factors like the decline in the numbers of children available for adoption; the availability of high quality reproductive healthcare and highly skilled personnel; significantly lower prices; and lax governmental regulation in these countries (Rimm, 2009). Thus in just over 3 decades, surrogacy tourism is now a multi-billion dollar industry. India, by far the country most frequented by such would-be parents, is reported to have an annual income of USD2 billion (Vincent & Aftandilian, 2013) derived from surrogacy alone. An official report from the country therefore described the industry as a "pot of gold" (Law Commission of India, 2009). The main reason behind India becoming the global centre of surrogacy (Ryznar, 2010) is because the costs of surrogacy there are substantially less than what they would cost in developed countries. For instance, the total cost of such services is approximately USD25,000 to USD30,000 in India (Mohapatra 2012) where it would cost between USD70,000 and USD150,000 for the same to be procured in the USA (Lee, 2009). In addition to the provision of cost effective treatment, there are no elaborate paperwork or legal formalities involved – it being possible to arrange the entire transaction online via agencies (Schover, 2014), and there is legal recognition that the surrogacy arrangement is valid (Shetty, 2012). Worldwide, surrogacy tourism is now worth approximately USD6 billion a year (Mohapatra, 2012). In this paper, we seek to investigate some pertinent ethical and legal issues relating to this booming industry. There are also some references to encourage further reading of this emerging field.

MORAL AND LEGAL COMPLEXITIES

Surrogacy tourism, on the face of it, seems to lead to a win-win or mutually beneficial situation for all concerned. The infertile couple gets the child they long for; the surrogate mother can earn in 9 months what would otherwise take years to accumulate thus enabling a better quality of life (for instance, Indian surrogate mothers receive USD3,000-6,000 for their services compared to their usual annual income of around just USD500 – Palattiyil, Blythm Sidhva & Balakrishnan, 2010); and the country hosting the surrogacy enjoys economic growth. Lurking underneath, however, are numerous ethical and legal complexities. This part of the discussion will look at some of these issues as they relate to the surrogate mother; the commissioning parents; and the child.

Looking firstly at surrogate mothers, it is important to note that just as the commissioning parents in transnational gestational surrogacy typically come from high-income countries, those serving as gestational mothers usually come from low or middle-income countries where there is a very large pool of poor fertile women of childbearing ages (Kirby, 2014). There is therefore a marked economic inequality between the two parties (Pande, 2011). Further, there is also a gulf between the surrogate mothers and the local doctors treating them in terms of class, level of education and social power (Deonandan, Green & van Beinum, 2012). As such, they could be prompted by economic reasons and be subjected to undue influence or coercion from family members and doctors to take part (Mohapatra 2012; Palattiyil, Blythm Sidhva & Balakrishnan, 2010). This could put into question their voluntariness. Concerns have also been raised that unscrupulous intermediaries have lured and pushed these economically and educationally disadvantaged women into surrogate motherhood (Lee, 2009). Since many of those recruited as potential surrogate mothers are also

illiterate (Deonandan, Loncar, Rahman & Omar, 2012), they are easy preys to racketeers and traffickers (Dasgupta & Das Dasgupta, 2014). Consequently, there have been reports that surrogate mothers in such countries are misused and exploited (Siva, 2011).

Additionally, since surrogacy arrangements are brokered in a purely capitalist milieu, full and frank information-disclosure usually takes a back seat to the generation of new business (Deonandan, Loncar, Rahman & Omar, 2012). Many of the women are therefore not made aware of the physical and mental health risks associated with being a surrogate mother. These include the possibilities of: having to accept multiple embryos to maximise successful implantation and undergo selective reduction abortion (Deonandan, Green & van Beinum, 2012); having to undergo nonemergency caesarean sections at the direction of the commissioning parents (Vincent & Aftandilian, 2013); missing their own children when living in surrogacy hostels during their pregnancy (Kirby, 2014; Mohapatra, 2012); undergoing postnatal depression (Palattiyil, Blythm Sidhva & Balakrishnan, 2010) after giving up a child with whom they feel a sense of attachment to (Lee, 2009; Macer, 2014; Riley, 2007); and even death (Kirby, 2014). Neither do they receive any counselling before, during or after pregnancy (Vincent & Aftandilian, 2013). As the clinics operate along commercial lines, there is no incentive to spend further resources on the surrogate mother once she has performed what she was employed for i.e. to deliver a healthy child (Deonandan, Green & van Beinum, 2012). In the event where limited information was provided, no efforts were made to ascertain if they understand what they have been told (Kirby 2014).

Indeed the surrogacy contract itself is usually written in English, a language which very few, if any, of the women can understand (Kirby 2014). It has been reported that many authorize the contract with a thumbprint as they are unable to read and write (Mohapatra 2012). The terms and conditions are exclusively determined by infertility brokers and the doctors who own and operate the clinics where the surrogacy will take place (Kirby 2014). The surrogate women therefore played no part in negotiating the terms of the contract including the amount they will be paid (Mohapatra 2012). Nor are they legally represented (Deonandan, Green & van Beinum, 2012). As such, only a small amount of the surrogacy fee goes to the surrogate mother. In India, for instance, the amount received by the surrogates are only around 10% of the amount paid by the commissioning parents and in Ukraine this is around 30% (Mohapatra, 2012). Thus they may not be receiving a fair price in the regional and local contexts (Deonandan, Green & van Beinum, 2012). Had they been aware of the risks involved and received legal representation, a higher price could perhaps be negotiated (Mohapatra 2012). Moreover, they will also not receive any compensation if the pregnancy fails as many only received their payment after they have given birth (Goodwin 2013). Other considerations which are often overlooked in the contract are issues like whether if they will still be paid if they are asked to abort the fetus or if the commissioning parents change their minds before or after the child is born; are they insured; do they have a right to terminate the pregnancy; and will there be aftercare or compensation if they suffer injury or contract an infection as a result of their participation (Schover, 2014). In view of the discussion above, it is doubtful if they entered into the surrogacy arrangement on an informed and voluntary basis. Being a surrogate is therefore a form of labour rather than a result of an autonomous decision (Mohapatra, 2012).

As for the commissioning parents, they too risk many uncertainties. Not least of which are the potential legal pitfalls (Gamble, 2009). Because of the differing laws in their own and in the foreign country, they may not know issues like: the legality and validity of the surrogate contract; whether they would have any legal recourse in the event where the surrogate mother changes her mind; whether they would still have to pay the surrogacy fee if the child dies during pregnancy; and if they can refuse to take the child if he or she was born disabled (Lee, 2009; Mohapatra 2012). Even where the pregnancy and birth are successful and the child was handed over as agreed, there are immigration issues that need to be dealt with when efforts are made to bring the child back to the commissioning parents' home country (Charrot, 2014). Will their domestic law allow the repatriation of the child; will they be recognised as the child's legal parents and will the child be

able to have their nationality? It is known that even when the commissioning parents obtained a court order in the child's country of birth which recognises or enforces the surrogacy arrangement, this order may not be recognised in their country (Charrot, 2014). Likewise with birth certificates which are issued in the country of the child's birth. Some countries have even made it illegal for their citizens to engage in international surrogacy (e.g. France and some states in Australia) (Callaghan & Newson, 2014). If the commissioning couple is from one of these countries, they could even be prosecuted for going abroad to evade their own laws (Charrot, 2014). In such situations, the child could be ordered to return to their country of birth (Lee, 2009). Countries that ban surrogacy may also refuse to register the child in the country's registry thereby resulting in them not having any recognizable legal parents (Cohen, 2015).

In light of the above, the child is therefore born into uncertain family situations (Davis, 2012). It goes without saying that the child is therefore the most vulnerable party among all involved. Who will be considered as his or her parents; will he or she be legitimate with rights of inheritance; and what about issues like determination of religion and domicile (Ahmad, 2011)? Further, what if the child was disabled and rejected by the commissioning parents as in the high profile case of Baby Gammy (Schover, 2014)? What if the commissioning parents change their minds or got divorced before the child was born as in the case of Baby Manji, another high-profile case (Baby Manji Yamada v Union of India & Others 2008; Parks, 2010)? The lack of screening of who could commission a child may also leave the child with unfit parents (Lee, 2009). Since difficulties are faced when determining the child's legal parentage, the child even risks being stateless thus devoid of recognition by or protection of any state (Kanics, 2014; Parks, 2010; Re X and Y (Foreign Surrogacy) [2009]).

CONCLUSION

Surrogacy tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world today (Steiner, 2013). However, as discussed, there are numerous ethical and legal pitfalls that need to be considered. Yet this global and lucrative market has developed with few checks and balances in place (Smerdon, 2008-2009). There is currently no international treaty that regulates surrogacy tourism (Vincent & Aftandilian, 2013). There is only a web of conflicting national laws (Ramskold & Posner, 2013). The industry is therefore left to regulate itself and any guidelines or conditions are often driven by the market forces of demand and supply (Deonandan & Bente, 2014). But the potential for exploitation and harm to the surrogate mother, commissioning parents and above all, the child, is far too high that self-regulation cannot be the long-term answer (Lee, 2009). Rather, there is a need for legal oversight of the activity at international level.

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# TOURISM MANAGEMENT

# THE RELATIONSHIP OF MASS TOURISM AND NEW TOURISM IN TOURISM-BASED COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT OF BEPPU

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## ABSTRACT

New tourism was recognized as the mainstream of Japanese tourism management around the year 2000, though mass tourism is also important because of the opportunities like Chinese group tours under inbound promotion. In this research, to explain tourism-based community development in Beppu city which was formerly flourished as a hot spring destination, interview survey was conducted. This research finds activities of tourism-related organizations and examines the collaboration between mass tourism and new tourism activities. As a result, it is revealed that collaboration between mass tourism and new tourism seems important but difficult. Positive policies heading towards the collaboration is expected.

Key Words: mass tourism, new tourism, hot spring destination, collaboration, inbound promotion, Beppu

## INTRODUCTION

The relationship between mass tourism and new tourism is dynamically changing. Poon (1993) called mass tourism which is the best practice of tourism industry from 1960s to 1970s old tourism. In contrast with this, she also called a tourism characterized by flexible, segmented and environmentally conscious holiday new tourism. Oie (2010) classified new tourism into three groups: 1) Experience and cultural exchange type which specializes education travel making use of farming and fishing resources, 2) Tourism-based community development type which aims at local vitalization through tourism exchange and 3) Tourism destination revival type, which also aims to revive traditional tourism destinations. Tourism destination revival type innovates community-based tourism which appeared around the year 2000 reacted to a sharp decrease in (mass tourism) tourist numbers.

Meanwhile, inbound tourists are increasing in Japan, according to Japan National Tourism Organization (2013), foreign tourist numbers reached 8.61 million in 2010. One of the reasons is "Visit Japan Campaign" which began in 2003, visa exemption for Korean and Taiwanese nationals in 2005 and issuance of tourist visa for Chinese individual tourists since 2009 also helped to increase the tourists to Japan. In 2011, international tourists dropped in numbers due to the Great East Japan earthquake, however, they have rebounded again in 2012.

In the discussions of tourism-based community development, Shikida, Uchida and Morishige (2009) pointed out the problems of the first generation and the second generation. The first generation developed through specific tourism investment which caused a ripple effect, (and whose actors are mass tourism); and the second generation refers to community-based tourism driven by the initiatives of the local communities, (and it is a kind of new tourism). Hence Shikida, et al. (2009) advocated tourism-based community development for the third

generation which means to make the regional initiatives while realizing the regional economic wealth to some extent. Tourism destinations which flourished through group tours are now trying to promote new tourism to decrease group tours while tourism facilities and infrastructure remains. It seems important to make an effective management system to promote collaboration between mass tourism and new tourism in those regions. Especially under the Japanese policy of inbound promotion, opportunities for both tourisms seem to be expanding. There are not many prior research regarding tourism-based community development which focuses on the relationship between mass tourism and new tourism. This research analyzes the relationship between mass tourism and new tourism under inbound promotion at a tourist destination such as Beppu city of Oita prefecture, and aims to get the suggestions about possibility of collaboration between mass tourism and new tourism. This paper defines present mass tourism as active tourism promotion making use of existent tourism facilities and infrastructure and tourism activities which follow their systems. New tourism is defined as community development involving local resources and residents in community- based tourism and tourism activities which follow their systems respectively.

SELECTION OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

Due to the tourism popularization accompanied by high economic growth period in 1960, hot spring-oriented tourists and group tours formed the Japanese tourism industry. Thus, tourism destination revival type includes lots of hot spring destinations in Japan. Yamamura (1998) takes Atami, Beppu, Ito, Hakone and Shirahama as hot spring destinations whose capacities for lodging were over 10,000 people as the strongholds of wide travel routes in high economic growth period. If the ratios of foreign tourists' visits in 2010 are compared, Atami shows 0.5%, Beppu shows 5.7%, Izu peninsula (in which Ito is included.) shows 1.1%, Hakone shows 13.5% and Shirahama shows 0.4% (Japan National Tourism Organization, 2011). The numbers of tourists in those regions are shown as Table 1. Beppu city shows the highest number of foreign tourists, so this research selected Beppu city as the objective. Data from Beppu city (2013) shows the total number of foreign tourists in 2012 as 186,027 people. Korean tourists show the best numbers which stands at 112,522 people. Chinese tourists come second, this includes Hong Kong, which stands at 28,518 people. Taiwanese tourists are the third highest at 21,202 people.

Table 1. The numbers of tourists in traditional hot spring destinations

|  | Atami city | Beppu city | Ito city | Hakone town | Shirahama town |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Population (2014) | 39,611 | 125,383 | 71,437 | 13,853 | 22,696 |
| Tourists (2012) | 5,607,963 | 8,036,213 | 6,440,600 | 19,438,000 | 3,220,311 |
| Lodging guests (2012) | 2,828,831 | 2,326,535 | 2,613,700 | 4,631,951 | 1,841,829 |
| Foreign lodging guests | 10,900 | 132,677 | 18,479 | 93,000 | 29,123 |

Data source: Statistics bureaus of Atami city, Beppu city, Ito city, Hakone town and Shirahama town

OUTLINE OF BEPPU CITY'S TOURISM

According to Beppu city (2003), it was selected as the international tourism hot spring culture city in 1950 and urbanized through tourism. Number of tourists in Beppu city had been increasing during high economic growth period. Ura (2005) says that 13,121,962 people visited Beppu city in the peak year 1976. Currently, according to the data from Beppu city (2013), total tourists decreased to 8,036,213 people in 2012. Ohta (2010) refers as the number of tourist decreased, the total city income tax also decreased in Beppu city. Former main targets, group tours like office travels and local group travels sharply decreased, and the type of tourists changed to small-scale group travels of families, acquaintances and friends (Beppu city, 2003). Kubota (2008) mentions that owners of RYOKAN and hotels felt the crisis of the effectives from the decrease of group tours and started BEPPU HATTO ONSEN HAKURANKAI (ONPAKU) in the early 2000's. According to Ota (2010), the ratio of tourism industrial employees in Beppu city showed 46.1% in 2005, so it can be said economic

structure of Beppu city still makes tourism industry as its main industry or main source of income. Beppu city's output of hot spring is the largest in Japan, so Beppu  city must still expect the role of tourism destination nationally. It should be noted that the ratio of foreign students per population shows the highest in Japan, 266.1 foreign students per 10,000 people, because Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University opened in 2000, in which half of undergraduates are foreign students and international education is strongly emphasized (Oita prefecture, 2010). Beppu city was selected as the local stronghold of acceptance environment maintenance project for foreign tourists in 2011 (Japan Tourism Agency, 2012), and inbound promotion through inspections of tourism spots and information sending to abroad making use foreign students are on par with this policy.

OUTLINE OF INTERVIEW SURVEY

This research conducted interview surveys from May to August 2013, and additional surveys were conducted from December 2014 to January 2015. Through internet searches and advices from an expert, lots of Beppu city's tourism-related activities were unraveled. Interviewees were in tourism-related divisions in Beppu city hall, tourist association, chamber of commerce and industry, association of RYOKAN and hotel, NPO corporate bodies and so on. This paper selected international cruise ships and MICE as the main mass tourism activities, and ONPAKU, SENTO tourism support project and central city revitalization as main new tourism activities. Central city revitalization was selected as new tourism activity even though it was community development activity, because increase of lodging guests was included in the target value and many kinds of organizations engaged in it.

BEPPU CITY'S MASS TOURISM AND NEW TOURISM

Chronology of main mass tourism and new tourism activities of Beppu city after 2000 is expressed as following Figure 1.

Figure 1. Chronology of main mass tourism and new tourism activities in Beppu city after 2000
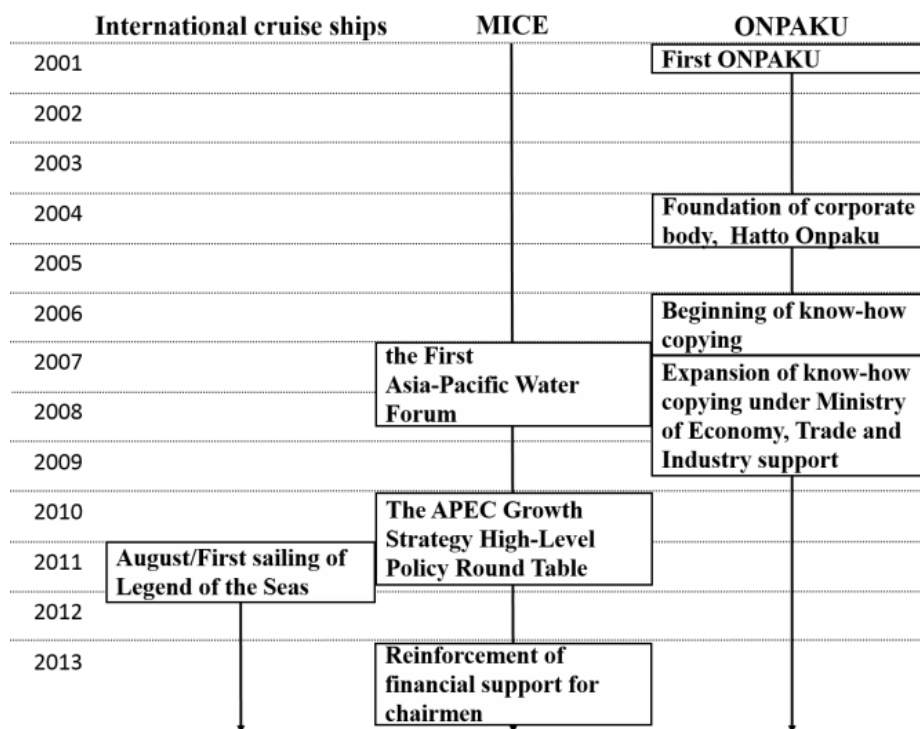
International cruise ships and MICE make use of existent infrastructure and target not only individual tourists but also group tours including inbound tourists. The 4th pier of Beppu international tourism port opened in March 2011 making inbound promotion its objective. In August 2011, an international cruise ship, Legend of the Seas has sailed into the port for the first time. International cruise ships have their main guests as Chinese and Korean group tours. This activity has been promoted mainly by Oita prefecture's conference of invitation promotion for international tourism ships who makes Beppu city's tourism development division (It had been tourism-based community development division until March 2013.) the secretariat and can be organized by Oita prefecture, Oita city, Beppu city, Yufu city, Hiji town, each tourist associations and Beppu chamber of commerce. Economic ripple effect of international cruise ships was about 649,000,000 yen in 2012 and the budget for the 2013 fiscal year was about 50,000,000 yen. MICE cap amount on supports was extended since 2013 regarding conventions which make Beppu international convention center their hall and carry over 100 people lodging guests inside Beppu city. Tourism development division is promoting invitations also in MICE at home and abroad. Economic ripple effect of MICE was about 568,000,000 yen in 2012, and the budget was about 47,000,000 yen.

Figure 2. Tourism-related organizations in Beppu city
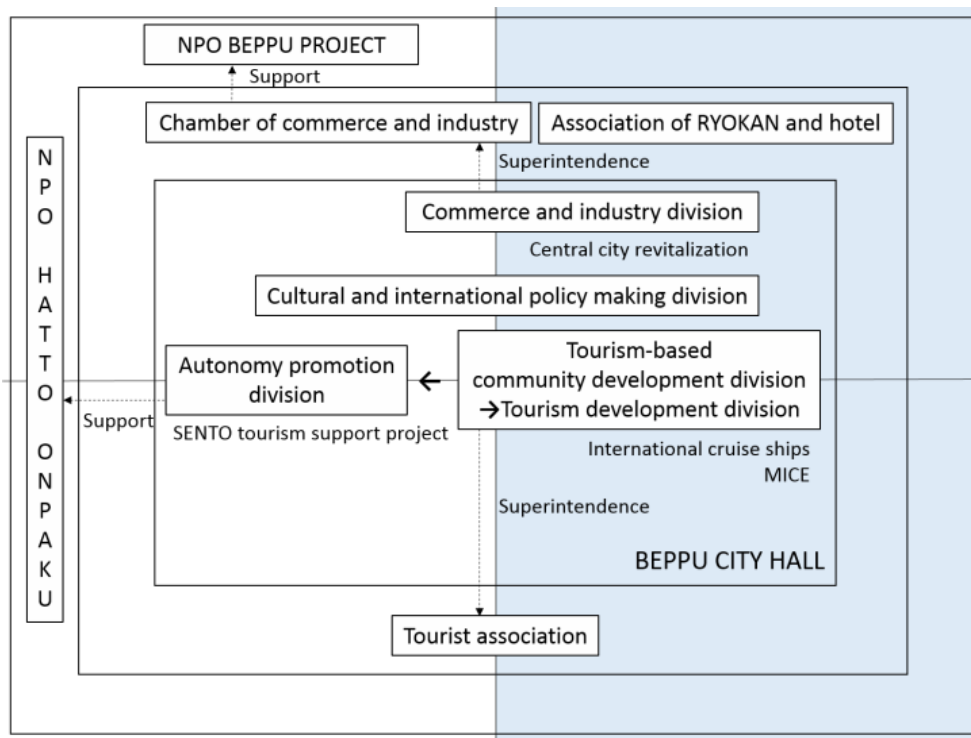


ONPAKU, SENTO tourism support project and central city revitalization are based on community-based tourism, so they could be mentioned as new tourism activities. ONPAKU makes it the objective that fans of the region, new tourism services and community businesses which make use of local resources grow, and the region is vitalized. Over 3,000 people from inside and outside and 200 local dealers had participated in ONPAKU until 2009. Operational know-how has been copied into other regions under support from the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry since 2006. 19 regions have inherited the know-how, and ONPAKU has become a famous activity as JAPAN ONPAKU at the national. In Beppu city, their customers are members of fan clubs which consists of neighboring Beppu citizens, the people of Oita prefecture and Fukuoka prefecture. Balance of ONPAKU was minus about 5,900,000 yen in 2010, so it can be said it is more of community development than tourism. Beppu city's support project for community-based tourism is SENTO tourism support project

whose present subject is autonomy promotion division. Earlier activities of ONPAKU also made use of this project. Central city revitalization had been operated from 2008 to 2013 by Beppu city central city revitalization conference who makes chamber of commerce and industry the secretariat and be organized by about 60 organizations including local government like commerce and industry division and the then tourism-based community development division. Totally 38 projects were executed aiming about 16% increase of pedestrian, about 3% increase of lodging guests and about 38% increase of retail amount. According to the report of 2013, target values of pedestrian and lodging guests were almost achieved. The relationship between the interviewees centralizing Beppu city hall is expressed as following Figure 2.

Tourism-based community development division who had been leading tourism-related projects as policies was divided into tourism development division and autonomy promotion division in April 2013. Tourism development division took over above mass tourism activities, and autonomy promotion division took over SENTO tourism support project. Mass tourism-related activities are mainly promoted by the organizations in the right side of Figure 2, tourism development division, tourist association and association of RYOKAN and hotel. And new tourism-related activities are mainly promoted by the organizations in the left side of Figure 2, autonomy promotion division, commerce and industry division, tourist association and chamber of commerce and industry under cooperation with NPO corporate bodies. Cultural and international policy making division is promoting cultural activities, total planning for internationalization and cultural exchange activities with foreign residents.

COLLABORATION BETWEEN MASS TOURISM AND NEW TOURISM

Through the analysis, it is revealed that processes of marketing and acceptance are promoted mainly in mass tourism activities. Those activities proceed under cooperation with outside professional organizations like marketing companies. On the contrary, branding process is promoted at regular levels, though community development is not so active in mass tourism activities. Reacted to inbound promotion, college students including foreign students are cooperating with branding and acceptance processes even though they are neither local nor tourism resources. But it could be said students' cooperation as volunteer in MICE became education opportunities because Japanese students were also included in it. Processes of branding and community development are promoted in new tourism activities, and strong connection with local resources is shown in those activities. On the other hand, marketing and acceptance are not enough in new tourism activities like the balance of ONPAKU in 2010 showed minus of about 5,900,000 yen as mentioned earlier. Shikida, et al. (2009) represented lack of branding and marketing at community-based tourism before, and this tendency is also found in the case of Beppu city. It can be considered as the reason that connections with outside professional organizations are feeble in new tourism activities. There are ONPAKU programs in which professors of APU and college students including foreign students offer services, and it has become the places of cultural exchange between universities and local residents. It can be said that existence of universities contributes to branding process in tourism-based community development of Beppu city.

Different tendencies are shown between mass tourism and new tourism activities about their points and their connections with other organizations, there has not been many common grounds between them. Separation of tourism-based community development division in 2013 must be the evidence of their different tendencies. A member of Beppu city assembly and the head of ONPAKU, Mr. Nogami said, "Tourism-based community development division has been flinging into long-span community development while evaluated in short-span."

Under inbound promotion, collaboration between mass tourism and new tourism seems important to offer new appeals and values to tourists aiming increase of repeaters. Through the survey, some voices of recognizing necessity to connect mass tourism to new tourism are occurring. For example, a

member of tourist association said, "Travel courses like the guests of international cruise ships experience ONPAKU programs should be made." And also, chamber of commerce and industry takes a positive attitude to the collaboration like the example of Beppu tourism concierge project which includes the central city in the course for the guests of international cruise ships. A member of chamber of commerce and industry said, "Conference as platform which can be the core of tourism management should be launched." However, some actors mentioned difficulties of collaboration. For example, a member of tourism development division said, "Offering merchandise which targets individuals to foreign group tours is difficult." And also, the representative of ONPAKU, Mr. Tsuruta said, "Each programs are small-scale in ONPAKU, so their qualities are not guaranteed in large-scale." It can be said there are fears of thoughtless connection between both activities, because of the scale-gap between the markets and the supplies.

ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES UNDER INBOUND PROMOTION

About other activities of inbound promotion, association of RYOKAN and hotel has set up inbound committee and distributed polyglot manuals to RYOKAN and hotels. Reacted to increase of foreign tourists, situations like asking foreign students for cooperation are increasing. In mass tourism activities, college students including foreign students engage in acceptance process. Through the survey, it is revealed that making the systems for acceptance of foreign tourists is getting necessary under inbound promotion. Foreign students are engaging in acceptance of foreign tourists making use of networks with foreign countries and their language abilities. According to tourism development division, making use of students' abilities was suggested in the conferences of mass tourism activities. These activities have been promoted under the networks which have been established through cultural exchange activities between local residents and foreign students supported by cultural and international policy making division. On the other hand, universities are engaging in new tourism activities as intellectual resources of the region. As mentioned earlier, barometer of ONPAKU was made by a professor of APU. And professors and college students including foreign students have been offering services in ONPAKU. And also, a book cafe had been operated by APU in central city revitalization. Cultural exchange between local residents and students must be contributing to branding process of tourism-based community development. Through the analysis, it can be said that necessity of collaboration between mass tourism and new tourism is increasing under inbound promotion, and roles of universities in tourism-based community development as international resources or intellectual resources are getting important. Local tourism- related organizations are calling for their cooperation.

CONCLUSION

Through the survey, it is revealed that processes of marketing and acceptance are promoted in mass tourism activities, and opposite to this, branding and community development processes are promoted in new tourism activities at present. Mass tourism activities are connected to outside professional organizations, and this tendency is not found in new tourism activities. Collaboration between mass tourism and new tourism is gradually thought necessary but not proceeded smoothly because of their scale-gap. Universities are called for roles of international resources or intellectual resources by local tourism-related organizations under inbound promotion. It is expected that this situation will continue for a longtime. Places of interchange between mass tourism and new tourism activities as a policy should be periodically set by local government heading towards the collaboration. There are lots of foreign students in Beppu city, and it is near to China and Korea, so the results of this research should be inspected whether it is a specific case of Beppu city or not through comparison analyses with another traditional tourism destinations.

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# SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate the resource needs of tourism social enterprises in the context of developing countries and evaluate the means by which these resources are combined. Sixty face-to-face interviews were conducted with informants from two case study tourism social enterprises. The key resources in the study context were identified and comprised of (1.) natural capital or the tourism potential of the destinations (2.) financial capital or monetary funding (3.) political and institutional capital or formal legitimacy and (4.) human capital.  Stakeholder involvement and collaboration encourages stakeholder participation but requires social enterprises to demonstrate long term commitment to the social mission.  Relationship development and local community empowerment represent the social entrepreneurs' attempts to sustain resource combination and to overcome barriers to collective effort.

Keywords: social entrepreneurship; tourism, resources; developing countries; Africa

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism entrepreneurship has largely concentrated on profit-making entrepreneurial activities (Koe Hwee Nga & Shamuganathan, 2010; Perrini, Vurro & Costanzo, 2010), neglecting the social dimension of tourism entrepreneurship. This is surprising given that tourism entrepreneurship is also motivated by socio-cultural factors (Mcgehee & Kim, 2004) and it contributes to social and environmental development of communities, societies and destinations (Cohen & Winn, 2007). Recognising this research gap, researchers such as Thomas, Shaw & Page (2011) and Tucker (2010) called for research into the social dimension of tourism entrepreneurship.

Tourism entrepreneurs have the capacity to discover or create opportunities for adding value to environments, communities, and tourists alike through concepts of social tourism, sustainability and social exchange (Fuller, Buultjens & Cummings, 2005; Simpson, 2008). In particular, Social Entrepreneurship (SE) defined as "a process involving the innovative use and combination of resources to pursue opportunities to catalyze social change and/or address social needs" (Mair & Marti, 2006:36), has been identified as an important

contributor to social and environmental goals of tourism destinations (Ateljevic & Page, 2009). However, the environment in which social entrepreneurship flourishes contains scarce and valued resources essential for organisational survival (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Ulrich & Barney, 1984) and some locations are more 'resource constrained' than others.

This paper responds to a research gap in the tourism entrepreneurship literature, and aims to explore the resource needs of tourism social enterprises and how they mobilise these resources in addressing the needs of communities in Africa. The opportunity to develop tourism for socio-economic benefits in Africa is constrained by limited infrastructure, low endowments of capital assets and a lack of institutional support (Carlisle, Kunc, Jones & Tiffin, 2013; Frey & George, 2010; Mair & Marti, 2009). The paper makes a distinct contribution to the tourism management literature by exploring the resources needed by tourism social enterprises in their attempts to address the social needs of communities in such resource constrained environments. More specifically, this paper identifies what critical resources are needed for SE to thrive in Africa and explores how tourism social enterprises employ different means and strategies to access critical resources from the external environment.

We begin this paper by reviewing social entrepreneurship literature. This is followed by the study setting and the research methodology. The findings of the study are then presented. The paper concludes with some limitations and suggestions for future research.

SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP (SE)

SE is an entrepreneurial approach to social problems which were previously the responsibility of governmental and philanthropic efforts (Dees, 1998; Di Domenico, Haugh & Tracey, 2010). It can be defined as "the construction, evaluation and pursuit of opportunities for transformative social change carried out by visionary, passionately dedicated individuals" (Roberts & Woods, 2005:49). SE encompasses 'the activities and processes undertaken to discover, define, and exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organisations in an innovative manner' (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Neubaum & Shulman, 2009:519). The underlying assumption is that unlike commercial entrepreneurship, SE is driven by social objectives which lead to social change through innovative ideas (Alvord, Brown & Letts, 2004; Chell, Nicolopoulou & Karata-Ozkan, 2010).

Most conceptualisation of SE is linked to three key constructs: the social entrepreneur (*e.g.* Dees, 1998, Tan, Williams & Tan, 2005; Thompson, 2002; Waddock & Post, 1991) the social enterprise (*e.g.* Dart, 2004; Spear, 2006; Neck, Brush & Allen., 2009) and SE as a process (*e.g.* Alvord *et al.*, 2004; Dorado, 2006; Sullivan Mort, Weerawardena & Carnegie., 2003). The social entrepreneur uses his entrepreneurial skills to tackle social problems and create social value through systemic social change beyond conventional norms (Dees, 1998; Simms, 2009). Social entrepreneurs serve as 'revolutionaries and visionaries, with a social agenda and capitalist drive to preserve and improve humankind' (Neck *et al.*, 2009:18).

In terms of social enterprise, there is a continuum between non-profit motivated social enterprises and profit orientated ones including for-profit social purpose business ventures, innovative non-profit ventures, or hybrid forms that mix not-for-profit and for-profit elements (Dees, 1998; Peredo & McLean, 2006; Seanor, Bull & Ridley-Duff, 2007). Social entrepreneurs typically build social enterprises that involve public, private and governmental partnerships, tend to work across sectors and create new institutions that fill existing gaps in order to enable large-scale social shifts (Waddock, 2010). However, the organisational forms (for-profit, non-profit and hybrid) may impact the ability of organisations to successfully balance social and economic activities (Kistruck & Beamish, 2010) because the motive for social change and the need for economic efficiency may represent opposing values (Zahra *et al*, 2009).

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Tourism can act as a social force that serves human development through a wider vision of tourism's role in global communities (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006). For example, tourism remains one of the few feasible options for poverty alleviation in the rural areas of sub-Saharan Africa (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004). This is important particularly in developing countries where government institutions do not support sufficiently entrepreneurial activity in the tourism sector (Kwaramba *et al*., 2012; Roxas & Chandee, 2013).  In these developing countries with extreme resource constraints, entrepreneurs aid or substitute supportive institutions which are normally absent, weak or fail to provide the necessary infrastructure and mechanism for development (Mair & Marti, 2009). In these destinations, entrepreneurship tends to favour a 'responsible approach' (Goodwin, 2011) with a simultaneous consideration for economic, social and environmental goals.  Entrepreneurship is therefore as much a social as an economic phenomenon and economic growth is not the only relevant outcome of it (Korsgaard & Anderson, 2011). However, with the exception of a few studies (*e.g.* Bennett, Lemelin, Koster & Budke, 2012; Park *et al*. 2012; Zhao *et al.,* 2011), the social aspects of entrepreneurship in the tourism literature have been overlooked.

*Social entrepreneurship (SE) and resource needs*

SE is a process-based phenomenon (Di Domenico *et al*., 2010, Dorado, 2006; Martin & Osberg, 2007) during which resources are combined in new ways to purse identified opportunities for value creation (Mair & Marti, 2006, Seelos & Mair, 2005). These resources become capital when they are employed to create value for an organisation (Narvekar & Jain, 2006). For example, financial capital, human capital, social capital and intangible resources are gathered to meet strategic objectives (Chell, 2007; Meyskens et al., 2010; Murphy & Coombes, 2009).

Financial and non-financial resource combination has become necessary for social enterprises in a competitive market place (Austin, Stevenson & Wei-Skillern, 2006; Boschee & McClurg, 2003; Neck *et al.,* 2009; Simms, 2009). However, due to their insufficient profits compared to commercial enterprises, social enterprises have limited capacity to access traditional financial markets and therefore restricted in combining human and financial resources (Certo & Miller, 2008; Dees, 1998, 2007; Miller & Wesley, 2010; Peredo & McLean, 2006). As a result, social entrepreneurs operate in resource constrained conditions (Peredo & McLean, 2006), compete for donations, volunteers and any other resource (Dees, 2007), rely on philanthropic venture capital which focuses on social impact (Scarlata & Alemany, 2011) and use earned income strategies (as an addition) to pursue social objectives and self-sufficiency (Boschee & McClurg, 2003; Miller & Wesley, 2010). Therefore, resource combination strategies, networking and the use of personal and human capital are critical to social enterprises (Chell, 2007; Meyskens et al. 2010; Murphy & Coombes, 2009). In particular, stakeholder partnerships improve efficiency, enable resource acquisition, enhance legitimacy and increase motivation for social entrepreneurs (Chell, 2007; Mair & Marti, 2006; Meyskens *et al*., 2010; Nicholls, 2010).

The scant tourism literature identified several forms of critical resources or capital, namely natural, human, financial and political capital that can be tapped for tourism development in a destination. (1) Natural capital as the basis of tourism development (2) Human capital encompassing skills and education, knowledge and awareness, physical ability and health, and individual attributes (3) Financial capital or the financial resources available to individuals and communities for tourism development  (4) Political capital representing the policies and legislations, political supports, governance processes and formalised institutions that facilitated the transformation of the other capital assets into tourism development. However, previous research did not investigate how tourism social enterprises exploit different forms of capital for social welfare and community development. In addition, there appears to be no research investigating how tourism social enterprises overcome the barriers to securing scarce resources. Given these, this study responds to the following research questions:

What are the resource needs of tourism social enterprises in their social entrepreneurial activities? What are the means and strategies employed by the tourism social enterprises by which different forms of capital are accessed from the external environment?

THE STUDY SETTING

This study explored the activities of two cases in Africa in order to gain an understanding of the range of resources utilised and the means by which they are acquired to meet their social obligations. The first case, Adventure Alternative (AA), a tour operator in Kenya- East Africa, operating alongside and investing in Moving Mountains (MM) its associated charity, seeks to relieve disadvantaged children, their families and communities from the effects of poverty and inequality. The second is Guludo Beach Lodge (GBL), a tourist/visitor accommodation facility in Mozambique- South-eastern coast of Africa, operating alongside and investing in NEMA Foundation its associated charity seeking to identify and tackle the root causes of poverty and environmental devastation in specific communities. The combinations of their economic and social goals including a clear commitment to the social purpose render both organisations social enterprises.

METHODOLOGY

This study was qualitative and interpretive as it involved studying people and other phenomenon in their natural settings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Case studies have the potential to provide a more thorough understanding of meanings of particular behaviour and events (De Vaus, 2001; Gerring, 2007). Considering these characteristics, Johns & Mattsson (2005) also compared two destinations: Hay-on-Wye and Stavanger as case studies impacted by entrepreneurial effort and Carlisle *et al*. (2013) investigated the value of support for innovation and entrepreneurship in tourism development using two African case studies in The Gambia and Tanzania.

Participant recruitment was purposive (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) to increase the likelihood of gaining theoretical insight about the topic and the research sample included (1.) staff members of the social enterprises to provide insight into internal and external operations (2.) the beneficiaries to share their experiences with the venture and (3.) external partners such as residents, volunteers and guests to express views on operations of the venture and its wider impact.

Sixty face-to-face interviews were conducted in total (33 for AA and 27 for GBL) and involved up to 10 days visiting the case sites and interacting with staff members, residents, and guests/volunteers. Document analysis was also used. Field observations facilitated further triangulation through a comparative analysis of what was actually happening and what was reported in the documentation and the interviews. The interviews were audio-recorded for accuracy, listened to for familiarity and then transcribed. Data analysis was underpinned by a general analytical framework (Yin, 2009) based on three key stages using Nvivo 10: (1.) within case analysis (2.) cross case analysis and (3.) analysis of shared themes. This interpretive research was aimed at understanding human interaction in the context of resource acquisition by examining and reflecting on individuals' experiences (Cassell & Symon, 2006; Holliday, 2002).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Tourism has been recognised as an important economic and social activity of destinations providing solutions to social problems. Previous research also acknowledges the importance of tourism entrepreneurship in creating economic and social welfare in a destination. However, there is a dearth of research investigating how tourism enterprises provide solutions to social problems. In particular, the role of the tourism social enterprises has not been studied. Tourism social enterprises set themselves the goal of contributing to the economic and social welfare of local communities by generating tourism activities in niche markets. These social enterprises should be self-sustaining by

developing and managing resource acquisition. Firstly, this exploratory study investigated the resource needs of tourism social enterprises in the context of developing countries. Secondly, strategies for resource mobilisation were revealed.

The resources needed in the case study contexts were identified and comprised of four forms of capital: (1.) natural capital or the tourism potential of the destinations (2.) financial capital or monetary funding (3.) political and institutional capital or legitimacy (4.) human capital. For tourism social enterprises, natural capital is a pre-requisite for start-up as it is the basis of the economic arms (or tourism businesses) designed to support the social mission. These economic arms are reinforced with financial capital (or alternative sources of funding besides tourism clients) mainly from donors and well-wishers. However, given their ability to secure natural capital and attract financial capital through collaborative effort, human and political/institutional capital are important for sustenance of the social mission throughout the life of the tourism social enterprises.

This study also identified (1.) stakeholder involvement and collaboration (2.) relationship development and local community empowerment as interdependent resource combination strategies. With regard stakeholder involvement and collaboration, social entrepreneurs attempt to create an awareness of the social problem to a diverse range of people or stakeholder groups targeted for their potential contribution to the solution. The strategy capitalises on human and political capital to encourage resource mobilisation and stakeholder participation in entrepreneurial activities. However, the social enterprises are required to demonstrate long term commitment to the social mission. Long-term commitment enhances collective responsibility and increases loyalty towards the social and economic goals which in turn ease the release of natural and financial capital for the common good.

Since tourism development happens within a community context (Murphy, 1985), relationship development and local community empowerment is critical to achieving the social mission. Through this second strategy, access to the four forms of capital is maintained and barriers to stakeholder participation are tackled. On the one hand relationship development uses social interaction to develop trust between the enterprise and the different stakeholders in order to sustain the resource portfolio. On the other, empowerment facilitates the involvement of and collaboration with the local community as a key stakeholder group and beneficiary of the social and economic goals of the tourism social enterprises.

IMPLICATIONS

This study also has implications both for tourism enterprises and entrepreneurs and for tourism destination managers. Tourism enterprises and entrepreneurs can contribute to socio-economic development of communities particularly in developing economies if they acknowledge a wider vision for the role of tourism. Accessing critical resources in these countries can be difficult. However, through effective resource mobilisation strategies these difficulties can be overcome using the social entrepreneurs' skills to secure and sustain the resource portfolio and the cooperation of multiple stakeholders. In addition, if the concerned destinations are to benefit from SE, tourism destination managers have the responsibility to harness stakeholder collaboration in order to enhance economic and social development simultaneously. It must be noted that the social enterprises in this study are foreign-owned, dependent on high spending western tourists and donors, and developed from western perspectives. Future research can examine the variations and further our understanding of SE from other emerging economies, in other tourism destinations or other fields of study such as agriculture.

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# THE KNOWLEDGE FLOWS BETWEEN TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY JOURNALS

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## ABSTRACT

The references in journal articles provide empirical data on knowledge flows between tourism and hospitality fields and interrelatedness among fields. This study took two approaches: bibliographic coupling and cross- citation analysis. First, the use of bibliographic coupling revealed interrelatedness between tourism and hospitality based on how often they cite the same references. Second, the cross-citation analysis was applied to further identify to what extend tourism and hospitality journals are cited by each other. The findings show that the strength of interrelatedness of the two fields is weak. There is a really low percentage of citations to hospitality field from tourism journals, and vice versa.

Key words: Interrelatedness, knowledge flow, bibliographical coupling, citation analysis

## INTRODUCTION

*Journal articles* "record the origins of a body of knowledge." (1997, p. 46) and each articles contains references, are "the signal posts left by scholars in their published research or intellectual debates" (Van Dalen & Henkens, 1999, p. 230). A reference is the acknowledgment that one document gives to another document. They are a form of linkage between the ideas and concepts expressed in scholarly works (Baker, 1990). References between academic articles imply a knowledge flow from the cited entity to the citing entity (Jafie, Trajtenberg, & Fogarty, 2000; van Leeuwen & Tijssen, 2000). That is, the references in journal articles signal the exchange and communication of knowledge between research communities. Thus, the studies of knowledge flow usually use citations as the research instrument. Examining citations of journals not only enables scholars to gain insight into the intellectual influences between tourism and hospitality communities, but also to investigate the level of interrelatedness of tourism and hospitality fields. This study took communication perspective of inter-field dynamics to analyze the knowledge flow between journals of tourism and hospitality by using the citation links. By doing do, the interrelatedness of two fields was also identified.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopts two approaches to investigate the relationships between the two fields: journal bibliographic coupling and direct citation across journals and disciplines.

*Bibliographic Coupling*

The interrelatedness between journals could be investigated by the concept of bibliographic coupling which was first introduced by (Kessler, 1963). A journal could be seen as a union of articles it published and the references cited by the published articles can be seen as the references cited by the journal. If two journals cite sufficient common references, there should have some topical similarity between these two journals. This kind of similarity forms the basis of bibliographic coupling (BC), where it is believed that the more the same references two journals cite, the more likely the two journals are about the same topic. The pairwise similarity based on bibliographic coupling was used in this study to cluster journals of tourism and hospitality. Visualization tools such as multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) and Bezier dendrogram were in turn applied to reveal the journal-to-journal relatedness based on the clustering result.

*Cross-Citation Analysis*

The structure of the interrelatedness could be further investigated by examining the level of exchange and communication of knowledge between hospitality and tourism journals. Goldman (1979) indicated that citations could reflect the structural aspects of disciplines in two levels: identity and link. Identity reflects on the distribution of the citation patterns. For journals, the more the citations concentrate in a certain area sketches the disciplinary focuses of the journals (Goldman, 1979). For example, the more tourism or hospitality journals cite journals resident in business discipline, the more the main focus of both fields is about business. Further, the more tourism journals cite hospitality journals, and vice versa, the stronger the linkage between the two fields. Cross-citation analysis, thus, was used to determine identity and link.

*Journals Data*

Ten tourism and hospitality journals were analyzed in this study. These journals were limited to those covered by the Journal Citation Reports (JCR) and Web of Science (WoS) database, both published by the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI), which has now been acquired by Thomson Reuters. JCR is a multidisciplinary journal database, covering more than 8,000 journals in Science Citation Index (SCI) and 2,600 journals in Social Science Citation Index (SSCI). WoS is a publication database that index the literatures published by the journals in JCR. WoS indexes not only the bibliographic data of individual research articles, but also their cited references. The bibliographic record includes fields like title, authors, publication year, publication source, etc. The cited references are normalized reference abbreviations such that different articles citing to the same reference have exactly the same string, such as "CROMPTON JL, 1979, ANN TOURISM RES, V6, P408". These normalized cited references would be used in bibliographic coupling and cross-citation analysis. In particular, the abbreviated journal name (also available in JCR) in the normalized reference will be used to classify the discipline of the cited reference based on JCR's subject categories.

*Data Analysis Tool*

The above-mentioned bibliographic coupling for journal clustering, cross-citation analysis for revealing the linkage patterns, and the classification of the cited references to understand interdisciplinary knowledge flow of tourism and hospitality, are all implemented in a scientometric tool, call CATAR, abbreviated from Content Analysis Toolkit for Academic Research (Tseng, 2012). Given a corpus of WoS data of interest, arrays of summarized background of research field, as well as

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citation analysis of selected journals were yielded. A six- step analysis was taken as running CATAR:
1. Text segmentation: identify the title, authors, citations, and other fields of each article in the corpus downloaded from the WoS database.
2. Similarity computation: calculate the similarity between each pair of journals based on their common citations.
3. Clustering: group similar journals into larger clusters based on the above similarities.
4. Cluster labeling: generate cluster descriptors for ease of cluster interpretation.
5. Fact analysis: cross-tabulate detected topics (clusters) with other facet data such as citations to know the knowledge flow.
6. Visualization: create a dendrogram and a topic map based on the multi-dimensional

The detailed explanation of method and algorithms can be found in the works of Change, Chang, and Tseng (2010) and Tseng, Lin & Lin (2007).

RESULTS

*The Relatedness of Tourism and Hospitality Journals*

The relatedness among these journals is mapped in Figure 1, which is calculated based on their bibliographic coupling within the 4-years range: 2008-2011. Each circle denotes a journal, the size of the circle is designed to reflect the number of articles published by the journal, and the closeness of the circles reflects the journal similarity of each other.  For example, the journals denoted by 1, 3, 4, and 9 have relative closer relations. Also, 6 and 7 are closely related to each other. This is true for 2, 5, and 8. The higher relatedness implies that there are some research topics, journal scopes, and source of knowledge within the journals overstretched to each other.  Figure 1 also shows that Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport, & Tourism Education (*JHLSTE*) is a relatively independent journal that is not overlapped with other journals. It suggests that *ATR, JTR, SJHTR*, and *TM* have similar research scope and orientation, which separate them from those hospitality-oriented journals (*CHQ, IJHM, and JHTR*) and leisure-oriented journals (*LSc* and *LSt*).

Figure 1. The relatedness of ten selected journals rendered by Bezier dendrogram based on bibliographic coupling.



*Links between Two Fields*

The above figures give an impression of hospitality and tourism as two distantly related fields. They do not, however, provide a complete picture of the mutual intellectual influence between tourism and hospitality.  To gain insight into details of the knowledge base of hospitality and tourism journals,

cross-citation analyses were conducted to provide further evidences. Table 3 provides an overview of the citation analysis for the 4- years period. In total, six journals cited 72,157 references. The six tourism and hospitality journals draw 78.3% of their citations from journals, and draw 21.7% from none-journal source, including books, conference proceedings, reports, government documents, newspapers, and magazines. Five out of six journals draw over 70% of their citations from journals, except ATR which only draws 67.4% of its citations from journals. This finding suggests that journals are primary knowledge source utilized by scholars.

Table 1. Cross-citation analysis of six selected journals (2008 to 2011)

| Citing Journal | Tourism Journal | | | | | | Hospitality Journal | | | | | | Grand Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ATR | | JTR | | TM | | CHQ | | IJHM | | JHTR | | | |
| Cited Journal | NC | % | NC | % | NC | % | NC | % | NC | % | NC | % | NC | % |
| ATR | **1438** | 11.7 | 825 | 8.3 | 1248 | 5.6 | 20 | 0.4 | 173 | 1 | 102 | 1.8 | 3806 | 5.3 |
| JTR | 365 | 3.0 | **903** | 9.1 | 974 | 4.4 | 31 | 0.7 | 171 | 1 | 111 | 2 | 2555 | 3.5 |
| TM | 563 | 4.6 | 555 | 5.6 | **1818** | 8.2 | 61 | 1.4 | 395 | 2.2 | 141 | 2.5 | 3533 | 4.9 |
| CHQ[1] | 24 | 0.1 | 57 | 0.6 | 98 | 0.4 | **468** | 10.4 | 484 | 2.8 | 155 | 2.7 | 1286 | 1.8 |
| IJHM | 34 | 0.3 | 50 | 0.5 | 177 | 0.8 | 81 | 1.8 | **781** | 4.4 | 103 | 1.8 | 1226 | 1.7 |
| JHTR | 21 | 0.2 | 37 | 0.4 | 84 | 0.4 | 35 | 0.8 | 233 | 1.3 | **177** | 3.1 | 587 | 0.8 |
| Other Tourism Sources[2] | 2253 | 18.4 | 1510 | 15.2 | 3793 | 17.1 | 267 | 5.9 | 828 | 4.7 | 289 | 5.1 | 8940 | 12.4 |
| Other Hospitality Sources[3] | 191 | 1.6 | 243 | 2.4 | 526 | 2.4 | 293 | 6.5 | 1385 | 7.9 | 444 | 7.8 | 3082 | 4.3 |
| Other Sources[4] | 7367 | 60.1 | 5762 | 58.0 | 13520 | 60.8 | 3248 | 72.1 | 13123 | 74.7 | 4140 | 73.1 | 47142 | 65.3 |
| Total citations | 12256 | 100 | 9942 | 100 | 22220 | 100 | 4504 | 100 | 17573 | 100 | 5662 | 100 | 72157 | 100 |

Note: [1] the former name of CHQ was Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly

[2] Other Tourism Sources refer to the number of citation counts from tourism journals excluding citation counts of ATR, JTR, and TM.

[3] Other Hospitality Sources refer to the number of citation counts from hospitality journals excluding citation counts of CHQ, IJHM, and JHTR.

[4] Other Sources refer to the number of citation counts excluding citation counts of six selected journals and other tourism and hospitality sources.

Table 2 presents the flows of intellectual influence between the six selected journals. The rows correspond to the cited journals, while the columns correspond to the citing journal. For example, *ATR* is cited 825 times by *JTR*, whereas *ATR* cites *JTR* 365 times. As can be seen in Table 4, there is not a lot of crossover between the selected hospitality and tourism journals. Both tourism and hospitality journals are more likely to cite materials from their fields. That is, tourism journals were cited significantly more by tourism journals than by hospitality journals, while hospitality journals were cited more by hospitality journals than by tourism journals. In addition, the cross citation rates between these two fields are not equal. The likelihood for three hospitality journals to cite materials from the three tourism journals is slightly higher than the three tourism journals to cite materials from the three hospitality journals.

Table 1 also shows that *ATR* is cited most by the six journals over the four-years period (3806), *TM* comes the second (3533). *JHTR*, with 587 total cited counts, is the journal cited the fewest times. However, part of this phenomenon is due to the number of the articles published by the journals as shown in Table 1. Among the six journals, the *ATR* is the premier journal referenced by tourism scholars, while *CHQ* is the premier journal referenced by hospitality scholars. Both are not the largest journals in their fields (in terms of the number of published articles), but receive the most citations by the six journals. Comparing the self-citation rates, Table 4 reveals that *ATR, JTR*, *TM* and *CHQ* have the relatively high percentage of citations from their own journals. The two premier journals have the highest self-citation rate in their own fields. In general, tourism journals have more self-citation rates than hospitality journals.

Table 2 shows the aggregate counts of citations to tourism and hospitality sources across three different periods of time. Both tourism and hospitality journals cited a substantial number of references from non-tourism and non-hospitality sources. Citations of tourism journals derived from tourism sources accounts for 36.6% of total citations in the 2008-2011 time frame, while this type of citations only accounts for 9.3% of citations in the hospitality journals. Citations drawn from hospitality sources made up 16.7% of total citations within 2008-2011 in the hospitality journals, while 3.5% of cited references during this period in the tourism journals were from hospitality sources. In comparison with the findings of Kim et al. (2009), the interrelatedness of the tourism and hospitality fields slightly dropped. The decrease in citations by the hospitality journals to tourism sources went from 12.6% to 9.3% from the period of 2003-2005 to the period of 2008-2011. The decrease in citations by the tourism journals to hospitality sources also declined from 4.3% to 3.5%.

Table 2. Aggregate citations to tourism and hospitality sources across three different periods of time

| | Tourism Journals | | | Hospitality Journals | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1994-1996[1] | 2003-2005[2] | 2008-2011 | 1994-1996 | 2003-2005 | 2008-2011 |
| Tourism sources | 21.8 | 51.0 | 36.6 | 3.6 | 12.6 | 9.3 |
| Hospitality sources | 1.7 | 4.3 | 3.5 | 17.4 | 21.5 | 16.7 |
| Non-Tourism and Non-Hospitality Sources[3] | 76.5 | 44.7 | 69.0 | 79.0 | 66.9 | 73.9 |

Note: [1]Tourism journals include ATR, JTR, TM
[2] Hospitality journals include CHQ, IJHM, and JHTR.
[3] Non-Tourism and Non-Hospitality Sources refers to the number of citation counts excluding citation counts of total tourism and hospitality citations

CONCLUSION

The analysis of journal similarities on their citation patterns allows scholars for empirical observations regarding the linkage of the two fields. Based on the bibliographic coupling analysis, it was found that the strength of interrelatedness of the two fields is weak. More evidences were yielded by the cross-citation analysis to further reveal the boundary and intellectual structure of the two fields. It was found that there are a really low percentage of citations to hospitality field from (cited by) tourism journals (4.3%), while citation to tourism journals only account for 1.3 percent of total citations from hospitality journals. Such a citation patterns indicate that there is lack of knowledge flow between tourism and hospitality fields and their ties with each other are limited.

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# SUSTAINABLE TOURISM USING A WATERSHED MANAGEMENT APPROACH

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## ABSTRACT

There is a plethora of literature about sustainable tourism, however, it is often discussed within the context of business planning and management. This paper seeks to examine watershed management as a way to examine sustainable tourism. Although tourism and the environment do not often play a joint role in management of an area, it is a useful approach to look at wider implications for tourism rather than solely profit driven options. This paper will examine watershed management and propose how this approach may be useful for tourism managers and developers to move forward with sustainable recreation and tourism opportunities. This study examined the Lake Simcoe Watershed in Ontario, Canada, one of the only legally protected watersheds. Undertaking online surveys as well as in-depth interviews with multiple stakeholders, this study found that a participatory approach is needed to ensure protection of the watershed as well as optimizing the benefits for tourism.

## INTRODUCTION

Watersheds have been impacted by human activities including industrial waste, wastewater disposal, and the use of pesticides and fertilizers, however, "these problems are not usually the result of one cause or activity" (Wagner, Gawel, Furumai, De Souza, Teixiera, Rios, Ohgaki, Zehnder, Hemond, 2002, p. 11). Often watershed management has focused on forestry, fuel management (Reid, 2010); or industrial, agricultural or other issues (Zedler, 2003; Baker, 2014; Chowdary & Singh, 2009). Although agriculture and development probably play a larger role in the overall impacts, the lesser impacts should not be ignored. Recreation and tourism also contributes to issues in the watershed and specifically in the Lake Simcoe Watershed, they have been outlined as a key issue.

> "Recreational activities have the potential to impact water quality, water quantity, aquatic life and the spread of invasive species. A major challenge for the Lake Simcoe area is how to continue to provide quality recreation opportunities while minimizing congestion, conflict between users, and impacts to the natural environment" (Province of Ontario, 2009: 66).

This study therefore, will examine recreation and tourism within the Lake Simcoe Watershed and illustrate how using a watershed management approach may assist in overall tourism sustainability. This paper examines the effect of watershed management on efforts to build capacity for sustainability management of a destination. Using watershed management as a tool can be used to help establish a conservation and development regime in the region that supports recreation and tourism and the resources upon which they rely.

WATERSHEDS, TOURISM AND MANAGEMENT

Human activity on land has a direct and cumulative impact on water and other natural resources. Within tourism – and specifically outdoor recreation, these natural resources are the key draws for tourism and therefore the conservation of these resources are imperative to manage. Paving, destruction of wetlands, overconsumption of ground water and infiltration of nitrates and chemicals all have an adverse effect on watersheds and are all potential impacts of tourism. If "everything is connected to everything else" (TRCA, nd; 23) then understanding these impacts and mitigating them are necessary for managing the resources necessary for not only tourism but also other industries that tourism relies upon.

According to Naiman et al (1997) there are four components of watershed management: variability in time and space, persistence and invasiveness of species, system connectivity and uncertainties and the role of human culture and institutions. The first, variability in time and space relates to managing human needs with variations of chemical and physical characteristics so that declines of species (or loss of biodiversity) does not occur. The second management principle is to work to ensure invasive species do not alter the natural area. The third principle is to let human and non human communities "exist in a relative yet dynamic state of balance (Naiman et al, 1997;664). The final component recognizes that many factors that affect a human dominated watershed do not act in isolation (e.g. changing cultural values, migration of people away from traditional ways of life, consumption rates, population growth, etc.). Watershed management relies on the participation of the population in planning, using and monitoring resources. Put simply, the success of watershed management "rests on the integration of conservation with livelihood goals" German et al, 2005: 4). Therefore any approach at integration must understand all of the principles operating within natural and social systems.

When examining tourism to be more sustainably managed, similar constructs apply. Tourism too must integrate conservation with livelihood goals as achieving sustainable livelihoods within tourism must ensure a balance between increasing the number of visitors while benefiting locals and preserving the uniqueness of the destination (Lebe and Milfelner 2006). To achieve sustainable tourism in a destination, local involvement is fundamental to the planning and management of destinations (Coccossis, 1996). Tourism should also be a responsible and acceptable industry that brings long-term benefits to both local residents and tourists without compromising the physical and cultural environment of destinations (Murphy and Price (2005). Various aspects of policy implementation should be considered throughout the planning process and it is necessary to take into consideration what is realistic from multiple perspectives (Inskeep, 1991). Multiple government agencies have also outlined (UNEP/ICLEI, 2003 that the overall scope of sustainability must be dealt with on a smaller scale at a lower, more local level through the land use planning system.

As similar constructs apply, this paper proposes that tourism could use a watershed management approach to work towards managing a destination more sustainability.

METHODOLOGY

This paper used the Participatory Integrated Watershed Management (PIWM) approach to determine what factors affect the watershed from a recreation and tourism context and determine what elements and actions are needed to ensure more sustainable management. PIWM has two aims. First it must be participatory in terms of the particular issues to be worked on and second, how other related activities are carried out (German, Hussein, Alemu, Mazengia, Amede, Stroud, 2005; Hinchcliffe et al., 1995; Rhoades, 2000). PIWM is similar to Participatory Action Research (PAR) that is often used in public health research. PAR is an approach when looking to develop programs with people rather than for people (McIntyre, 2008).

A mixed methods approach was undertaken. First websites of 107 businesses and organizations were reviewed to determine sustainable practices. Then, quantitative online surveys were sent to multiple stakeholder groups. Finally, qualitative interviews were used as part of an interpretive naturalistic approach.

FINDINGS

The findings indicate that there are numerous elements that affect the sustainable management of both a watershed and a tourism destination. Natural and human communities do not exist in isolation (Naiman et al, 1997) and the following issues are interdependent and cannot exist in isolation. These elements have implications for managing a destination as well as engaging the multiple stakeholders.

Respondents understand the issues facing the watershed and outlined through both the surveys and the interviews. The most frequently mentioned threats from interview respondents were invasive species, pollution, and overuse of lake. Garbage washing up on the shores from ice fishing in the winter was a common complaint. Day-trippers were also mentioned as a threat as they are not perceived to care about the environment. Government bureaucracy and lack of partnerships and leadership was also mentioned. Awareness of sustainable tourism is good however. More than half (53%) of respondents from the online survey claimed to be very or extremely familiar with the term when asked unprompted and 87% believed sustainable tourism development was very or extremely important to the future of the Lake Simcoe Watershed.

Although the findings indicate many of the respondents seem to care about conservation and they are keen to increase activities that are low impact and more sustainable than traditional tourism ventures, current behavior of sustainability practices is poor. From the web content analysis, only 5% made five or more mentions of sustainability and only 3% were undertaking any water management or conservation practices. Additionally some websites' main purpose was sustainable recreation (e.g. hiking trails or canoeing), these websites neither mentioned initiatives regarding sustainable use or management of their beaches and park areas, nor provided detailed information to the consumer on limiting their impact. Scanning websites is only about the communication, however it highlights that such practices are not shared with the consumer and other businesses and communication and sharing of good practice is a key tool to increase awareness.

CONCLUSION

This paper illustrates that using a participatory approach using integrated watershed management ensures that the underlying goal is for conservation and protection of the watershed rather than traditional tourism management that has historically focused on economic growth. Watershed management has made some great strides to address integrated approaches and small-scale changes (German et al., 2005) however in order to scale up such benefits to address water quality issues within a watershed as well as overall sustainable development elements that address livelihoods of communities, financial stability for businesses as well as conservation of the watershed, there is work to be done.

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THIRD-PERSON EFECT OF TOURIST SIGNS

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## ABSTRACT

This study investigated whether tourists tend to engage in pro-environmental behavior when they view tourist   signs with negative or positive messages. It also examined whether the third-person effect yields different results due to social pressure (high/low) and social distance (psychological/ geographic). This study received a total of 300 questionnaires, employing a paired-sample T-test and ANOVA to test various hypotheses. The experimental results showed that audiences who viewed tourist signs with negative messages (threat-based) revealed more significant third-person effects than those who viewed them with positive messages (persuasion-based). Moreover, people who perceived high levels of social pressure tended to reduce the third-person effect. When the third-person effect was significant, tourists tended to take pro-environmental actions (especially legal and political action). This study suggests that government can utilize tourist signs with negative messages to motivate tourists to support restrictive policies that can manage a sustainable travel environment.

Key words: Tourist Signs, Third-person Effect, Pro-environmental Behavior, Social Pressure, Social Distance

## INTRODUCTION

Because economic activity is accelerating, climate change has led more scientists to focus on sustainable development as an important issue for human civilization. As a large segment of the world's economy, the tourism sector needed to strike a balance between economic activity and protecting natural resources (Birgit, 1999). However, the tourism industry has exerted complex effects (positive and negative) on the environment (Hall, 1992), the larger economy (Stynes, 1997), and society and culture (Delamere, Wankel & Hinch, 2001). McCool and Braithwaite (1992) suggested four methods for controlling the risk of tourism, including eliminating tourism, imposing barriers, regulating tourism, and persuading tourists. Besides, direct management (such as by imposing barriers or regulation) is an effective way to restrict human activity and reduce the negative impact of tourism. There is also the use of cost- effective public communication (such as signage) to

shape tourist behavior (Beeton et al., 2005; Ballantyne & Hughes, 2006; Weiler et al., 2009). According to Ajzen (1992), "…persuasive communication can produce a profound and lasting change, a goal not easily attained by other means (p.6)." In other words, persuasive and positive public communication can influence audience beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Ajzen, 1992; Ham, 1996; Sloman, 2002). Some researchers note the persuasive effects of warning signs within different contexts (Woods & Moscardo, 1998; Screven, 1999; Ballantyne & Hughes, 2006). Therefore, this study aims to investigate whether positive or negative messages will reinforce the pro-environmental behavior of tourists.

In summary, this study has the following purposes. First, it aims to examine whether tourist signs delivering positive or negative messages exert significant third-person effect. Second, it aims to expand the application of the third-person effect into marketing strategy, evaluating its level of effectiveness in terms of pro-environmental behavior. Third, it aims to provide policy recommendations for Taiwan's environment conservation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*The Third-Person Effect*

In 1983, Davison cited the third-person effect hypothesis, which highlights an individual's perceptual bias when viewing persuasive messages in the mass media, wherein an individual believes that the messages are more influential on the attitudes and behaviors of others. However, some scholars demonstrate that when an audience perceives advertising or communication as relatively more beneficial for itself, the third-person effect is mitigated, and this is called the "reverse the third-person effect" (Tiedge et al., 1991; Duck et al.,1995). The third-person effect is supported by extensive scholarship, and is applicable to many fields such as mass media (Glynn & Ostman, 1988), news coverage (Haridakis & Rubin, 2005; Reid & Hogg, 2005), advertising (Cho & Han, 2004; Huh et al., 2004; Meirick, 2004), television programs (Golan, 2002), political activities (Meirick, 2000; Paek, et al., 2005), and international media (Gibbon & Durkin, 1995; Tsfati, Ribak, & Cohen, 2005). Although literature has addressed the topic of the third-person effect, there is little research comparing the third-person effect (with positive and negative messages) and specific actions and behaviors (e.g., Innes & Zeits, 1988; Duck, et al., 1995). In the tourism field, there are two types of signs commonly used for environment management: persuasive advice (a positive message) and threat-based prohibition (a negative message). This study attempts to understand whether there is a third-person effect of tourist signs, further exploring the roles of positive and negative messages. In light of the above, the following hypotheses are advanced:

H1a: An audience will tend to believe that tourist signs with negative messages exert a greater effect on others than on the audience.

H1b: An audience will tend to believe that tourist signs with positive messages exert a greater effect on the audience than on others.

*Social Distance*

The concept of social distance comes from Davison (1983), who indicates that the third-person effect may be more significant when an audience perceives that messages impact on dissimilar groups as determined by, for example, "like me" or "different from me." Gibbon and Durkin (1995) claimed that as social distance becomes greater, the third-person effect increases. Here, social distance is based not only on geographic distance (Cohen & Davis, 1991; Eveland et al., 1999) but also on psychological distance (Perloff, 1996; Brosius & Engel, 1996), where an individual is situated in a context that includes the attitudes and behaviors of others.

*Geographic Distance*

Geographic distance refers to how an audience perceives the gap between itself and others due to geographic distance. Tewksbury (2002) demonstrated that the third-person effect can be influenced by group size and social and geographic distance. He compares situations in which group size increased or remained

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constant, noting that the third-person effect is greater when group size remains constant. In the research presented here, others are identified as "others from overseas" (foreigners) and "others from the home country" (mainlanders).

> H2a: An audience will tend to believe that tourist signs with negative messages exert a greater effect on foreigners than on mainlanders.
>
> H2b: An audience will tend to believe that tourist signs with positive messages exert a greater effect on mainlanders than on foreigners.

*Psychological Distance*

Gender variable is considered as a factor in psychological distance. One study on public announcements for road safety suggests that the third-person effect of females is not significant (Lewis et al., 2007). According to Johansson (2002), females are more influenced by mass media, while males are more influenced by personal experience. Based on the above, different genders receive positive or negative message and then reveal different levels of the third- person effect. Apparently, there is no difference in terms of pro-environmental behavior (especially legal and political actions) for females before and after reading tourist signs, because they believe that males are not impacted by the message. On the contrary, males tend to support pro-environmental behavior because they overestimate the influence of mass media on females. In light of these observations, several related hypotheses are advanced below:

> H2c: An audience will tend to believe that tourist signs exert a greater effect on female tourists rather than on the male tourists.

*Social Pressure*

Sometimes, individual actions are associated with social pressure. In this sense, individual behaviors are shaped by surrounding groups (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Keats et al., 2007). Davison (1983) maintained that the third-person effect is involved in the spiral of silence theory and that some individuals consider themselves less prone to advertising than others. This study considers that the estimators of social pressure would focus on peer pressure and media pressure. According to the above, several related hypotheses are advanced:

> H3a: An audience that feels strong social pressure will tend to believe that tourist signs exert a greater effect on the audience than on others.
>
> H3b: An audience that feels weak social pressure will tend to believe that tourist signs exert a greater effect on others than on the audience.

*Pro-environmental Behavior*

Pro-environmental behavior is defined as environmentally responsible behavior (Hungerford & Volk, 1990; Kaiser et al., 1999). Hungerford et al. (1985) divided responsible environmental behavior into five dimensions: persuasion, consumerism, eco-management, legal action, and political action. Wilke (1995) and Marcinkowski (1998) provided a detailed definition for these categories. Persuasion is encouraging others to engage in environment protection. Consumerism is buying (or rejecting) products to protect the environment through the exertion of consumer purchasing power. Eco-management is directly participating in environmental work to protect the environment. Legal action supports, modifies, and enforces environmental laws. Finally, political action includes participating in related political activities to protect the environment. Other academic approaches merit discussion. Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) defined pro-environmental behavior as looking for ways to reduce the negative impact on natural or human environments. From this perspective, the concepts of "behavior" and "action" are mutually explanatory; however, Jensen (2002) argued that definitions of pro-environmental behavior commonly ignore indirect environmental action; restrictions on personal behaviors or actions; and the use unequivocal measures to solve complex environmental problems. Thus, this study follows the categories of pro-environmental behavior advanced by Hungerford et al. (1985), and advances several related hypotheses:

H4: When the third-person effect is significant, tourists become more willing to engage in pro-environmental behavior.

H5: Tourist signs will influence positive pro-environmental behavior.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### Experiment design

This study's experiment, which uses 16 groups, is based on four variables: tourist signs (positive/negative), social pressure (high/low), psychological social distance (male/ female), and geographic social distance (foreigner/mainlander) (Table 1). This study uses convenience sampling approach. Data was collected using student samples from national and private university in Taiwan.

### Sample collection

The data of both preliminary and main study were collected using paper and internet surveys. Previous research suggests that educational levels and personal knowledge influence psychological social distance and indirectly impact the third-person effect (Eveland et al., 1999; Salwen &Dupagne, 2001). Specifically, someone with more educational experience will tend to believe others are more easily influenced by negative messages. Salwen and Dupagne (2001) explained this perceived bias comes from the personal belief that one is smarter than others (p. 228).

### Questionnaire Design

At the beginning of the experiment, participants were randomly separated into one of the 16 groups. The group experiences were designed to replicate tourist situations and encounter negative or positive signage. By sensibility words, positive message aims to persuade tourist to protect tourism environment. Conversely, negative tourist warning sign was designed as threat words or serious punishment, which has tourist fear or scared to do some actions to damage tourism environment. A participant would get a questionnaire randomly which describes a situation with either positive tourist warning sign or negative warning sign. After reading the messages, audiences completed a questionnaire that adopted a five-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932), from 5 (strongly agree) to 1(strongly disagree).

## RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

### Data Collection and Descriptive Statistics

The preliminary questionnaires were conducted online (http://www.mysurvey.tw/), and distributed from late February to late March 2014. A total of 60 questionnaires were collected, and two incomplete questionnaires were discarded. Of these participants, 63.8% were female and 36.2 % were male. 69 % were from North Taiwan, 24.1 % were from South Taiwan, and 6.9 % were from overseas. After a factor analysis and reliability analysis, four items of the third-person effect scale were deleted (Cronbach's $\alpha$ = .78) and one item of the Pro-environmental behavior scale was deleted (Cronbach's $\alpha$ = .88).

For the formal survey, a total of 300 questionnaires, including paper and electronic and versions were received. The usable rate for the questionnaires was 85% (with 34 incomplete questionnaires, nine refusals, and seven unavailable); also, 69.8 % of participants were female and 30.2% were male; and 63.9% were from mainlanders and 36.1% from foreigners. This survey used a mean of perceived attitudes ($M$ = 23.64, $SD$ = 2.85) to separate participants into two groups: those perceiving positive messages (a total score of part one questionnaire lower 15, N = 127) and those perceiving negative messages (a total score of part one questionnaire upper 15, N = 128). Additionally, according to a mean of pressure scale ($M$=31.75, $SD$=4.51), all participants were divided into those perceiving high pressure (a total score of part four questionnaire lower 22, $N$=134) and those perceiving low pressure (a total score of part four questionnaire upper 22, $N$=121).

*Reliability Analysis*

This survey also checked Cronbach's α of four parts of the questionnaire in a formal experiment. This questionnaire was proved to be reliable, as confirmed by the use of Cronbach's α for the questionnaire (Cronbach's $α$= .88) and considering that the four scales achieved .70, a value to check the questionnaire's reliability (Nunnally, 1978; Churchill, 1979).

To understand the gap of the third-person effect on the audience, between perceptions of positive and negative messages, this research took "the score of influence on others" minus "the score of influence on self," and obtained a new score named the "third-person effect score." According to the paired sample T-test result, the mean of the third-person effect score in the case of negative messages ($M=1.13$, $SD=1.13$) is less than that in the case of positive messages ($M=1.63$, $SD=1.20$). There is a significant difference in the third-person effect when the audience perceives a positive ($t=15.358$, $p<.001$) and a negative message ($t=11.314$, $p<.001$). Therefore, hypotheses 1a and 1b are supported.

The difference in perception for the audience regarding the influence levels between self and others (foreigners/mainlanders) in the cases of a positive and a negative message. The mean of the third-person effect score in the case of negative messages situation ($M=.61$, $SD=1.20$) is less than that in the case of positive messages ($M=.84$, $SD=1.22$).It is a significant result of the paired sample T-test that the audience felt that the message influenced others in overseas/domestic settings when they received negative messages ($t=-5.752$, $p<.001$) or positive messages ($t=-7.755$, $p<.001$). In addition, the paired sample T-test result of the third-person effect between self and others (male/female) which the mean in the case of positive messages ($M=.99$, $SD=1.10$) is more than that in the case of negative messages ($M=.62$, $SD=1.10$). The $p$-values of both are smaller than .001. Hence, hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c are supported.

Before using a two-way ANOVA to test hypotheses, observations of measurement variables were tested by Levene's test of equality of error variances to check whether different groups were homogeneous. The result is not significant ($p > .05$), implying that they do not reject hypothesis of "the population variances are equal."

When observations are homogeneous, it is acceptable to use ANOVA to investigate the interaction among variables. Compares the ANOVA results of social pressure, geographic social distance, and psychological social distance with the delivery of different messages (positive and negative). This survey found that when the independent variable is social pressure, in cases of both positive and negative messages, the P-value of the third-person effect of the audience is significant (p<.05).

This research used an independent sample T-test to test the level of reversal for the third-person effect and the third-person effect on different perceptions of social pressure. The P-values for both "self" ($F = -3.971$, $P$-$value = .000$) and "general others" ($F = -2.548$, $P$-$value = .012$) are smaller than .05.

The paired sample T-test result, the mean of the third-person effect in perceived high pressure cases ($M=.55$, $SD=.84$) is more than that in low pressure cases ($M=.46$, $SD=.80$). There is a significant difference in the third-person effect when the audience perceives high pressure ($t= -7.967$, $p<.001$) and low pressure ($t=-5.890$, $p<.001$). Therefore, hypotheses 3a and 3b are supported.

The final test consists of an independent sample T-test to check the relationship not only between tourist signs and pro-environmental behavior but also between the third-person effect and pro-environmental behavior. We find that legal and political action is a significant result of five factors. When the independent variable is the third-person effect, the T-value of legal and political action is $-2.677$ ($p<.05$). On the other hand, when the independent variable is the tourist sign, the T-value of legal and political action is $-3.066$ ($p<.05$). Both hypotheses 4 and 5 are partially supported.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research concludes that different tourist signs result in tourists having different levels of perceived influence on themselves and others (the third-person effect), and this perceived bias drives the audience to take some action, especially legal and political action, in order to accomplish environment protection. This research also finds that the third-person effect is influenced by social pressure and message cognition. When tourist signs are interpreted to be negative messages, tourists who do not bear high levels of social pressure feel a strong third-person effect. Conversely, when tourist signs are interpreted to be positive messages, tourists who bear high levels of social pressure feel a weak third-person effect.
Tourist destinations are especially vulnerable when the tourism industry is booming, due to habitat vandalism and ecological imbalance. To preserve beautiful scenery, amazing architecture, and valuable species, it is important to manage tourism and realize a state of tourism sustainability. Two types of tourism management emerge: direct (such as visitor control) and indirect (such as with messages).Direct management can realize effective environment protection, but this creates an unsatisfactory experience for the tourist and may even lead to retaliatory action. This research points to the use of indirect ways to reduce tourist antipathy when government takes direct measures to manage the tourism environment. This research also supports the idea that people tend to decrease their opposition to governmental measures by enhancing their intention of supporting legal and political action. From this survey, negative tourist signs promote the intention of supporting policy and law because of a cognitive bias between oneself and others based on the hypothesis of the third-person effect. Thus, tourists tend to support policies or laws related to tourism environment, where there are negative tourist signs. Comparing persuasive and threat-based signs, most Taiwanese college students considered that persuasive signs are negative messages because their contents lack information and are impractical and unreliable.

It is somewhat problematic to use a model suitable for western society for measuring the attitudes of Taiwanese people, which might create a certain bias in the results. This survey focused on comparing TPB with the "first-person hypothesis" and "third-person hypothesis." Future research can combine these two hypotheses into a TPB structure in order to effectively explain or forecast the behavior of audiences after receiving messages (either commercial advertisements or public service announcements).Another interesting question is whether personality traits (such as being risk averse/risk seeking or individualistic/collectivist) influence perception levels of oneself and others. Furthermore, it would be interesting to explore whether the third-person effect declines when audiences consider bystanders' perceptions of these messages.

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# TOURIST BEHAVIOR

# TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS OF INDIAN DOMESTIC TOURISTS: AN EXPLORATION

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## ABSTRACT

Our study aimed at determining travel motivations of Indian tourists who undertook at least one trip to an Indian destination in the last twelve months. A questionnaire was administered to a sample of 294 domestic tourists, and a hierarchical cluster analysis was used to identify ten major segments of Indian domestic tourists. The responses were also be factor-analysed, to explore if there are a few underlying motivations (factors) that explain most of the variance contained in the seventy two variables. Results indicated distinct segments, and can provide inputs to travel industry in designing travel options for individuals and groups.

Key words: Travel, Motivation, Segments, India, Domestic

## TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS

Motivation is the need that drives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction (Beerli and Martin, 2004). Many different reasons and motives compel people to travel. These forces are perceived as being able to decrease the condition of tension felt by the individual. The state of tension then gives way to the necessity that encourages an action or attitude (Fodness, 1994). Although the decision to satisfy needs may rely on other psychological variables, in reality, all human behaviour is motivated (Crompton, 1979).

Motivation around travelling can be personal (personal training, compensation, rest and knowledge) and interpersonal (resulting from the social relations) (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Dann (1977) classifies personal motives as those that predispose the individual for travelling; escape from daily routines, the desire to escape from solitude. According to this study, interpersonal motives arise from the need to seek some form of social recognition that is obtained through travel. Most tourist literature on the factors behind the tourist decision has focused on a single construct, whether it be cognitive or emotional (Gnoth, 1997; Mccabe, 2000).

Research focusing fundamentally on cognitive aspects does not consider the relations between these factors and emotional aspects. In this field empirical evidence is lacking. Correia, Oom do Valle and Moco (2007) states that the existence of internal and external factors which motivate human behaviour is assumed by several authors. Kotler (1982), for instance, states that motivation can be the result of internal and external stimuli. Most studies looking to explain the tourist decision are based on the expectancy value theory (Fishbein, 1967). In general, the main advantages of the expectancy value theory include the following

points (Cohen et al., 1972). This theory enables the use of some of the concepts present in the same model; allows the integration of the emotional component in tourist motivation; the theory can incorporate all the reasons for travelling put forward in the studies on motivation; the expectancy value theory enables the resolution of the problem of "push" and "pull" factors, as well as the evaluation of personality; the theory allows a more realistic and sophisticated view of tourist motivation. In an increasingly saturated marketplace, the success of marketing destinations should be guided by a thorough analysis of tourist motivation and its interplay with tourist satisfaction and loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2003). From the preceding discussions, the importance of analyzing tourist motivation in the context of tourism marketing becomes vividly apparent.

Since the 1970s, it has been argued that escaping from the pressures of one's 'home' society in order to search for more 'authentic' experiences is a primary driver in tourist motivation (Cohen, 2010). In this article Cohen has identified escapism, quest for authenticity and identity as three travel motivations.

The study of travel motivations of domestic travelers has been generally ignored in South-east Asia despite the potential challenge of mismatching western travel theory to native (South-east) Asian travellers (Bui & Jolliffe, 2011). It is thus timely to investigate this relatively under-researched topic of domestic travel in South-east Asia. Domestic tourism is defined as "journeys and visits within a person's home country" (Singh, 2009) and the domestic tourist is understood as "any person residing in a country who travels to a place within the country, outside his/her usual environment for a period not exceeding 12 months" (UNTWO, 1995, p.4). Earlier research on the domestic tourist in Asia was initiated by Richter's (1989) seminal work 'The Politics of Tourism in Asia' (Bui & Jolliffe, 2011). China and India, the most populous countries in the world, also have the two largest domestic tourism markets. Consequently, research on domestic tourism cannot ignore these markets (Bui & Jolliffe, 2011).

From the above discussion it may be concluded that travel motivations of domestic travelers has been identified as an under-researched topic. This study tries to identify some of these motivations. According to Bui & Jolliffe (2011), travel demand is driven by economic and socio-psychological factors. These factors such as income, availability of time, and favourable weather primarily determine the propensity to travel. Western motivational theory in tourism is marked by a seminal empirical study by Dann (1977) who introduced 'push' and 'pull' factors, but went on to deeply study the link between anomie, ego-enhancement and tourism. He broadly identified travel motivations as personal/social fulfillment, sightseeing, new experience, relaxation, prestige and kinship. Cultural interest, self-improvement, leisure activities could be some other motivations (Ap and Mok, 1996; Park and Mok, 1998; Cha and Jeong, 1998; Heung et al., 2001; Ryan and Mo, 2001).

Market segmentation is a simple concept of great importance in the field of strategic marketing. Primarily, it consists of subdividing a market into smaller groups of buyers with homogenous characteristics or behaviour who might require separate products or marketing mix. Since the introduction of the concept of segmentation in the late 1950s, two major approaches have been recognized for segmentation of individuals. The first approach is known as the typological approach or common-sense segmentation, wherein groups are determined by predefined criteria that are expected to cause heterogeneity. The second approach is response-based, which is empirical by definition. In this approach groups are derived by applying quantitative techniques of data analysis to identify a pattern. Researchers adopt both approaches but because of the wide use of typographical approach, it does not give much competitive advantage. This has led to an increase in the usage of the data-driven approach. It has also been found by past researchers that despite prevalence of many approaches, cluster analysis technique is the most frequently used technique for segmentation (Mayers and Tauber, 1977; Dolnicar, 2002; Bailey, 1994; Mazanec, 2000; Wedel and Kamakura, 2001; Ketchen and Shook, 1996; Everitt, 1993).

Segmentation strategies have been described as 'strategic weapons' in the travel and tourism industry

due to the diversity of products and customers. With segmentation, tourism marketers would be able to allocate resources more effectively in attracting distinct and unique group of travelers. The most commonly used market segmentation technique in the travel and tourism industry is to examine the benefits sought by the travellers (Kau & Lim, 2005). The benefits sought are nothing but travel motivations of the tourists. Once motives are identified they can be factor analyzed into groups and then through cluster analysis segments can be identified. (Cha et al., 1995). By investigating the travel motives of Japanese travelers to the USA and Canada three segments, namely, 'novelty/nature seekers', 'escape/relaxation seekers' and 'family/outdoor activities seekers', were identified by Jang et al (2002).

Tourist markets have been segmented based on psychographics, activities, demographics, lifestyle, emotions, involvement and motivations (Bloom, 2005; Prentice et al, 1998; Loker & Perdue, 1992; Chandler & Costello, 2002; Cha et al, 1995; Vyncke, 2002; Bigne & Andreu, 2004; Fesenmaler & Johnson, 1989; McKercher, 2002; McKercher & Du Cros, 2003; Ryan & Hutton, 2000). Researchers have argued that motive-based segmentation is gaining popularity since this approach accounts for the reasons tourists visit the site and is more sensitive to subjective experiences (McKercher 2002; Prentice et al, 1998). Motive-based segmentation helps in predicting behaviour better than personality, lifestyle, demographic and geographic measures (Haley, 1968; Loker & Perdue, 1992; Young et al., 1980). Researchers also agree that motive-based segmentation is advantageous because it is consumer-centered and thus embraces the consumers' needs, expectations, and experiences (Apostolakis, 2003).

We adopted a view that is similar to the later travel motivation researchers mentioned above, and concentrated on understanding tourist segments and their motivations in the context of the Indian domestic tourist.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The major objective was to segment Indian domestic tourists based on the motivations that drive them towards travel.

METHODOLOGY

The sample for the study was selected from the different strata of the Indian domestic tourist population. The sample had an age distribution from 18 years to 65, with different socio-economic status, education levels, marital status, income levels, and geographic areas. The sample size targeted for the study was 300 Indian domestic tourists, and the actual size was 294.

A questionnaire was constructed based on the study's requirements for assessing the motivations and demographic profile of respondents such as age, gender, marital status and education level. Validity of the questionnaire was tested before administering the same. Data collection was done in person between October 2014 and January 2015 from people of various age groups, and socio-economic classes, with regard to their propensity to travel, and reasons for the same. A five point Likert scale was used for the seventy-two motivation items. Each of them had travelled somewhere in the past year.

DATA ANALYSIS

*Segmentation*

The hierarchical clustering method was used on items of the questionnaire related to motivations and an attempt was made to identify a reasonable number of clusters based on the agglomeration schedule. The analysis yielded 10 clusters. Interpretation of the ten clusters (based on the variables which had high mean values indicating strong agreement with the given statement/variable) follows-

Cluster 1- The cluster consisted of those whose major motivation was "getting away" from the routine, or daily pressures of life.

Cluster 2- This cluster consisted of people looking for adventure, and experiences that were different from the usual, maybe thrilling.

Cluster 3- This was a cluster searching for harmony, peace, and a quiet family time. Also a search for self- understanding. This was also the largest cluster in terms of numbers, supporting the general view of travel as 'an opening up of one's mind' or 'self-discovery'

Cluster 4- This cluster had two sets of motivations- learning new things or gaining new experiences, and impressing people who had not had them.

Cluster 5- This was the beaches-nightlife-water sports cluster, wanting to experience entertainment and nightlife too.

Cluster 6- This was a cluster that had mixed motives, like visiting family, plus exploring special interests of different kinds-sports, or other interests. This was also the smallest cluster.

Cluster 7- This was somewhat similar to cluster 2, with their major motivations being adventure, spontaneity and gaining self-confidence.

Cluster 8- Strengthening family relationships, visiting religious destinations and maximising value from budget holidays were the main motivations of this cluster.

Cluster 9- These were people who had specific destinations in mind, such as forests, parks, beaches, or a foreign country.

Cluster 10- Strengthening relationships with friends and family were the major motivations for this cluster.

Of course there were some overlaps of motivations, but these were some of the major motivators for the above segments among the sample. This gives us several insights into the tourist market, and helps segregate the total market. Further exploration of the segments of interest is likely to yield actionable plans of promotion for those in the travel industry.

One trend in the Indian tourist market has been the growth of package tours- both domestic and international-offered to the Indian tourist. Religious tourism has always been big in India- both organised and individually planned. There has also been some growth recently in niche areas like adventure and sports tourism.

*Exploratory Factor Analysis*

An exploratory factor analysis was done on the 72 variables, to understand underlying motivational factors. From analysing the factor matrix (rotated using varimax rotation to generate uncorrelated factors that preserved the orthogonal nature of the factors), the following meaningful factors emerged (all these had Eigen values greater than 1). These eighteen factors together explained a total of 68% of the variance, and their interpretation is as follows:
   1.  New experiences
   2.  Using/developing skills
   3.  Thrill/adventure
   4.  Roots/visiting family
   5.  The great outdoors

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6. The high life
7. Being myself
8. Self-discovery
9. Getting away
10. One-upmanship/proving something
11. Beaches/nightlife
12. Sports
13. Romance
14. Value for money experience
15. Strengthening bonds
16. Religious interest
17. Live theatre/concerts
18. Special interests

In most cases, two or more variables loaded on to each factor with a factor loading of 0.6 or above. The exceptions were factor 17 and 18, which had one variable each.

The above analysis leads us to conclude that there are several useful underlying themes that travel motivations fall under. For example, the value for money motivation (factor 14) could be from a large number of Indians who have not had a chance to travel too much due to financial constraints, and could represent a segment waiting to break out. Unlike in the European or American case, the average Indian is not a backpacker at a young age, usually accompanying family members or a group of friends on many of his outings. This is borne out by a large number of respondents saying that their last trip was with friends or family. Only 5% went alone on their last trip.

There are also some peculiar motivations that may be relevant to Indian tourists, for example, religious tourism. India has many temples which routinely attract thousands of devotees, who spend enormous amounts of time waiting in lines to worship their deity of choice. This is found across age groups, and therefore, the factor 'Religious Interest' standing out is no surprise. Visiting family or 'native places' is another obligation in India, and perhaps happens with a frequency much higher than elsewhere in the Western world. Factor 4 characterises this motivation.

The other factors are along expected lines, and some could have interesting insights, if explored further. For instance, Factor 10, where one-upmanship is a motivation for travel, among other things. This could be tied in with the emergence of social media such as Facebook, where the traveller is eager to boast about his travel, and is eager to share pictures from the trip as soon as he possibly can, in order to impress his range of social contacts or 'friends' as Facebook calls them. India is a very large user of social media, and travel companies can benefit from this insight in promoting destinations/services.

Sports, adventure, history, culture, and self-discovery have been known to motivate people to travel, and Indians seem to be no exception, though the numbers motivated by each of these may be different from those in other countries.

The cross-tabulation of clusters with demographic variables threw up a few interesting insights. Gender was not significant, indicating growing equality among the touring population. But marital status was significant in differentiating across clusters. The adventure, nightlife/entertainment clusters had a significantly higher proportion of singles rather than married people. Another significant variable was the level of education. The higher the education level, the higher was the proportion of people in the self-discovery cluster, and also in the strengthening relationships cluster. There was also a decrease in the entertainment/nightlife cluster among the higher-educated. There is probably a correlation among age and education level, though the cross-tabulation of clusters with age was not found significant.

DISCUSSION

Combining findings from the cluster and factor analyses, we conclude that several segments exist among Indian domestic tourists, which if tapped correctly, will enhance domestic tourism in the country, and provide greater satisfaction to tourists indulging in it for different reasons. Group tours are quite popular in the country, and religious and self-discovery tourism is a major segment. Going home to visit family seems to be a major reason to travel too, like Bui and Jolliffe (2011) found in Vietnam, and more focus is needed on this segment because it is potentially a large one.

Married people and singles seem to have different needs, and tour packages and promotions need to be designed keeping these segments in mind. Interestingly, this finding correlates with that of Dann (1977) who found that marital status was a predictor of Anomie (defined as a general meaninglessness in societal life), which was directly seen as a motivator for people to travel. Adventure tourism seems to be gaining as a distinct segment, where some sports or risky activities are involved.

Interesting possibilities for further research exist in the Indian tourist market, including the extension into international tourism by Indians.

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# AN INVESTIGATION OF KEY FACTORS IN EXCEEDING CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND REWARDING CUSTOMER LOYALTY TO DEVELOP HOTEL INDUSTRY IN HO CHI MINH CITY-VIETNAM

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## ABSTRACT

This paper has investigated the key factors in exceeding customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty in developing the HCMC hotel industry. There are three important variables that include understanding customer characteristic and behaviors through applying customer relationship management effectively; measuring and improving the current service quality that Ho Chi Minh hotel industry offering to customers; and providing the innovative services that can delight customer's requirements to extremely satisfy them and gain customerloyalty. Thus, this research paper will provide the new perspectives that can be applied in HCMC hotel industry for exceeding customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty.

Key words: Ho Chi Minh hotel industry, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, service quality, innovative services

## INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the hospitality and tourism industry is the largest and fastest growing industry in the world (Walker 2007). Viet Nam- the new destination with many natural landscapes and various cultures is recognized as one of the safe and interesting places for international travelers. Together with the significant increase of the tourism industry, the Vietnam hotel industry has been boosted dramatically to meet the increasing requirement of customer. Especially in Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC), this is the economic and cultural center so there are much more leisure and business tourists traveling to HCMC comparing to other provinces in Vietnam.

In present, there are about 140 three to five – star hotels in HCMC that is not enough to meet the more luxury requirement of travelers (Ho Chi Minh City Department of Tourism, 2014). The lack of luxury hotels in HCMC causes to the high room rate and the less quality of provided service that can influence negatively in customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction is their feeling of pleasure or disappointment that results from comparing a service's perceived performance in relation to their expectation (Kotler et al 2006) that can impact on customer retention to the service providers. Therefore, in order to develop Ho Chi Minh hotel industry, the concept of customer satisfaction and loyalty must be emphasized in the business's strategy of any organization in the pace business environment.

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the key factors in exceeding customer satisfaction and ensuring customer returns in HCMC hotel industry. To support the theoretical perspective, this research is the review of previous conceptual background of customer satisfaction and customer loyalty through using the secondary data of books, journals, articles. Simultaneously, this research paper has been done by the contribution of researcher in collecting the primary data that based on conducting relevant questionnaires to managers

and customers in order to achieve the following research objectives:

a. Examine the impact of customer relationship management on providing the personalized service that can increase customer satisfaction and obtain customer loyalty in HCMC hotel industry;
b. Determine the current service quality that HCMC hotels provide to customer and set up the appropriate strategies to improve these services;
c. Examine the importance of providing the innovative service in contributing the competitive differentiation to HCMC hotel industry.

There is no doubt that the increasing sophistication of customer's needs and the current market competition has posed a tough challenge to hotel managers (Kandampully et al, 2000). With the deep understanding of the current hotel industry in HCMC and the significant importance of cusomer loyalty in developing business operation, this knowledge may assist hotel managers to implement the sound strategies to achieve the great level of customer satisfaction and attract customer retention, that in turn; increase the profitability of hotels in HCMC.

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

Superior customer satisfaction occurs as if provided service, as perceived by customers can meet or exceed their expectation (Reid et al 2010). In the development of customer-driven organization today, exceeding customer satisfaction is one of the priorities of an organization's marketing strategy to be more outstanding among competitors. Especially in hotel industry, the main characteristics of service product are intangibility that consumer cannot see or touch and simultaneity that means service cannot be measured or inspected before sale and provide to customer (Lockwood et al 1996). Additionally, one significant difference between hospitality industry and other business sectors is that hotel provides guest satisfaction (Walker 2007) to leave the impressive experience. Thus, satisfaction can be seen as the crucial factor that effect on customer's decision of choosing a service provider in the next times.

Moreover, according to Berry et al 1991, customer is the judge of service quality and their resulting level of satisfaction can be affected directly by their expected service. It means the shorter gap between expected service and perceived service is; the more customer satisfaction that service provider has achieved. Every customer always has certainly expectation of service quality before they come to a service provider. Especially in the development of hotel industry nowadays, customers becomes more experienced in service products and they have more choices of better service provider, it means they will expect the higher service quality from the same provider in the following times. Consequently, to provide the excellent service quality that can increase customer satisfaction, the HCMC hotel industry must understand clearly what customers are expecting from their service to provide the personalized services.

*The non-liar link between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty*

From understanding the importance of customer satisfaction, it is necessary to realize the non-liar relationship between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty as well as their benefits in the success of an organization. There is a research that when customers are satisfied with the provided service, they are more likely to return. Hence one of the primary measures of customer satisfaction is customer retention (King et al 2006). However, in the continuous change of customer requirement and more choices of service providers, when customer is satisfied with service quality, it does not mean they definitely return in the future. According to the research of Bowen and Chen 2001, to ensure customer loyalty, an organization must have extremely satisfied customers. It means if customer satisfaction can reach a high level, customer loyalty that are measured by their return and willingness to provide strong word of mouth to others will increase dramatically.

*The conceptual background of customer loyalty and its benefits to develop the business of hospitality organization*

To examine the importance of customer loyalty in developing the HCMC hotel industry, it is essential to point out the definition of loyalty firstly. According to Yesawich 1997, loyal customers are customers who hold favorable attitudes and positive behaviors towards the hotel, commit to repurchase the service and be willing to recommend the hotel to others. Thus, the customer loyalty can increase the profits significantly through repeating sales, reducing marketing cost that accounts to a huge budget of hotel's operation; and reducing operational cost. Loyal customers who purchase the service product in a hospitality firm frequently are very familiar with the service information so it requires this firm less cost to serve these customers. That is the reason why there is a conclusion that acquiring new customers may cost five times more than the cost of serving the existing customer (Keller et al 2006).

In addition, loyal customers are less likely to switch to other providers because of the competitor's influences such as: cheaper price, attractive marketing campaign, etc (Reichheld et al 1990). Particularly in hotel's business that made up of organizations that offer guest courteous, professional food, drinks and lodging service alone or in combination (Ford et al 2000), the satisfaction and loyalty will encourage customers to consume more additional service so the sales revenue of hotel can increase sharply with less operational cost. As a result, if a hotel retains more 5 percent of its customers, profits will increase by 25 percent to 125 percent (Reichheld et al 1990). Besides, the loyal customers who are satisfied with the mprovided service will be happy to promote the hotel to others by providing the strong word of mouth that increases the hotel's reliability and decreases the customer's perceived risks, creating business referrals, providing preferences and serving on advisory board.

Finally, loyalty of external customers can affect positively on existing internal customer's attitude and behaviors; and attract more potential staffs to hotel (King 2006). For an instance: when a hotel can retain more loyal customer, the staffs will be encouraged to work hard for providing better service to customer. They pride of being a member in a prestigious organization so they are more likely to be loyal to this hotel. The retention of loyal employees will cut down the huge cost to recruit, train new employees; and ensure consistent service quality in an organization.

Therefore, from analyzing the benefits of loyal customer, it can be seen that there is a positive correlation between loyalty and profitability.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To achieve the mentioned research objective, the mixed research method will be used in studying this research paper together with the support of related valuable literature review. The quantitative paper will examine the impact of three independent variables: understanding customer characteristic, motivation and behavior, measuring and improving the current service quality as well as providing the innovative service on exceeding customer satisfaction based on the questionnaire for customers. Furthermore, researcher also conducts the in-depth interview that is a kind of conversation between the interviewer and participants in order to yield exploratory, descriptive and explanatory data (Hesse 2006) for gaining insightful aspect of the research issues. After posting the questionnaires in the website, there were 150 respondents who has experienced in the HCMC hotel industry logged in this website and completed this survey. Besides, the qualitative paper that is the in-dept interview with 12 line – managers has been conducted to gain extended ideas for achieving the great level of customer satisfaction from the aspect of service providers.

FINDINGS

*Understanding customer characteristics, motivations and behaviors through applying customer relationship management to provide the personalized service in exceeding customer satisfaction and*

*rewarding customer loyalty*

There is no doubt that customers are also an integral part of service provision in hotel industry because they join in and observe the service delivery process from the beginning till the end. So the result of provided service quality and the level of customer satisfaction can be affected negatively or positively by their motivation, characteristic and behavior (Kotler et al 2006). Thus, service provider will not satisfy customer unless they can understand customer characteristic, motivation and behavior that relates to profile, segmentation, valuation, demographic and geographic clearly (Nykamp 2001).

In order to understand customer characteristic, motivations and behaviors, the HCMC hotel industry should apply effectively customer relationship management that is defined as the combination of functions, skills, processes and technologies to manage customers more profitably (Singh et al 2009). The role of customer relationship management (CRM) is to provide the optimal value to customers through communicating with them, marketing to them, and serving them together with the traditional marketing mix: product, price, place and promotion in order to build the long lasting organization-customer relationship (Nykamp 2001).

According to the in-depth interview with 12 line-managers, there are 2 questions in this area to understand about manager's attitude toward building customer relationship management in hospitality organization in order to understand customer characteristics, behaviors and motivations. There are 11 out of 12 interviewed managers accepted that building the strong customer relationship in their hotels will bring more successful perspectives in achieving the great level of customer satisfaction. Besides, with the comprehension of internal resource of their own hotels, the knowledge of hotel business, and the working experience, they shared some main solutions to build the customer relationship effectively. These solutions can be categorized into: considering customer relationship management as an integral part of philosophy and corporate strategy to collect the essential data, managing the customer data effectively, using these collected data for providing the personalized service that customer is expecting; and organizing events after sales for strengthen the relationship with customers.

Table 1. Customer expectation about personalized service in HCMC hotels in the future

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Yes | 77 | 51.3 | 74.0 | 74.0 |
| | Not really | 17 | 11.3 | 16.3 | 90.4 |
| | No | 10 | 6.7 | 9.6 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 104 | 69.3 | 100.0 | |
| Missing | 99 | 46 | 30.7 | | |
| Total | | 150 | 100.0 | | |

The above table presents the customer expectation about providing the personalized service in HCMC hotel industry. In the results of quantitative research, there are 31.3% of respondents accepted they used to receive the personalized service during their stay in HCMC hotels. However, there are 74% of respondents who did not experience any personalized service are expecting that HCMC hotel industry will have more services in the future that can meet their personal needs and expectations. So, there is no doubt that the personalized service is one of the key factors in meeting customer expectation. In the results of interview, in order to provide the personalized service, the HCMC hotel industry should apply the customer relationship management to understand soundly customer requirements and expectations.

*Findings of building customer relationship management in exceeding customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty*

To test the difference between the level of customer satisfaction when they received the personalized

services from HCMC hotels and their level of satisfaction when they did not, researcher has used One-way analysis of variance (One-way ANOVA). The result of this analysis showed that the significance is 0.00 (less than 0.05). This means there is the statistically significant difference between the means of these two variables. Besides, the questionaire statistic of overall satisfaction figured out that if a service provider offers the personalized services to customers, they will mostly satisfy or even extremely satisfy with that organization. Therefore, it can be concluded that the personalized service impact directly on the level of customer satisfaction. From understanding the importance of providing personalized service, building customer relationship management that aims to understand customer characteristic, behaviors and motivations is undoubtedly necessary. Consequently, the hypothesis of building customer relationship management have been accepted in order to increase customer satisfaction in HCMC hotel industry nowadays.

Table 2. One-way ANOVA analysis of the relationship between personalized service and customer satisfaction

|  | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between Groups | 22.355 | 1 | 22.355 | 58.059 | .000 |
| Within Groups | 56.985 | 148 | .385 |  |  |
| Total | 79.340 | 149 |  |  |  |

*Measuring and improving the current service quality in exceeding customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty*

There is no doubt that service quality is one of the most important factors in exceeding customer satisfaction.   Service quality that is the extent to which the product or service meet the requirement of customer who uses and consumes it (Montgomery 1996). The service that hotel industry offers to customer comprises of both tangible elements and intangible part of a transaction relationship between service provider and their customers. Therefore, to provide the better service quality to customer, hotel industry must focus on the customer requirement of tangible elements such as: request of non-smoking room or further activities: casino, health center as well as intangible elements such as: the attitude and behavior of staffs in service transition and the provision of "the moment of truth". In fact, the continuous improvement of service quality in hospitality industry does not cost so much, but customer satisfaction can be increased significantly.

The results of in-depth interviews with 12 managers who are working in HCMC hotel industry have presented the necessary of measuring and improving the current service quality. There are 10 out of 12 managers agreed with the idea of setting up an official representative of HCMC hotels industry to measure the service quality that these hotels providing to customer more accurately. Moreover, they also emphasized on the role of employees in improving the service quality. In the interview, these managers assumed that the employee's skills in HCMC hotels are not professional enough to provide the outstanding services to international customers. Therefore, the sound measurement of this representative about service quality and employee's performance will support the HCMC hotels improve their service most effectively.

Together with the results of qualitative research, the above table shows that 64% of respondents who answered the survey in quantitative research are expecting the improvement of current service quality in HCMC hotels. This means the appropriate improvement is an inevitable task of service provider in order to meet the continuous change of customer requirements and increase customer satisfaction in HCMC hotel industry.

Table 3. Customer expectation about improving service

| | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | Yes | 96 | 64.0 | 64.0 | 64.0 |
| | Not really | 41 | 27.3 | 27.3 | 91.3 |
| | No | 13 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 100.0 |
| | Total | 150 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

*Providing innovative services for exceeding customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty*

According to the research of Herbert and Okamoto, the unexpected service and encountered performance also play an important role in customer satisfaction. However, in the stronger competition of the HCMC hotel industry currently, the unexpected service that is offering "go extra miles" service to customer and making guests surprised should be considered as the short-term strategy in increasing customer satisfaction. Though any organization wants to reduce the cost, save customers time; and achieve growth, the customer requirement is changing continuously due to more experience in service quality and the easily substitute service offering from other hospitality service providers (Vangundy 2007). Therefore, in order to develop the HCMC hotel industry in the current situation, it is critical to provide the innovative service that is to create and deliver new customer value (Carlson et al 2006) in order to maximize the convenience for customer during their stay.

According to Rabe 2006, innovation is the application of a new idea to get a valuable improvement. To apply the innovative service effectively, the HCMC hotel industry can research to design the new service that based on understanding the change of customer requirement and the internal resource of organization or follow the best existing services that are practiced in hotel industry in other countries which are more outstanding to customers. With the innovative service, the hospitality firms in HCMC can extremely delight customer requirement through delivering a service which goes beyond their expectation and bring them back eager (Michael 2000) that can affect positively on achieving the great level of customer satisfaction. Consequently, in the competitive business environment nowadays, the innovative service will bring back the competitive differentiation to service providers through avoiding the price competition, gaining high market share, and increasing the retention of good employees in an organization.

The hypothesis of providing the innovative services in increasing customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty has been accepted by all managers who joined in the qualitative research. They stated that providing the innovative services which based on understanding, and delighting customer needs and expectations clearly is one of the prior strategic choices for HCMC hotel industry to create the competitive advantages comparing to other internal and external competitors; and adding more value to service quality that is providing to customers in the pace business environment of hotel industry nowadays.

Table 4. One-way ANOVA analysis of the relationship between providing innovative service and the level of customer satisfaction in HCMC hotels

| | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between Groups | 2.800 | 1 | 2.800 | 5.414 | .021 |
| Within Groups | 76.540 | 148 | .517 | | |
| Total | 79.340 | 149 | | | |

One-way ANOVA analysis had been applied to test the difference between the level of customer satisfaction when the HCMC hotels provided the innovative service quality to them and their satisfaction when these hotels did not. The result of ANOVA analysis between the overall satisfaction and innovative service (Table 4) shows that the significance is 0.021 (less than 0.05). This means there is the statistically significant difference between the levels of customer satisfaction in case they received the innovative service from service provider or not. As can be seen in the bar chart, when any hotel in HCMC provided the innovative service to customers, all of them are satisfied or even extremely satisfied with this service provider. As a result, providing the innovative service must be the important factor in exceeding customer satisfaction that finally, impacts directly on rewarding customer loyalty and developing the HCMC hotel industry.

Figure 1. The return of customer satisfaction towards their satisfaction
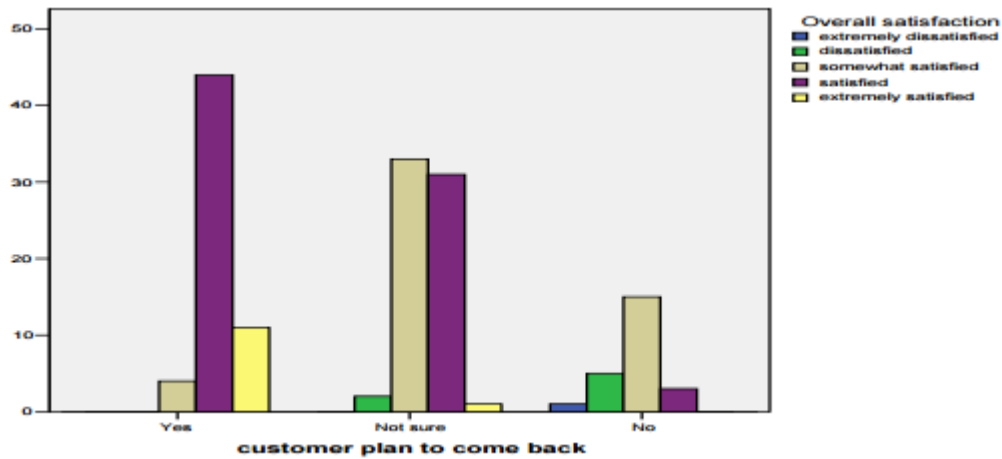


Figure 2. The relationship between customer satisfaction and their willingness to recommend the HCMC hotels to others
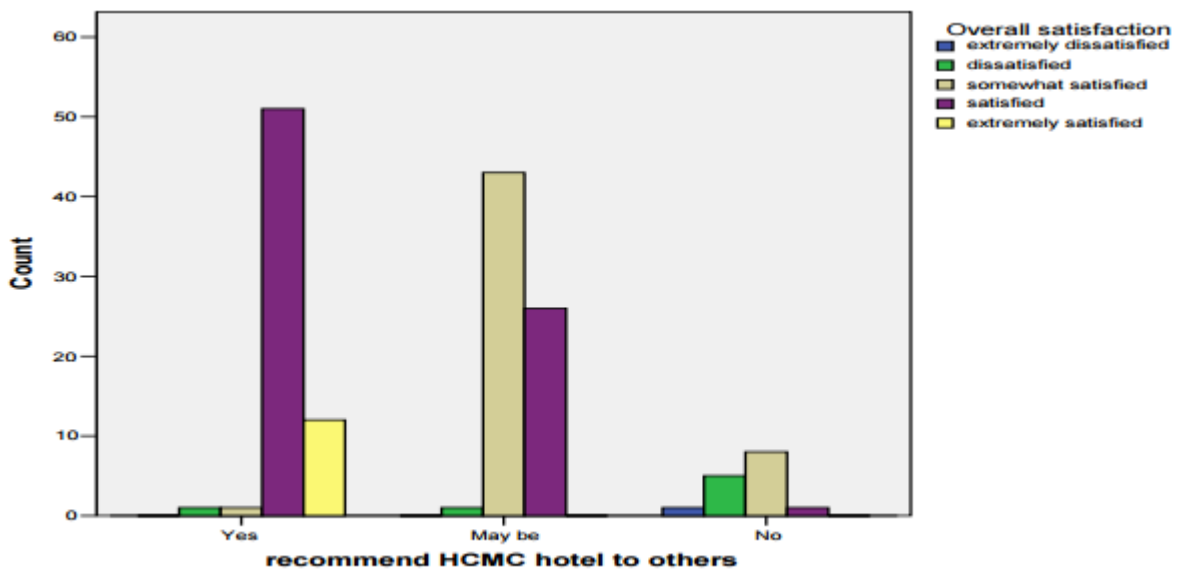


The above bar charts show the plan of customer to return the HCMC hotels in the near future and their willingness to recommend the HCMC hotels to others depends on their satisfaction towards service quality. There is no doubt that in the pace business environment nowadays, most of hospitality organization cannot deny the importance of customer satisfaction in developing their business. According to Allen 2004, the company would be more successful and make more profitability when

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they were able to make customer more satisfied about their service quality. The findings of this research paper have almost agreed with this conclusion when it reconfirmed the non-liar relationship between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty in the HCMC hotel industry. Based on the collected primary data in the questionnaires, if customers are extremely satisfied with the current provided service, they are more   likely to come back and recommend the service providers to others that can contribute the tangible and long-term benefits such as: increasing market share and competitive advantages to that organization.

According to Rust and Zahorik 1993, there are several strategies to increase customer satisfaction in hospitality firms. They are providing relevant training programs to employees, upgrading the facilities, handling the essential information of customer through data system and customer survey. Besides, there is also another strategy to improve customer satisfaction that is measuring the current level of customer satisfaction against established customer satisfaction goals, and then, develop the action plans to change the operation in case goals are not met (Loudon et al 2005). In this paper, researcher has determined three key factors involves in the research questions that can impact directly on exceeding customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty in developing the HCMC hotel industry.

CONCLUSION

Despite of the possible risks of research limitation, there is no doubt that this research paper has contributed to the knowledge of customer satisfaction and customer loyalty that can be applied in developing the service industry in the competitive business environment recently. Researcher has figured out the necessary of applying customer relationship management in a service organization that can provide more personal information of customer characteristic, requirement to optimize business's investment in offering the personalized and expected service to customer. Moreover, the research paper has determined that the prosperous relationship with customers can improve their motivations and behaviors toward the service organization that affect directly on customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Along with building the strong customer relationship management, researcher has also contributed the knowledge to the importance of measuring the current service quality that service organization provides to customer and improving these services through setting up an official representative of hospitality industry. Lastly, the potential impact of providing innovative service has been emphasized in this study in order to delight customer expectation that can increase extremely customer satisfaction and obtain customer loyalty in the future. Therefore, this paper may support service providers to design the appropriate business strategies in order to build a long lasting organization – customer relationship in HCMC hotel industry. The contribution of this research can be applied in any hospitality organization to ensure providing the consistent and outstanding service quality to customers for exceeding customer satisfaction and rewarding customer loyalty.

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# EXPLORING TOURISTS' PERCEPTIONS AND MOTIVATION TO VISIT HOT SPRINGS HOTELS IN JAPAN

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ABSTRACT

Hot springs hotels have been a major tourism attraction in East Asia countries, especially Japan. The aim of this study is to explore foreign tourists' perception of hot springs hotels and motivations to visit. The results suggest that there are differences between foreign and domestic tourists and major attracting factors were identified, including pricing, convenience of transportation and food service and quality. It was also suggested that foreign tourists perceive traditional hot springs hotels to be more exciting and sincere, while modern hot springs hotels are more competent and exciting than domestic tourists.

Key words: Hot Springs Hotel, Japan, Motivation, Personality, Visit Intention

## INTRODUCTION

Hot springs hotels have been a major tourism attraction in East Asia countries like China, Japan, and Taiwan that draws thousands of domestic and international travelers to visit annually (i.e. McMorran, 2008; Lee, 2010; Law & Yip, 2010, Chang & Beise-Zee, 2013). These studies have found that besides the medicinal benefits of hot springs are the main factors that attracts visitor, the leisure aspects of visiting, including local cuisine (i.e. Lin, 2014), social bonding with companions (i.e. Chang & Chen, 2011), and relaxation to be away from daily routine (i.e. Hsieh, 2014), also contribute to influencing visitors' perception of destination and intention to visit (i.e. Chang & Beise-Zee, 2013).

Despite its popularity to domestic and international tourists from Asia, there are limited studies on international tourists from the Western countries regarding their perception of hot springs hotels in Japan. Additionally, hot springs hotels have also evolved into different types, including traditional *onsen* hotels and contemporary *super sento*, in Japan. The former tend to be in the rural countryside that still maintain the traditional facility surrounded by the natural scenery, while the latter often exist in urban area and incorporate modern components that are more similar to a spa. Therefore, the objective of this study is to explore tourists from different regions and their perception and motivation to visit hot springs hotels in Japan. The research questions proposed in this study include: (1) What are tourists' perception of hot springs hotels in Japan? (2) What motivates different tourists to develop the intention to visit hot springs hotels in Japan?

METHODOLOGY

Two groups of individuals from Japan (n=159) and the United States (n=75) were invited to participate in this study by answering a web-based questionnaire. In addition to demographic information, participants were asked to answer travel related items, including the perception and knowledge of hot springs hotels. Subsequently, photographic images of traditional and contemporary hot springs hotels were shown to the participants, and they were asked to evaluate the key factors that may lead to visit intention. Adapting from previous studies related to hospitality businesses, key factors related to the hot springs hotel and its services and products, such as (1) convenience of transportation, (2) pricing, (3) authenticity of atmosphere, (4) food service and quality, (5) lodging facility, are included along with participants' perceived value and intention of visiting the hot springs hotel. Finally, the match between participants' personality characteristics and the hot springs hotel's characteristics were measured to understand the association (i.e. Johnson & Krueger, 2004). Independent samples t-tests was conducted to examine the effects on the hot springs hotel perception.

RESULTS

For the Japanese group, the sample was mostly male (62.9%) in their thirties and forties (39.6%), while the US group was mainly female (76.0%) in late twenties (81.3%). The majority of two groups were employed (78.6%). In the Japanese group, less than 27% of samples did not visit hot springs before; however, more than half of the US samples never visited hot springs before (73.3%)(p<.01). Based on Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality scale, the researcher compared the perception difference between two groups on different hot springs hotels in Japan. The results suggest that the US group perceived the traditional *onsen* hotels are more exciting and sincere than the Japanese group (p<.01). On the other hand, the US group also perceived the modern *super sento* hotels are more competent and exciting than the Japanese group (p< .05). Among major features that tourists may consider when planning to visit a hot spring hotel in Japan, the US group considered more on service quality and other attractions at the destination than their Japanese counterparts (p<.01), but both groups consider pricing, convenience of transportation and food service and quality are important.

CONCLUSION

The results suggest that the US tourists have different perceptions than Japanese tourists when comparing traditional and modern hot springs hotels. The significant difference may be caused by the unfamiliarity of hot springs hotels. However, the study did find that US samples are interested in visiting hot springs hotels in Japan, especially *onsen* hotels. This study also revealed key factors that could attract foreign tourists to visit Japan, such as other attractions at the destination. Regardless their origin, the results also suggest that tourists view pricing, transportation, and food service are major attractions to both domestic and international tourists. Hoteliers may consider the finding from this study and develop new strategies to attract tourists to visit hot springs hotels in Japan.

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# CAN ATTITUDE EXPLAIN BEHAVIORAL INTENTION? – AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF COHORT 60'S INTENTION TO VISIT JAPAN WITHIN HISTORY OF EMOTIONS

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## ABSTRACT

The Chinese inbound market has great economic impacts on the Japanese tourist industry. But recently the history- based Sino-Japan relationship has caused fluctuations in the supply-demand trend. This study explores how Cohort 60's attitude towards Japan affects their intention to visit the country through interviews within the theory of reasoned action. The result is predicted to suggest that history heavily influences Cohort 60's attitude towards Japan. But gender, geographic origin, profession, and level of education may result in various degrees of travel intention. It implies that Japan's destination managers can diversify marketing campaigns towards Cohort 60 based on demographic characteristics.

Key words: Chinese tourists; Generational cohort; Sino-Japan relation; Theory of reasoned action

## INTRODUCTION

As the number of inbound tourists to Japan increases, China has not yielded consistent traffic flows into Japan from year to year. The lack of observable economic model of the supply-demand trend has made it perplexing for business practitioners to sustain growth. The Chinese traffic to Japan are punctuated by nationalism that emerged during the Second World War. Their animosity has been proved threatening to Japan's tourism in the form of declined tour bookings whenever the political tension tightens. Therefore, Japan is in need to understand this complex market, especially those who hold the strongest feelings.

This paper analyzes how history-related attitude of those born in the late Consolidation Era (1961-1965) (namely *Cohort 60*) towards Japan explains their likelihood of visiting the country. Cohort 60's attitude is shaped by childhood memories and education during their early adult life in the Communist China. The political and social influences contributed to their complex emotions towards Japan. Presently, members of Cohort 60 hold decisive positions in all aspects of the Chinese society. Their mindset inevitably impacts the younger generation that will shape the future of the Sino-Japan relationship. Therefore, studying Cohort 60 is significant for Japan's tourist development and promotion of peace in East Asia.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This paper employs the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) as the framework (Figure 1). The theory decomposes attitude as an abstract idea from cognition (beliefs about Japan), affection (feelings towards Japan) and conation (behavioral intention to visit Japan). To enhance the predictive power of the model and to accurately reflect the consumer choice process (Um & Crompton, 1990), two situational variables, geographic origins and current residential locations, are added. Cross-examining Chinese-born US residents (*Cohort-60-US*) and natives living in mainland China (*Cohort-60-CN*), the current study also investigates how these situational variables affect the attitude-behavioral intention consistency.

Figure 1. Attitude and prediction of behavior of Cohort 60's visit to Japan
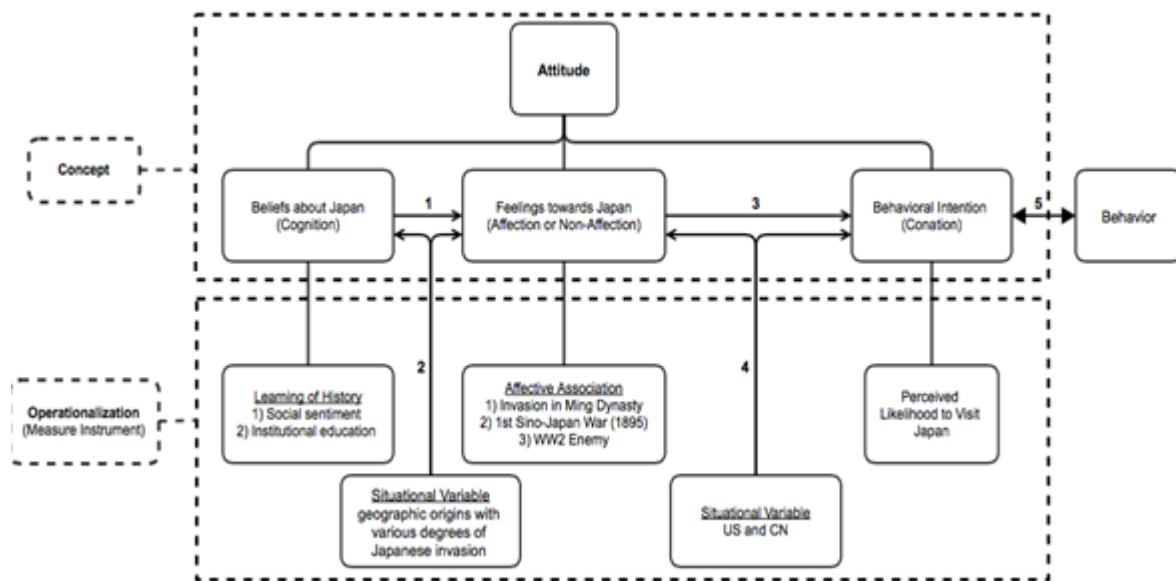


This paper attempts to answer five specific questions corresponding to the relationships in Figure 1:

Relationship 1:
1) How were Cohort 60's beliefs about Japan shaped by childhood education and government-sponsored media?
2) How did Cohort 60's beliefs influence their feelings towards Japan in their earlier years?

Relationship 2:
3) How do Cohort 60's geographic origins make a difference in their beliefs hence feelings towards Japan?

Relationship 3: Feelings and Behavior Intentions
4) How are Cohort 60's feelings consistent with their intentions to visit Japan?

Relationship 4: Feelings and Behavior Intentions with Situational Variable
5) How might moving to the US change the feelings of Cohort-60-US towards Japan?
6) How might the change generate distinct intentions?

Relationship 5: this paper treats Behavior Intention and Behavior as approximate equals because samples include those who have and who have not visited Japan.

METHODS

The study adopts semi-structured interviews to examine Cohort 60's attitudes towards Japan. 26 interviews will be conducted with 13 members of Cohort-60-US and 13 of Cohort-60-CN. The interviews involve two stages. First, Interviewees are asked to provide childhood memories of how they were influenced by the national anti-Japan sentiment at school and in social settings. They are also to describe what feelings towards Japan they generated through these exposures. At this stage, they will also explain how severely their hometowns were invaded by Japanese in WW2. This step is to explain Relationships 1 and 2 to establish the connection between beliefs and feelings with geographic origins as a situational variable. Second, to link feelings with behavior intentions, and to explain Relationships 3 and 4, interviewees are inquired about whether they have traveled to Japan. Those who have not will be given a hypothetical situation, in which all pragmatic concerns are eliminated, and asked of their travel intentions. Those who have traveled will recall the trip planning process and explain how attitudes affected the final decision. At this stage, interviewees of Cohort-60-US will also elaborate on how their feelings have changed after leaving mainland China, and how this change influenced their travel intentions to Japan.

PRELIMINARY INFORMATION FROM PRETEST

The preliminary interviews were conducted with 2 Cohort-60-CN members. Their profiles are listed in Table 1.   Both participants developed early cognition on Japan from two sources during their childhood: stories told by grandparents and war movies. The two sources constructed a "devil image" of Japan, which provoked the fear of Japan. But the fear was only on the individual level. After primary school, the fear was transformed into hate as they received school lessons about the Japanese invasion. Their feelings then became a part of the "national emotion" based on historical evidences depicted by the social institution. The participants' hatred towards Japan was further stabilized in adulthood through increased exposure to government-controlled media. Therefore, Cohort 60's feelings towards Japan were developed linearly against time.

Table 1. Sample profile from pretest

| Participant | Gender | Geographic Origin | Profession |
|---|---|---|---|
| A | Female | Hebei Province | Doctor |
| B | Male | Hebei Province | Business Interpreter |

At the cognition – affection stage, the participants' attitude progressed uniformly. But at the affection – conation stage, situational variables resulted in different behavioral intentions. Participant A expressed interest in visiting Japan for its premium household products. As a mother and wife, she stated that Japanese products would improve the household's quality of life. Also as a doctor, she had a more rational approach towards the Sino-Japan relationship. In comparison, Participant B was more sensitive to the Sino-Japan issues. As a male Chinese, he held resentment towards Japan. He viewed traveling to Japan as only beneficial to the Japanese economy, hence refused to contribute.

IMPLICATIONS

The Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe (2013) delivered a speech in Washington claiming "Japan is back". Many denoted the message as the nation's demand for greater political and military voice globally. However, Abe explicitly expressed the hope for Japan to become "a leading promoter for trade". "Bringing Japan back" also involves reviving Japan's economy. So this study generates a prompt for the Japanese government to consider tourism as an economic drive.

The study directly targets on the sensitive Sino-Japan relationship. With history embedded, it interrogates how conflicts in the past construct people's present behaviors. It explores tourism's role in

the human search for peace. The findings provide valuable information for non-profit organizations and peace-advocates to identify new approaches for their goals. As Asia's revitalization progresses, the continuing acrimony between China and Japan inescapably creates barriers for sustainable growth. A close look at Cohort 60 evokes the general reflection on history for both Chinese and Japanese citizens.

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# SOUVENIR ATMOSPHERICS: IMPLICATIONS FOR RETAILERS IN SMALL CRUISE PORTS

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## ABSTRACT

The concept of 'souvenir atmospherics' is examined as a means of enhancing souvenir merchandising in cruise tourism retail contexts. Cruise passengers on day port calls form a convenient group of highly motivated shoppers for the study of souvenir purchase behaviours in retail settings. Research conducted in three small cruise ports in Barbados, Canada, and New Zealand explored the influence of motivational factors and retail atmospherics on cruise passenger souvenir purchases. Implications for souvenir retailers of 'souvenir atmospherics' are outlined.

Key words: Souvenirs, atmospherics, retail, cruise tourism, purchase behaviour

## INTRODUCTION

Shopping for souvenirs is a popular tourist activity. Tourists seek items that replicate local culture (Cohen, 1988), valuing product attributes (Geuens, et al., 2004; Lehto et al., 2004), portability (small light weight items) (Swanson, 2004) and functionality (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005). Souvenirs are purchased in a range of retail environments (Cave & Buda, 2013) and their purchase incentivised by price, tastings and discounts. Retail atmospherics literature (Baker et al., 2002; Bitner, 1992) suggests store environments influence purchase. Studies have examined purchase motivations and retail contexts of souvenir purchases at destinations (Kong & Chang, 2012; Littrell et al., 1993; Swanson & Horridge, 2006) and in individual cruise ports (Cave et. al., 2012; Douglas & Douglas, 2004; Henthorne, 2000). Small cruise port retailers are particularly vulnerable to competitive conditions and have a limited window in which to attract sales during brief on-shore visits (Cave & Buda, 2013). Thus there is a practical need for retailers to have more information on souvenir purchase motivations aligned with store environments (Swanson, 2004). Turley and Milliman (2000) indicated a need to study the entire shopping atmosphere. Swanson and Timothy (2012) identified the lack of

retail analysis as a gap in tourism souvenir research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Post-modern tourists associate the notions of memento, utilitarian object and souvenir (Cave & Buda, 2013) with global mobility. The need for souvenirs may be immediate as in purchasing a gift, obtaining a memento of place (Cave et al., 2013), or sourcing a decorative item for one's own home (Littrell et al., 1994). After possession, items may take on other meanings (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005) and act as triggers of memories. Types of souvenirs purchased by tourists vary widely, as evidenced by Gordon's (1986) classification which encompasses 'pictorial image', 'piece-of-the-rock' 'symbolic shorthand', 'markers' and 'local' souvenirs. According to Lury (1997) 'traveller-objects' are characterised by authenticated reference to place (and culture) of origin including nationally significant objects, religious and historical icons, artwork and handicrafts. 'Tripper objects' refer more to the nature of the journey and the final resting place of the object. 'Tourist objects' are globally cosmopolitan "mediatised and mutually authenticating images and mobile objects" (Lury, 1997 p.80) acquired within the process or anticipation of travelling. The term 'souvenir' denotes a 'specific object for tourists' since global movement of people also engenders mobility of objects (Urry, 2000) beyond materiality and identity (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005). Kotler (1973) defined retail 'atmospherics' as the effort to design buying environments that enhance consumer purchase probability. Both Bitner (1992) and Baker et al. (2002) examined various theories in an attempt to generate a framework of understanding for atmospherics. Bitner (1992) noted a lack of research on the role of physical surroundings in consumption settings. Baker (1986) discussed the concepts of ambience, design, and social factors in atmospherics, however Baker et al. (2002) coined the term 'store environment', suggesting that elements of Kotler's research on 'atmospherics' and Bitner's research on 'service or social factors' be combined in a conceptual framework in which ambient, design and social factors directly influence purchase behaviour. Together these theories imply that consumers attend to complex environmental cues when evaluating stores, believing that such signals offer reliable information about product-related attributes and overall shopping experience.

The concept of 'souvenir atmospherics' integrating souvenir motivations with retail atmospherics was proposed by Cave et al. (2014) as an explanatory framework for intrepreting on-shore souvenir purchase behaviour, in cruise ports. That research identified the most important influencer of 'souvenir atmospherics' was ambience (including window design). Less significant, but still important were the aspects of retail layout and design. Previous studies of cruise passenger purchases focused on individual ports. Henthorne's (2000) study of cruise passenger buying habits in Jamaica, determined salesperson attitude influenced spending. Local shopping facilities availability influenced shore-based passenger spending on small Pacific Islands (Douglas & Douglas, 2004). Cave et al. (2012) reported on cruise passenger purchases in a small Caribbean port, noting retail ambience affected purchase intentions.

METHODOLOGY

This study compares cruise passenger souveniring and retail contexts across three small cruise ports. Specific determinants were: demography, souvenir characteristics and aesthetics (Gordon, 1986), purchasing behaviour, attributions about quality and price (Baker et al., 2002), material considerations (size and weight), functional use at home (Morgan & Pritchard, 2005) and store environments (Baker et al., 2002). Lury's (1997) globalised traveller, tripper and tourist categories were considered but rejected, in case compounded error was introduced by re-interpreting data collected by several researchers in separate locations. The hypotheses noted in Figure 1 are that:

H1: Souvenir purchase has a positive relationship with, and is determined by the characteristics

and attitude of souvenir salespeople, sellers/retailers

H2: Souvenir purchase has a positive relationship with, and is determined by the setting/level of store environment H3: Souvenir purchase has a positive relationship with, and is determined by souvenir aesthetics

H4: Souvenir purchase has a positive relationship with, and is determined by the monetary incentives to purchase an item

H5: Souvenir purchase has a positive relationship with, and is determined by the materiality of the souvenir

A model to diagram potential interactions and a questionnaire were designed to explore the resulting hypotheses (Figure 1). The value of this research is in the comparison between ports and the combined dataset empirical analysis.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Field research was conducted in Bridgetown, Barbados, Saint John (Canada) and Tauranga in the Bay of Plenty, New Zealand. A random sample of 589 cruise tourists (Bridgetown 100, Saint John 219, Tauranga, 270) was interviewed, using a common survey during respective cruise seasons in 2011, 2012 and 2013. A 7 point Likert-type scale, '1- Least important' to '7- Most important' was adopted to assess the import of each dimension of souvenir purchase, store environment and souvenir characteristics. The attributes in each dimension were developed from the literature. Thus, souveniring for personal need was assessed on the basis of social attributes (personal need, suggestion from family, and home display) Similarly ambience, layout and design, social and servicescape were used for store environment; and souvenir characteristics included attractiveness, quality, authenticity, weight, etc. Scales were used to determine which factors were more important in the retailing of souvenirs and to identify specific features from small port souvenir retail contexts. A previous paper contained a descriptive analysis identifying the study sample in terms of social demographics (Cave et al., 2014). For this paper, assessments of skewness and kurtosis, m-estimators and histograms were conducted as well as data screening using the box-plot method to ensure no violations of the assumptions of normality and correlation. The β parameters show the effect of the explanatory variables on the logarithm of the probability ratio, together with a positive coefficient, which indicates a greater probability of a higher mark being awarded for the dependent variable. In other words, $R^2$ was used to assess overall predictive fit of the model (Figure 2). The multiple regression equation is:

$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \dots \beta_n X_n + \varepsilon$. For this research, the equation thus reads:

Souvenir purchase = $\beta_0$ + x1 Salespeople (S) + x2 Store environment (SE) + x3 Aesthetics (A) + x4 Incentives (I) + x5 Materiality (M) + e1

Ordinary least squares (OLS) and stepwise regression were used to test each hypothesis; these techniques are suitable for this comparative data since there are no time invariant independent variables (Thrane, 2012). Data should meet certain requirements for multiple regression to be performed. Firstly, the ratio of cases to independent variables should be at least 20 times more than the predictors, a condition met here with data collected from 589 respondents across 3 ports. Secondly, the differences between the obtained and predicted dependent variables scores should be normally distributed and the residuals (independent variables) have a linear relationship with the predicted dependent variable scores. Residual scatter plot and residual normal plots confirmed assumptions. Thirdly, the independent variables must not be significantly correlated with each other to avoid multi-collinearity or auto- correlation, ensuring values are independent of each other. Multivariate outliers or extreme cases that might impact the regression solution were detected with the Mahalanobis Distance statistical test (chi-square) and deleted or modified to reduce their influence. Tests of the reliability and validity of the sample indicated a very high level of internal reliability for the whole scale of 20 items (Cronbach's alpha, 0.86). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) score was 0.78 and the Bartlett Test of Sphericity equalled 11140.44

(*p*<0.001). Together, these showed that the sample was adequate and the dataset appropriate for subsequent analysis. This paper tests empirically whether the concept of 'souvenir atmospherics' is soundly based, or merely putative. The factor analysis results clearly show attributes group into five clusters. The clusters align well with the model (Figure 1) confirming statistically the existence of relationships between the variables (in five iterations). The closeness and distance of relationships within the clusters, identified by communality values (the most relevant approach 1.0) refine the emphases and internal structure of the model.

Table 1. Explanatory variables for souvenir purchases at three small ports (N=589)

| Attributes | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Communality |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Factor 1: Aesthetics (A)* | | | | | | |
| Domestic display | .797 | | | | | 0.760 |
| Window display | .783 | | | | | 0.747 |
| Authenticity | .757 | | | | | 0.623 |
| Exotic and different | .653 | | | | | 0.572 |
| Attractiveness | .614 | | | | | 0.569 |
| *Factor 2: Store environment (SE)* | | | | | | |
| Easy to move within store | | .808 | | | | 0.733 |
| Layout of store | | .792 | | | | 0.718 |
| Visibility of staff | | .774 | | | | 0.682 |
| Ambience (lighting, colour, music) | | .710 | | | | 0.636 |
| How staff are dressed | | .655 | | | | 0.542 |
| Location | | .640 | | | | 0.573 |
| *Factor 3: Incentives (I)* | | | | | | |
| Price | | | .851 | | | 0.789 |
| Available fund | | | .823 | | | 0.738 |
| Sales incentives(discounts) | | | .713 | | | 0.586 |
| Family suggestions | | | .567 | | | 0.462 |
| *Factor 4: Materiality (M)* | | | | | | |
| Weight | | | | .942 | | 0.932 |
| Size | | | | .938 | | 0.938 |
| Quality of souvenir | | | | .705 | | 0.616 |
| *Factor 5: Salesperson (S)* | | | | | | |
| Knowledgeable sales persons | | | | | .886 | 0.885 |
| Attitude of sales persons | | | | | .872 | 0.831 |

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. A. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

The first factor, aesthetics (A) prioritises souvenir items appeal with home display possibilities and the store window display. The authenticity of the object, difference from the respondent's culture and attractiveness, enhance souvenir appeal and increase purchase likelihood. Linkages between the variables, as indicated by the communality values are highest for the display components. The second factor, store environment (SE) includes physical items. Ease of movement within the store, then store layout are the most important items affecting purchases made. The visibility of staff and overall store ambience follow in order of importance. The way staff are dressed and store location are the least important dimensions in the group. The third cluster, incentives (I) is made up of closely linked elements of price and available funds. Sales incentives such as discounts are less important, as are the suggestions of family members, although these are not primary decision factors. Materiality (M), the fourth factor, shows that

material aspects of the items (weight, size, quality are related decision criteria). The last grouping, salespeople (S), refers to knowledgeability and attitudes of staff. Both materiality and salespeople were highly correlated but of lesser importance to overall souvenir purchase decision, when compared to the other factors. Thus far, the cluster analysis has reduced to five the range of possible explanatory variables that might affect souvenir purchases: aesthetics, store environment, incentives, materiality and salespeople. Prioritised relationships between the variables suggested in the model (Figure 1) can at this point be modified, since the clusters point to the fact that aesthetic considerations are uppermost in the minds of souvenir shoppers. However the physical store environment is also important. Incentivising monetary items (price/available funds/family opinions) and functional variables (size/weight/quality) are of lesser importance overall, but nonetheless tightly linked with each other as deciding factors. Salesperson knowledge and attitude can make or break the sale. Collectively these lend support to the idea of 'souveniring atmospherics' and point to an underlying structure (hierarchy) of variables. Taken as a whole, the progression of results may replicate a hierarchy of decision factors supporting the notion of 'souvenir atmospherics' as an influencer of souvenir purchase behaviour. Imagine a cruise tourist, with limited time on-shore, attracted or not attracted to a retail setting, to pause, engage in a peripheral way with the interior, be incentivised to engage further, weigh up the materiality of the item, then the sale is completed or not. Multiple regression anlsysis determined which of the 20 variables within the 5 factors are the most influential predictors of souvenir purchase. It was used to examine the cruise tourists' personal purchase with attributes of products and shop atmospherics. The dependent variable (personal purchase) was regressed against each of the independent variables (20 items) using stepwise regression. The potential for auto-correlation and multi-collinearity among the predictor variables was assessed using the Durbin-Watson statistic and those for Tolerance and the Variance Inflation Factor. Table 2 shows 'goodness-of-fit' statistics for the regression model. The Durbin-Watson statistic is close to 2.0 (at 1.716) which rejects auto-correlation.

Table 2. Model 'goodness-of-fit' (N=589)

| Model | R | $R^2$ | Adjusted $R^2$ | SE | Durbin-Watson |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | .387[e] | 0.149 | 0.142 | 1.72977 | 1.716 |
| Analysis of variance ANOVA | Sum of squares | df | Mean square | F | sig |
| Regression | 301.634 | 5 | 60.327 | 20.162 | .000[e] |
| Residual | 1717.461 | 574 | 2.992 | | |
| Total | 2019.094 | 579 | | | |

Independent variables: 20 variables. Dependent Variable: Souvenir purchases.

The model examined souvenir purchase decisions. Only four of the 20 possible influencing variables were significant, accounting for 39% of the variation (R = 0.387e). These were: available funds, location of the store, souvenir quality and window display (Table 3). None of the other 16 were statistically significant so are not included. Four variables were statistically significant (p< 0.001). These support Hypotheses 2, 3, 4 and 5 that store environment positively influenced souvenir purchases (SE), aesthetic attributes (A) and incentives (I). However, the hypotheses concerning the influence of salesperson characteristics and materiality were not statistically significant and therefore rejected as predictive variables, although from factor analysis they play influencing roles.

The beta coefficient is highest for 'available funds' (0.248, part of the incentives cluster), indicating the item is the strongest predictor of change amongst the group. All of the beta values are positive, confirming 'store location', a store environment variable (SE), 'souvenir quality' (also an incentives item) and 'window display', an aesthetics variable (A) are good predictors of souvenir purchasing activities. Acceptable tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) scores

verify that these variables interact independently and are not multi-collinear. VIF measures how much a variable contributes to standard error in the regression and in this case, potential contributions are very small; close to 1.0. Briefly, the model summary, which emerges from these results, is that:

$$\text{Souvenir purchase} = 1.723 + 0.205\ SE + 0.142\ A + 0.259\ I + 0.169\ M + e1$$

Table 3. Regression results for souvenir purchase (all independent variables)

| Independent variable | Dependent variable: Souvenir Purchase | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized coefficients | t | P (sig) | Collinearity statistics | |
| | B | SE | Beta | | | Tolerance | VIF |
| (Constant) | 1.723 | 0.422 | | 4.084 | 0.000 | | |
| Available funds (Factor I) | 0.259 | 0.041 | 0.248 | 6.351 | 0.000 | 0.970 | 1.031 |
| Store location (Factor SE | 0.205 | 0.053 | 0.162 | 3.856 | 0.000 | 0.844 | 1.185 |
| Souvenir quality (Factor M) | 0.169 | 0.052 | 0.132 | 3.273 | 0.001 | 0.905 | 1.105 |
| Window display (Factor A) | 0.142 | 0.047 | 0.127 | 3.042 | 0.002 | 0.850 | 1.176 |

Note: 16 variables were not significant, excluded from this table.

This research then shows that the cluster and regression analyses are congruent but that not all of the hypotheses are supported. Figure 1 indicates direction of confirmation for each hypothesis as seen in Table 3.

Figure 1. Determinants of souvenir purchase decisions
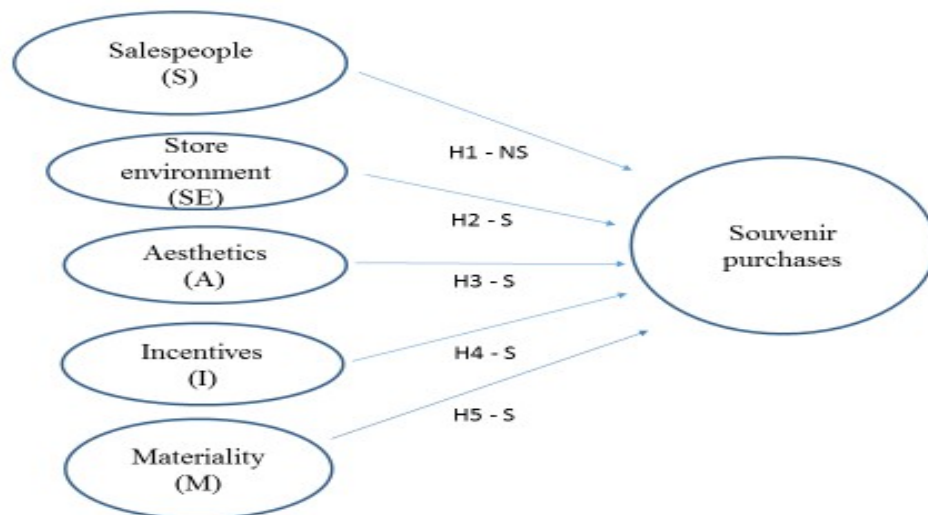


*Hypothesis 1*, salespeople (S) characteristics (knowledge/attitude) is not supported as a positive influence upon souvenir purchases made by cruise tourists. This finding differs from research on Taiwanese tourist shopping behaviours in China (Chang et. al., 2006) where enthusiastic salespeople motivated diverse purchases, but may reflect a cruise retail service environment gap.

*Hypothesis 2*, store environment (SE) plays an important role. Store location is an influential predictor, second only to available funds. Thus proximity to the cruise (dis)embarcation point is critical to enabling souvenir purchase. The addition of effectively designed in-store environments (easy circulation, interior layout, visibility, staff /physical appearance), and store ambience (lighting, colour and music),   all encourage souvenir purchases. *Hypothesis 3*, that aesthetics (A) have positive effects upon souvenir purchase is borne out strongly by findings. This research shows window displays play a significant predictive role in souvenir purchase decisions. Factor analysis indicates the relevance of home display, since items play important social roles (re)telling the travel experiences. This analysis confirms that authenticity, exoticism and attractiveness motivate cruise tourists to buy souvenirs. Authenticity in terms of material, local culture and makers has been noted (Cohen, 1988; Trinh et al., 2014). Attractiveness harks back to the aesthetics of domestic and retail window display. Indeed Hypotheses 2 and 3 may combine to draw people into the store or encourage them to walk by. *Hypothesis 4*, incentives (I) as the primary determinant of souvenir purchase has the highest beta weight in the model. Availability of funds can make or break the sale. Cost-savings can affect tourist purchases (Jansen-Verbeke, 1994). *Hypothesis 5*, that purchases are affected by material variables (weight, size, quality) of the (SP) is supported. Souvenir quality is a key influencing attribute. To conclude, the hierarchy of predictors for cruise tourists souvenir purchases suggested in Figure 1 should be altered to a progression of; available funds; store location; souvenir quality; window display.

CONCLUSION

The research objective was to investigate cruise tourists buying behaviour and its effects by characteristics of products, sales persons/retailers and shop atmosphere at small ports. Four determinants of souvenir shopping behaviours of cruise tourists are in priority order; incentives, store environment, materiality and aesthetics. In particular, availability of funds and shop location (most important factor pair), and souvenir quality determined purchase behaviours. Findings may reflect the time-constrained reality of cruise tourism. Convenient location and window display attractiveness are critical to purchase choices. Tourists are likely to select souvenirs with 'aesthetic' rather than 'authentic' appeal. Sellers should make product quality-oriented sales decisions as value for money balances cost with quality and aesthetic appeal. Informal retailers might provide alternative payment methods for tourists to access funds. Cruise tourists are more likely to be satisfied with purchasing encountering high quality products at 'reasonable' prices. The concept of 'souvenir atmospherics' as a set of influencing parameters for souvenir purchases appears to be valid. Research may look further at aesthetics and material aspects of souvenirs as influencing the product mix and variety of souvenir types for retailers.

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# THE ROLE OF COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE ATTITUDE ON LOCAL SEAFOOD PURCHASE INTENTION OF TOURIST COUPLES VISITING SOUTH CAROLINA COAST

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ABSTRACT

Food became one of the main marketing tool for destinations to differentiate themselves from competitors. Each destination has its own unique food item which is usually turned into a competitive advantage in tourism market. Since the main aim of marketing efforts is to increase demand for local food among tourists, the research on the perception of local food among tourists has gained importance. The purpose of this study is to aid this effort by increasing knowledge on tourist attitude towards local seafood.

Key words: Local food, attitude, intention, impulsiveness, couples.

INTRODUCTION

Utilization of local food in tourism industry creates positive impacts on tourism destinations by involving local community to tourism activity and increasing their share from the tourism revenue (Du Rand, Heath & Alberts, 2003; Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Torres, 2002). Collaboration between agriculture and tourism industries will aid sustainable tourism development by preserving the unique aspects of region and local culture (Knowd, 2006; Che, Veeck, &Veeck, 2005; Barbieri & Mshenga, 2008). Two main industries in coastal areas of South Carolina are aquaculture and tourism industries. Aquacultured and wildcaught seafood are two local food sources that has been offered to the tourists. Aquaculture activities are essential for a region to prevent the depletion of natural resources. However, negative attitude towards aquacultured seafood and aquaculture activity were found in many studies (Primavera, 2006; Mazur & Curtis, 2008; Nimmo, Cappell, Huntington, & Grant, 2011).Encouraging people to consume aquacultured seafood will help local economy and protection of natural environment. Assessing the public perception on aquacultured and wildcaught seafood will be useful to create better strategies for positioning the positive image of aquaculture in tourists' minds. This study aims to provide information on tourist attitude towards aquacultured and wild caught seafood and their intention to purchase local seafood. The conceptual framework to understand this relationship was created based on three predictors of local food purchase intention: 1) cognitive attitude, 2) affective attitude and 3) impulsiveness.

METHODS

The study population was the mixed gender couples visiting Charleston, Beaufort and Hilton Head Island in South Carolina. 380 questionnaires were collected in the first three weekends of October 2014 from 190 tourist couples. The response rate was 67%. Questionnaires were handed to couples who stated that they are visitors and eat oysters.

RESULTS

Single level and multilevel structural equation models were used to analyze the relationships between variables at individual and couple level. Single level (CFI=.918, RMSEA=.064) and multi-level models show good fit indices (CFI=.927, RMSEA=.067). Results show that positive cognitive attitude has significant influence on intention to purchase wildcaught oysters (B=.19) and negative cognitive attitude does not have any influence. On the other hand affective attitude has significant influence on intention at both positive (B=.42) and negative way (B=-.10). In terms of aquacultured oysters, there is no positive or negative influence of cognitive attitude on intention and affective attitude has only positive significant influence on intention (B=.42). Impulsiveness has no significant moderating impact on this relationship for wildcaught and aquacultured oysters. The results of multi-level model indicate that age has positive influence on intention to purchase aquacultured oysters at level 2 (B=.14). As age of couples increase their intention to purchase aquacultured oysters increase. Figure 1 demonstrates the regression coefficients for each relationship for wildcaught and aquacultured oysters, at level 1 and level 2.

Figure 1. Regression coefficients at Level 1 and Level 2
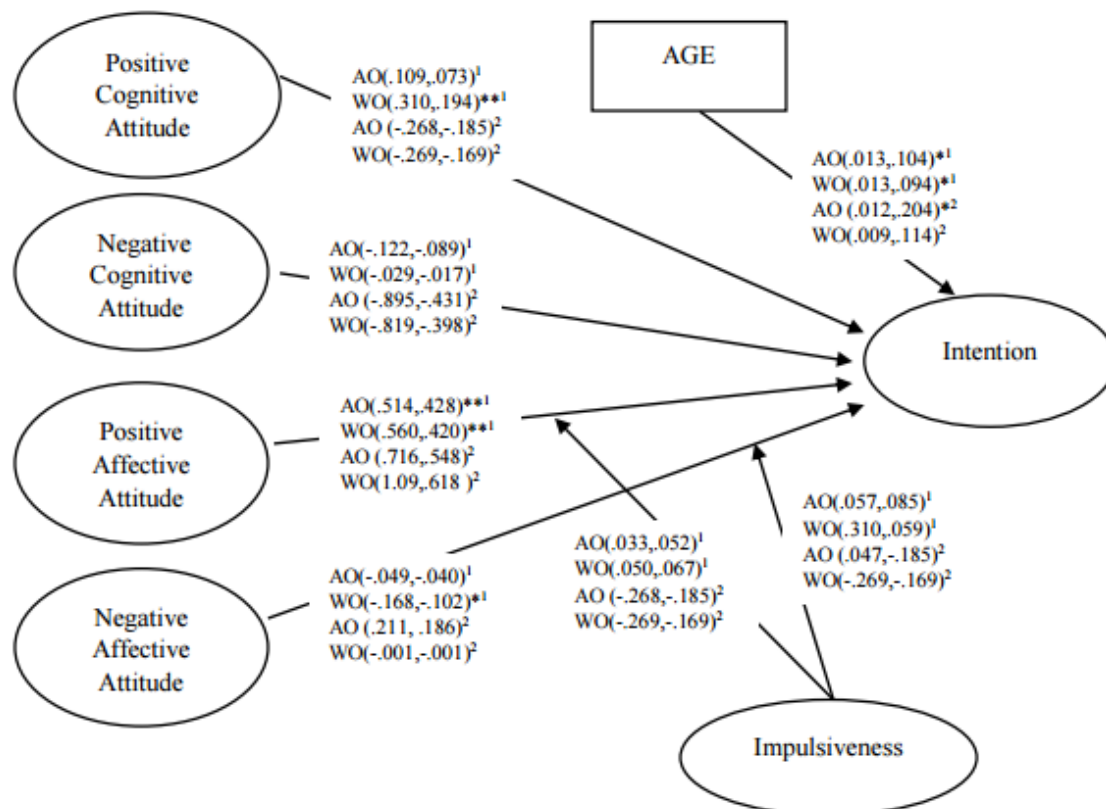


Note: (Standardized, Unstandardized Coefficients), *p-value is significant at .05 level, **p-value is significant at .001 level, [1] level 1, [2] level 2.

## DISCUSSION

The significant influence of positive cognitive attitude and positive affective attitude on intention to purchase wildcaught oysters shows that while making food decisions tourists are driven by positive thoughts and feelings. Positive affective attitude has higher regression coefficient (B=.420) than positive cognitive attitude (B=.194) which means that feelings are more influential than thoughts while making food decisions during travel. In terms of negative attitude, negative feelings are more important than negative thoughts in intention to purchase wildcaught oysters. The case is different for the aquacultured oysters, as only positive affective attitude has influence on intention to purchase aquacultured oysters. The reason for this is that many people do not have enough knowledge on aquacultured oysters, but they have positive feelings about it which influence their intention to purchase. To increase the knowledge of aquacultured seafood, local tourism bureaus should organize informational tours by collaborating the local producers. In this way tourists can develop a positive attitude towards aquacultured seafood, which will increase their intention to purchase it. This will encourage local restaurants and hotels to buy aquacultured seafood directly from producers and sell them under their brand name. Age has influence on intention to purchase aquacultured oysters at couple level. Couples' attitude do not influence each other while making food decisions, however the age of couples has influence on intention to purchase aquacultured oysters at couple level. Older couples tend to have higher intention to purchase aquacultured oysters compared to younger couples, as they may have more awareness of the positive impact of aquaculture on the environment.

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# PERCEPTIONS AND BARRIERS TO CRUISE HOLIDAYS: FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF MAINLAND TRAVELERS

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## ABSTRACT

The cruise industry has been one of the fastest-growing sectors of the international tourism industry with tremendous growth potential. With the rapid expansion of the mainland cruise market, it is critical for cruise operators to understand the perceptions of mainland travelers toward the cruise holidays. This research is to identify how mainland Chinese cruise goers perceive cruise holidays and the barriers that prevent them from taking them. In general, the respondents perceive cruise holidays as a sea-based leisure activity; seasickness, expensive price, boredom and confinement are perceived to be the biggest barriers to cruising. Suggestions are made to cruise industry practitioners.

Key words: Perceptions; Barriers; Cruise Holidays; Mainland Chinese Travelers

## INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, demand for cruising across the world has increased 77% from 12 million to 21.3 million passengers which generated $117 billion to economy. It is estimated to reach 21.7 million passengers in 2014 (CLIA, September 15, 2014). China, the biggest country in Asia, which has a long and sinuous coastline, plenty of islands and peninsulas is considered a new paradise for cruise holidays. According to the ASKCI (July 9, 2014), the scale of the mainland cruise market has been increased by 103% in 2013 with an increase of 20% of the domestic tourist arrivals to 1.4 million. It is also estimated that the mainland cruise passengers will reach 4.5 million in 2020. These findings have made it integral for the cruise operators to understand the perceptions of mainland travelers toward the cruise industry. Besides, over 74% of cruise passengers in Hong Kong (exclude HKSAR residents) come from Mainland China (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2013). Therefore, understanding the mainland Chinese travelers' perceptions towards the cruise holidays is vitally important for Hong Kong tourism industry.

The cruise industry is becoming increasingly competitive, thus understanding mainland travelers' perceptions   toward cruise holiday is one of the keys to marketing success of cruise companies. Without doubt, it is important for cruise management to better understand their visitors' perceptions as well. Previous researches mainly focus on the North America and the Asia Pacific market. No particular researches have shed light on the mainland Chinese markets. Before rushing into this market, service providers, travel agencies and government authorities must have an understanding on the perceptions of mainlanders toward cruise holidays and the barriers from taking cruise holidays. Besides, for those potential cruise goers, their expectations of cruise holidays should be uncovered so that effective marketing strategies can be carefully concocted to attract them. In addition, government authorities can use this information to construct necessary infrastructure for cruise tourism development. The study objectives are to   identify how mainland Chinese perceives cruise holidays and their perceived barriers from taking cruise holidays.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Petrick (2004) found that perceived value and quality are antecedents of cruise passengers' satisfaction in the prediction of repurchase behavior. Petrick, Tonner and Quinn (2006) also revealed that cruise lines succeed in providing service, offer desirable dining experience and having talented staff/crew. However, negative incidents which affect cruise passengers' satisfaction and perceived value of cruise holiday are relating to cruise lines policies and procedures, vessel facilities, and excursions and ports of call though they are not very influential. It is also found that negative incidents. Some researches in the area of cruise aimed at understanding how travelers make decisions. For example, Petrick, Li and Park (2007) opined that cruise goers must decide whether or not to take a holiday, where to go, which cruise line to travel on and which ship from that line to choose.

*Perceptions toward Cruise Holidays*

Cruise holiday offers travelers a chance to relax and unwind in comfortable surroundings with attentive services, good food (Lotus Tours Limited, 1995). In order to unravel the perceptions which mainland consumers hold toward cruise holidays, it is rather helpful to find out how people generally perceive cruise holidays in a well-developed market as a reference.

The first and most obvious perception people hold toward cruise holidays may be the same as toward other leisure activities. Like Berger (2004) mentioned that cruise offer distractions and diversions which direct people escape from the worries and anxieties. Cruises are designed to provide activities for people from morning to evening. It is easy to become immersed in activities and forget about troubles. He also pointed out that cruising can be seen as an escape attempt – a means of breaking out of the routines that dominated the lives. Qu and Wong (1999) further explored this perception by examining the Hong Kong cruise travelers' profile, motivation factors, and satisfaction level. They also assessed the important determinants and the probability of cruise travelers joining cruise travel again. The results revealed that the major motivation factors were "escape from normal life", "social gathering", and "beautiful environment and scenery." The second perception people possess would be a sense of accomplishment. People who go to sea can feel a mild sense of accomplishment about taking a cruise and being at sea. This feeling of accomplishment, of having braved the sea, is probably unconscious, but it still exists (Berger, 2004). The third   public perception should be attributed to the movie industry. Because the vast majority of holidaymakers have not been on a cruise, they do not know what to expect from one. Instead, they form their opinions from other people's view, old movies (Dickinson and Vladimir, 1997). Krieger, Moskowitz and Rabino (2005) used conjoint analysis to investigate what customers want from a cruise holiday and found that cruise passengers cannot usually confirm promises made by a cruise provider prior to the purchase. The image of cruise and its expectations based on perceptions are crucial to cruise providers. This situation very much fits the

status quo in mainland China since there are very few cruise goers in China. People may probably tantamount cruise lines to "The Love Boat", as Dickinson and Vladimir (1997) mentioned in their book, due to the movie *Titanic*.

*Psychoanalytic Interpretation of Cruising*

It is generally believed that consumers attempt to preserve or enhance their self-images by selecting products and brands with "images" or "personalities" that they believe are congruent with their own self-images and avoiding products that are not (Schiffman & Wisenblit, 2015). For some socially enhancing or socially conspicuous products, they might be guided by their social self-image (how consumers feel others see them), which includes the cruise holidays.

*Barriers of Taking Cruise Holidays*

In Dickinson and Vladimir's (1997) research, people who did not cruise share similar perceived obstacles toward cruise holidays. The most distinct barrier is the price. One-third of the interviewees thought cruise holidays is too expensive. Other major barriers include: seasickness, boredom and confinement. These barriers reflect consumers' perceived functional, physical, and financial risks. Berger (2004) also pointed out that these barriers are more like prejudices; and they were gradually rectified. Except for those who really do get seasick even when the ship is docked at the pier, however, this problem is unfortunately amplified by the sea-based characteristic of the cruise holidays. Unlike physical products, services cannot be seen, tasted, felt, heard, or smelled before they are purchased (Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 2014). An example would be: A customer who is dissatisfied by the second day of a ten-day cruise has few options available other than putting up with the inconvenience and choosing not to use the cruise line in the future (Ahmed, Johnson, Chew, Tan & Ang, 2002).

To conclude, there are some gaps in the existing literatures. Due to cultural and financial differences, the general perception and psychological traits of mainland Chinese toward cruise holidays may vary from their American counterparts. The demographic statistics are also heterogeneous because of the different economic environment and the population configuration. No previous researches have ever shed light on the mainland Chinese's perceptions toward the cruise holidays.

METHODS

Primary data on the perceptions of mainland Chinese consumers toward cruise holidays and respondents' demographic information were collected by questionnaires. Since the aim of this research is about perceptions, respondents were asked to subjectively express their true feelings. In Part 1 of the questionnaire, some generic and non-threatening peripheral questions are asked. In Part 2, questions about the perceptions of travelers and perceived barriers towards cruising were included. An open-ended question asking their word association of 'cruise holiday' was also included. The final part of the questionnaire asked about respondents' demographic information on gender, age, education level, occupation, income, family status and the number of companions. Quota and convenience sampling method was adopted. Self-administered questionnaires were dispensed to 300 respondents in two cruise Terminals which are the Kai Tak Cruise terminal on 23 February 2014 and the Ocean Terminal on 19, 23 and 26 April 2014.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A summary of the demographic profile of the respondents, descriptive statistics of the respondents' perceptions and attitudes towards cruise holidays are presented.

*Demographic Profiles of the Respondents*

A total of 300 questionnaires were successfully completed and all of the data collected were valid. About 90% of the respondents feel good (76%) or very good (15%) about their last cruise holidays.

The sample included 95 males (32%) and 205 females (68%). Around one-third (37%) of the respondents earn less than 5,000RMB (Reminbi) per month. Forty-four percent of the respondents earn between 5,001RMB to 10,000RMB and the other remaining 19% earn more than 10,001RMB per month. More than two-thirds (69%) of the respondents have attained high school or above level of education. The age of the respondents varies from 18 to 65 or above. Fifty-six percent of the respondents are between 25 and 44 with almost half of this population being split into 15-34 and 34-44, 11% of the respondents are between 18 and 24, 12% are between 45 and 54, 16% are between 55 and 64 and only 4% are 65 or above. One-third of the respondents (33%) are single, 21% of the respondents are married without children, and 34% of the overall respondents have their children living with them. More of half (60%) of the respondents were travelling with their couple or family, 36% were traveling with interest group or friends and 4% were solo travel.

*The Necessity of the Activities and Facilities*

A total of 12 activities / facilities perceived by the 300 respondents should be included in a cruise holiday and ship besides the provision of accommodation and food and beverage. Shore excursion (28%) and casino (22%) were perceived as the most important facilities. Spa (15%) and ballroom (14%) were also mentioned frequently. On the contrary, live show (8%), gymnasia (7%), and dispensary (5%) are not attractive to them. Free Wi-Fi (13%) was mentioned mostly from respondents which reflect the travelers want the free Internet service nowadays which also echoes the Internet wave.

*Perceptions of the Cruise Holidays*

When the respondents were asked about their feelings toward the cruise holidays in an open-ended question, eight key words were mentioned most. They are: "leisure" (36), "gambling" (12), "comfort" (9), "luxury" (9), "sightseeing" (8), "ocean" (40), "money" (50) and "food and beverage" (7). Words like "leisure", "comfort", "ocean", "sightseeing" and "food and beverage" reflect the nature of the cruise holidays, while words like "comfort", "luxury", "money", and "gambling" describes the respondents' actual feelings toward the cruise holidays.

Combining the results of the respondents' general feelings toward the cruise holidays with the results in the open-ended question, their perceptions toward the cruise holidays can be further elaborated as eight distinctive attributes: luxury (41%), romantic (32%), exotic (20%), attractive (19%), remote (19%), money (17%), ocean (13%), and leisure (12%). Nevertheless, it is interesting to see that 'gambling' was mentioned in twelves' responses which best describes the 'gambling' habit of the mainland Chinese. This is consistent with the fact that majority of the travelers visiting Macau (a gambling city) are from mainland China.

*Barriers to Cruise Holiday*

Six potential barriers including seasickness, boredom, confinement, too expensive, negative word-of-mouth, and feeling unsafe were identified. Two hundreds and one respondents rated 'seasickness' as the barriers with 96 out of which indicated it as the biggest barrier. This finding is different from Dickinson and Vladimir's (1997) research on American potential cruise travelers, which indicated that the most distinct barrier was the price. So, there is a perceptive difference between the potential cruise travelers in mainland China and in American. Since this barrier is due to the sea-based idiosyncrasy of the cruise holidays, those seasick customers' perceptions cannot be altered by actually experiencing a

cruise holidays, according to Dickinson and Vladimir (1997). The second and the third barriers perceived by respondents are the boredom and confinement respectively. This may due to the nature of cruise holidays of confining passengers on a cruise ship during the whole journey which may lead to the perception of feeling 'bored'.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

While it is difficult to generalize the results of the present study, it is believed that they offer new insights into the perception of mainland travelers toward cruise holidays. The mainland travelers perceive cruise holidays as a sea-based leisure activity containing the following eight distinctive attributes: luxury, romantic, exotic, attractive, remote, ocean, money and leisure. As to the biggest barriers that prevent people from cruising, three impediments stand out, which are: seasickness, expensive price, boredom and confinement. 'Shore excursion' and 'casino' were wanted by the respondents. Majority of the respondents perceived cruise holidays as 'luxury', 'romantic' and 'exotic'. Various strategies can be formulated to meet potential customers' needs and tackle the problems they will meet when taking the cruise holidays.

In light of the analysis of the perceptions and attitudes of mainland travelers toward the cruise holidays, several strategies can be formulated when developing this market:

1) Since the respondents perceived the cruise holidays as a romantic tourism product, more promotions can be addressed to the couple or wedding market.
2) Seasickness is the biggest barrier to cruising which cannot be overcome by any marketing strategies, so nothing can be done if one is truly seasick. However, those who claim they have seasickness may not be genuine. There is a chance that they are just being paranoid. Cruise companies or travel agencies can address on the steadiness of the ship in their promotional campaign, which may mitigate the potential travelers' non-existed psychological risk.
3) The perceived 'luxury' image of the cruise holidays can be solved by adopting various pricing strategies. Such strategies include: the product and price discrimination according to prospects' different income levels; discounts in low seasons; set lower prices at the inception of the business in exchange for market penetration, etc.
4) Lastly, the 'boredom' and 'confinement' can be veered by incorporating more exotic shore excursions into the cruising package. Hence, more values can be added into the cruise package. Only by doing this, customers' satisfactions can be created, thus, positive word-of-mouth and customer loyalty can be engendered.

LIMITATIONS

The respondents for the survey disembarked from the cruises and completed the questionnaires afterwards. Therefore, their perceptions and attitudes towards cruising holidays may be instantly affected by the post-cruising experience they just had. That is, if they have a poor cruising experience, there is a higher possibility of developing negative perceptions toward cruise holidays than those who just had a satisfactory cruising experience. This, perhaps, has to be well considered and alerted for future research.

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# FLYING SCARED: INVESTIGATING AIRLINE TRAVELERS' CHOICE CRITERIA

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ABSTRACT

In light of the burgeoning growth of long-haul LCCs in Southeast Asia, the study constructs a model aimed at comprehending which factors lead passengers to choose full-service rather than no-frills carriers on long-range flights. In particular, the research aims at determining to what extent service quality expectations and fear of flying affect travellers' flight choices on long-haul flights. The study was set in Bangkok and primary data were obtained from a large sample of travelers departing from Suvarnabhumi Airport. While service quality emerged as a relevant factor, fear of flying didn't turn out as a variable affecting travellers' choices.

Key words: Low cost airlines, long-haul air services, airline service quality, fear of flying, cross-cultural differences.

## INTRODUCTION

While short- and medium-haul flights are experiencing fiercer competition between full-service and budget airlines, on long-distance journeys traditional airlines are still holding their undisputed supremacy. In response, several budget airlines have adopted a long-haul, no-frills model, offering low price flight alternatives to long-haul travellers. The majority of airlines who initially followed this market trend over the past twenty years incurred net losses and abandoned this strategy. A few international carriers, however, still believe in this model, offering budget long-haul flights despite the associated problems, which include potential net loss and customer dissatisfaction.

Although scholars are sometimes doubtful, Asiatic LCCs headquarters seems to be extremely confident about their low-cost, long-haul services. Scoot CEO Campbell Wilson, for instance, appears absolutely optimistic about the challenge Singapore Airlines is taking with its budget long-haul subsidiary. According to Campbell: "There's a market that wants to travel no frills and wants to travel further afield" (Hume, 2012). Also Andrew Cowen, who specializes in low-cost start-ups, holds an optimistic view of the future of long-haul LCCs. Are comforts and frills really so easily negotiable in return for low airfare on long-haul flights? According to Cowen, "yes", as he stated to CNN: "No entertainment? You can solve it by having your own iPad or PSP. Free food on a flag carrier, or buy it yourself on a low-cost carrier? It's not an issue. Most of us will have a bite to eat at the airport and can purchase something extra on board if necessary" (Hume, 2012).

Southeast Asia has seen the birth of long-haul LCCs, and this model is now slowly drawing the attention of  European airlines that are struggling to defend their market share. This makes long-distance long-cost flights an extremely interesting area of investigation. In particular, given the rough air international carriers are facing on their long-range operations, for an industry that focuses on passengers, investigating customers' attitudes and   expectations towards long-range air journeys is without a doubt fundamental. If, on short-haul flights, price is  usually the main factor influencing passengers' flight choices, on long flights other aspects can prevail over airfares. Despite this, appropriate research on air passengers' perceptions towards long-distance flights has been limited. As a result, this research paper aims at understanding which factors affect travellers' flight choices on long-haul flights. The study builds on literature in the field focusing on service quality expectations and fear of flying as variables potentially exerting influence over air passengers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Service Quality*

Over the past years, service quality has significantly increased in importance, becoming a critical area of investigation, given the impact it can have on economic performance and profitability (Seth, Deshmukh and Vrat, 2005). Understanding individuals' needs and expectations has become a key factor of success for almost every service industry, given that these two aspects are at the basis of customers' future behavior. The last two decades have seen the widespread diffusion of two different models to measure service quality, pioneered respectively by Parasuraman and Grönroos. Parasuraman (1988) based his model on five different dimensions; namely tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, empathy and assurance.

On the basis of the five above-described dimensions, Parasuraman developed twenty-two items, constituting the so- called SERVQUAL model, in order to evaluate respondents' perceptions on service quality. The Grönroos model is based instead on a more holistic view than Parasuraman's model, as it distinguishes between three different elements of service quality, namely technical quality, functional quality and image (Seth, Deshmukh and Vrat, 2004). While the SERVQUAL model focuses only on functional quality, which is how a specific service is delivered, the  Grönroos model takes into consideration technical quality, which is what service is delivered, and image.

Both the European (Grönroos) and American (Parasuraman) perspectives have been used by scholars focusing on air travellers although the SERVQUAL model has been used in the majority of the studies related to airline service quality (Chang and Yeh (2002), Gilbert and Wong (2002), Park, Robertson and Wu (2004), Pakdil and Aydin  (2007), Ariffin, Salleh, Aziz and Asbudin (2010)). Among the others, Park, Robertson and Wu analyzed service quality expectations in the context of aviation through 22 items built on the basis of the SERVQUAL model. The attributes were grouped into three different categories; reliability and customer service, in-flight service and convenience, and accessibility. The measurement items include: 1) Reliability and customer service (e.g., neat appearance of employees, employees who are willing to help passengers, giving passengers personal attention, on- time performance (departure and arrival on time), and safety; 2) in-flight service (e.g., meal service, seating comfort, and seat space and legroom); 3) convenience and accessibility (convenience of reservation and ticketing, check-in service, and convenience of flight schedule.)

*Fear of Flying*

According to the latest studies, over 50% of the population experience a sense of discomfort when flying, which in the most severe cases can lead to uncontrollable anxiety and panic attacks (Boksberger, Bieger and Laesser, 2007). Emotions like fear, worry and anxiety can have a considerable impact on the decisions individuals make (Kahneman and Tversky 2000). Humans are not rational creatures and considering the specific context of aviation, ignoring fear of flying (FOF)

as a decision-making variable can lead to wrong conclusions. Service quality expectations are not the only dimensions impacting travellers' behavioral intentions. Carlsson, Johansson-Stenman, and Martinsson (2004) were among the first to address the impact of FOF, investigating whether air travellers with high levels of FOF also exhibit a greater willingness to pay higher fares to see a reduction of risk. The study confirmed the hypothesis. Besides Carlsson, Johansson-Stenman, and Martinsson, the study conducted by Fleischer, Tchetchik and Toledo (2012) is the only one that has analyzed, in depth, the impact of FOF on air travellers' decision, becoming the most comprehensive investigation on the topic. FOF was assessed through eleven different statements that interviewees were asked to rate from 1 (absolutely agree) to 7 (completely disagree). Examples of the measurement items are: I am afraid during takeoff and landing, I feel insecure in the air, I feel I am not in control during the flight, and I feel relieved when the plane touches the ground.

The research showed that preferences for scheduled airlines, for home airlines and for non-stop flights increase with higher levels of FOF. According to Fleischer, Tchetchik and Toledo it's, therefore, not uncommon for individuals affected by FOF to book air tickets on the basis of specific attributes that can reduce their fear, regardless of whether these attributes have any real effect on safety.

METHOD

This research paper aims at understanding which aspects lead passengers to choose full-service rather than budget airlines on long-distance flights. To this end, the study constructs a model to fully comprehend to what extent service quality expectations and fear of flying affect travellers' flight choices on long-haul flights. According to past studies both service quality expectations and FOF were expected to influence flyers' decisions when choosing between a FSC (Full-Service Carrier) and an LCC (Low-Cost Carrier). The model is reported below.

$$Y = A + B + AB$$

A: Willingness to forfeit attributes (WFA)
B: Fear of flying (FOF)
Y: Flight Choice (full-service vs low-cost)

The WFA variable was built through the evaluation of passengers' attitudes and expectations towards a selected range of service quality items, as well as considering air passenger willingness to give up the chosen service quality factors in return for lower airfares. Given the great variety of travellers surveyed, the study also aims at determining whether significant differences exist between Asian and European passengers regarding service quality expectations and fear of flying.

The study is based on primary data collected through self-administrated, paper-based questionnaires. As Asian low- cost carriers dominate the fast-growing low-cost long-haul sector, the study was set in Bangkok, Thailand and primary data were obtained from a large sample of air travellers departing from Suvarnabhumi International Airport. The survey was conducted during the first two weeks of April 2013. 226 questionnaires were collected and a total of thirty different nationalities surveyed. Thais, Germans, British and Italians represent the biggest portion of respondents. Questionnaires were handed out to departing passengers intercepted in waiting halls, lounges and boarding gates.

The questionnaire was translated into four different languages: Thai, German, French and Italian. Handing out the questionnaire in different languages considerably increased the answering rate of respondents, and the clarity of the questions guaranteed a better understanding of the questions and a greater accuracy of the responses. Interviewees were required to choose among three different alternatives in order to understand their behavioral intention. On a hypothetical long-haul flight from London bound for Bangkok, respondents were asked to select the best flying alternative, according to

their preferences and basing their choice on three variables, namely type of airline, level of service and price.

| London-Bangkok route | 1 ☐ | 2 ☐ | 3 ☐ |
|---|---|---|---|
| Carrier | Full-Service Airline (Top services and up-to-date in-flight facilities | Full-Service Airline (Lower-level services and in-flight facilities | Low-Cost Airline |
| Price | High Airfare | Medium/Average Airfare | Low Airfare |

Passengers were then asked to evaluate from 1 to 7 the twenty-two service quality measurement items used by Park, Robertson and Wu within their research. Respondents were expected to rate the different attributes in relation to a long-haul flight and according to the following logic:

- 1 referring to NO WILLINGNESS to give up the considered attribute, even if giving it up could lower the airfare
- 7 referring to a HIGH WILLINGNESS to give up the attribute if the airfare could be lower

The respondents' level of fear of flying was then evaluated through the eleven indicators developed by Fleischer, Tchetchik and Toledo within their study. Passengers were asked to evaluate each proposition from 1 (completely agree) to 7 (completely disagree).

The dependent variable (Y) was simply obtained from the flight alternatives passengers chose, assigning value 1 to the travellers who opted for top in-flight services and facilities, 2 to those who preferred a less expensive but still full-service experience and 3 to those willing to fly low-cost, also on long-haul. The first independent variable (A), WFA (Willingness to Forfeit Attributes), was obtained taking the mean of the 22 SERVQUAL items for every single air passenger.

The mean of the eleven FOF statements was instead used to build the second explanatory variable (B). SPSS was the statistical tool used to analyze and interpret the data gathered with the survey. An Anova and several tests were performed in order to verify whether significant differences could be detected between people with different flight preferences and with different cultural backgrounds. Linear and moderated regressions were also run.

RESULTS

From the SPSS analysis conducted, WFA turned out to be a significant factor affecting air passengers when choosing between a full-service and a low-cost airline on long-haul journeys. In line with our expectations, all of the tests performed highlight significant differences in relation to the 22 SERVQUAL items among individuals with different travelling preferences (full-service vs low-cost).

Analyzing the dataset, safety, on time performance and commitment from the airline in solving problems turned out to be the most important factors on a long haul flight. Most of the frills (e.g. meals, inflight entertainment, and seat reservation) were considered as the least important aspects by all the passengers interviewed, although the less demanding travellers, opting for the low-cost alternative, exhibited considerably higher scores on the selected items. Interestingly, respondents ticking the low-cost option turned out to be less demanding, not only in relation to the frills but towards all the flight-related aspects analyzed. The frills didn't emerge as key factors. More demanding passengers choose to fly full-service not only because they expect free of charge services and frills, but because they expect a general higher-level experience. Less demanding and more price-sensitive passengers showed a significant inclination in giving less importance not only to frills

and in-flight comforts, but to the overall flight experience. Getting from point A to point B is the intention, but how, if money can be saved, does not appear to be particularly important.

If the WFA values turned out to be significantly different among passengers opting for different flying alternatives, fear of flying, instead, didn't emerge as a variable affecting travelers' choices. Against our expectations, fearful passengers, in fact, didn't show any significant tendency in avoiding low-cost airlines. Budget carriers didn't emerge as being risky and unsafe from the perspective of nervous flyers. The moderated regression performed, moreover, shows how FOF does not influence the strength of the relation between WFA and the flight choice.

In addition, focusing on the cultural background of the respondents and on their level of FOF, the analysis shows significant differences between Asian and European passengers, with the last ones exhibiting a lower fear of flying compared to Asian travellers. However, despite being more fearful of flying, Asian passengers didn't show any increased preference for FSCs. No significant differences were found in relation to the SERVQUAL items. Both Asian and European passengers share the same preferences' distribution.

CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study have improved the understanding of air passengers' attitudes and preferences toward long- haul flights, providing a great insight over this area of investigation. Previous research has, in fact, mostly focused on short-haul flights or has not addressed specifically long-distance journeys. From the SERVQUAL analysis, reliability and customer service emerged as the most important categories for all passengers, followed by in-flight service and convenience and accessibility. These results are in line with the current data on passenger preferences, in particular Gilbert and Wong (2002), meaning that travellers flying long-haul share the same preferences of those flying short- and medium-haul. Safety, on time performances and high attention to customers emerged as the most important aspects for passengers, being, accordingly, the ones towards which airlines should pay the greatest attention both on short and long-haul flights. Among the frills, despite being all considered not that relevant, seat comfort emerged as a relatively important aspect for long-haul passengers. Deploying aircraft with lower density cabin configurations is a strategy full-service airlines should consider both to get new customers and to retain their actual passengers. Overall, low-cost travellers emerged as being less demanding towards all the service quality items, and not only in regards to the frills. Flying non-stop on an up-to-date aircraft with state-of-the-art features and with a convenient departing time doesn't seem important for price-sensitive passengers opting for low-cost airlines on long-haul journeys. In addition to not offering free of charge services, long-haul LCCs can think about providing their customers with a flight experience even less pleasant and convenient. FOF didn't emerge as a variable influencing the passenger decision-making process. Accordingly segmentation strategies and FOF-based price discrimination would be ineffective. Finally, considering the cultural background of the respondents, Asian and European passengers appear similar in relation to their flight expectations. This means that airlines do not need to customize their focus areas according to the nationality of their passengers on their Asian routes. Fear of flying, instead, turned out to be a phobia widespread especially among Asian travellers exhibiting a higher level of FOF compared to European air travellers. For this reason, airlines should work even harder on their Asian flights in order to quell the fear of their customers, for instance, through appropriate marketing campaigns focused on safety.

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# GIVING CONFECTIONARY SOUVENIRS AND TAKING PICTURES MAKE TOURISTS HAPPY

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## ABSTRACT

Many studies demonstrated that tours are good for health both physically and mentally. This study investigated what activity or behavior relate to a tour would promote mental health. We conducted surveys two times; before summer holiday and after the summer holiday. Respondents were 600 (300 male, 300 female) Japanese people using the Internet survey. Results showed that the mental health of the respondents was improved after going on a tour in the summer holiday. Moreover, those who bought souvenirs, especially confectionary souvenirs for their friends, had lower negative feelings than that of those who didn't buy them.

Keywords: tour, mental health, the fade-out effect, the souvenir effect, summer holiday

## INTRODUCTION

Many studies demonstrated that tours are good for health both physically and mentally. Tarumi and Hagihara (1999) showed that taking a vacation was one of the significant chances to lighten one's mental load in the mental health of office workers. They found significant negative correlations between depression level and the chance for taking vacation in a year. They showed that a few chances for taking a vacation correlated to depression, and depression correlated with the increase of absence from work.

An office worker improves mental health not only by taking a long vacation, but also by taking short rest on the weekend. For example, Fritz and Sonnentag (2010) discovered that non-work experiences during a weekend provided opportunities to recover from work demands and to replenish lost resources. They examined how specific recovery experiences during the weekend, as well as non-work hassles, were associated with specific positive and negative affective states during the following workweek. They revealed that after controlling for affective states of the previous week, recovery experiences during the weekend significantly explained variances in affective states at the end of the weekend and

during the following workweek.

Similarly, Westman and Eden (1997) showed that job-stress and burn-out declined by taking a vacation. This decrease can be called "the vacation effect." But job-stress and burn-out returned to its pre-vacation level by three weeks after the vacation. Thus, "the vacation effect" of a tour disappears within three weeks after returning to a job. Studies (e.g. Oguchi, Shiota and Matsuura, 2008; Oguchi, 2009) referred to this phenomenon as "the fade-out effect." The fade-out effect is the phases of mental health from the vacation effect after returning to work, in which stress and depression levels have increased again (Stauss-Blasche, Muhry, & Lehofer, 2004).

Wilkins (2010) mentioned that souvenirs are important elements in a tour experience. He showed that a souvenir reminded almost all tourists of their memories during a tour. He revealed that a souvenir takes the role of a reminder of an experience. In addition, according to Kanzaki (1997), Japanese like to receive souvenirs and they also like to buy and give souvenirs. He mentioned that young Japanese women's consumption of confectionary souvenirs increased. Souvenirs may play an important role in tourists' mental health.

From these previous studies, Oguchi, Abe, Ohshima and Hirokawa (2012) revealed that buying souvenirs to friends improves Japanese college students' mental health. But respondents were only college students. Therefore, this study tries to confirm the findings using Japanese adults in general.

METHOD

We conducted the Internet surveys two times; before a summer holiday and after the summer holiday. Respondents were 600 (300 male, 300 female) Japanese adults in Japan. They completed questionnaires two times before a summer holiday and after the holiday.

The questionnaire contained PANAS (Sato & Yasuda, 2001) as a measure of positive - negative feelings, GHQ (Goldberg, 1972) to check degree of stress, CES-D (Radloff, 1977) as a measure of depression, and WDQ (Suzuki, 2004) to measure degree of anxiety. We added some items to specify which activities were conducted during the summer holiday, and items related to souvenirs.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We revealed that negative feelings, stress, and depression improved after taking a summer holiday. These results confirmed "the vacation effect." Positive feelings, negative feelings, stress, and depression improved by going on a tour during the summer holiday. Moreover, those who went on a tour were higher than those who did the homecoming in positive feelings after the summer holiday.

Moreover, those who bought souvenirs, especially confectionary souvenirs for their friends, showed lower stress sores than that of those who didn't buy them. Souvenirs were served as a mean of keeping positive feelings and not increasing negative feeling that were induced by a tour.

People can prevent to deteriorate improved negative feelings and depression after the summer holiday by purchasing souvenirs to others, especially confectionary souvenirs. This is because that we can intensify more supportive relationships by purchasing souvenirs and giving them to others. At the same time, we can get proper feedback by connecting with significant others. Therefore, purchasing souvenirs can promote the vacation effect. Confectionary souvenirs are relatively reasonable. Because of this, people can give and receive them without constraint. Therefore, the mental debt for both those who give souvenirs and those who receive souvenirs would reduce. As a result, the social support (cf. Cohen, Underwood, & Gottlieb, 2000) would elevate unconsciously.

The depression scores of participants who took pictures during the summer holiday were

significantly lower than those of participants who did not. The autobiographical memory might work as a key factor for this phenomenon. Implications for tourism were discussed.

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# BODY IMAGE AND CONSTRAINTS ON ACTIVE LEISURE AMONG TAIWANSE FEMALE ADOLESCENTS: THE ROLE OF LEISURE SELF-EFFICACY

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## ABSTRACT

Little research has specifically answered how to tackle leisure constraints imposed by body image. This study proposes that leisure self-efficacy, one's confidence in leisure activities, plays a significant role on the relationship between body image and leisure constraints among female adolescents. A convenience sampling method was chosen to select the subjects. In total, 402 valid responses were obtained. The structural equation model was employed. The results indicate that poor body image is negatively related to leisure self-efficacy, and has a significantly positive relationship with leisure constraints. Leisure self-efficacy is negatively related to leisure constraints. Finally, the presence of leisure self-efficacy decreases the impact of poor body image on leisure constraints. This paper contributes to introduce leisure self-efficacy to mitigate female's leisure constraints imposed by body image.

Key words: body image, leisure self-efficacy, leisure constraints

## INTRODUCTION

Adolescence, the passage between childhood and adulthood, is a critical stage of self-development. In this transitional stage, leisure activities evolve from play in childhood to an active adult lifestyle (Shaw, Kleiber, & Caldwell, 1995). Unfortunately, updated research indicates that active leisure deteriorates drastically (Sylvia-Bobiak & Caldwell, 2006) and sedentary activities prevail throughout adolescence (Dubbert, 2002). These phenomena are particularly detrimental because physical leisure provides positive health outcomes and preventive health methods (Strong, Mathers, Leeder, & Beaglehole, 2005). Furthermore, active leisure contributes to social health (Iannotti, Kogan, Janssen, & Boyce, 2009). Particularly, female adolescents are prone to inactive lifestyles (James, Hsu, Redmond, & Hope, 2005). They prefer doing sedentary activities in private, and avoid engaging in leisure activities in public (James, 2000, 2001). Research indicates that a great number of female adolescents stop participating in physical activities whey they reach the age of fifteen (Orenstein, 2002). Given the benefits of active leisure and its carryover

value from youth to later life (Hirvensalo & Lintunen 2011), how to mitigate female adolescents' constraints on active leisure deserves more attention.

Leisure constraints are those factors which may hinder participation in activities, or decrease leisure enjoyment (Jackson, 1988). One of the impediments deterring female adolescents' leisure time activities is body image (Kowalski, McDonough, & Kowalski, 2006). Body image refers to the internal representation of one's outer appearance (Hausenblas & Downs, 2001). Unfortunately, body image dissatisfaction continually escalates during this turbulent time for female adolescents (Campbell & Hausenblas, 2009) and has become prevalent both in western countries (Diedrichs, Lee, & Kelly, 2011), and in Taiwan (Chen, Fox, & Haase, 2008). Hence, a great number of female adolescents suffer from insufficient active leisure due to body image concerns. Understanding how to alleviate leisure constraints imposed by body image is critical for female adolescents' active leisure.

Body image is a multi-faceted concept which includes emotional and cognitive aspects (Cash, 2002). In the light of the recent psychological literature, emotional and cognitive body image disturbances are regarded as significant factors behind development of anorexia and bulimia nervosa (Izydorczyk, 2011). Body image intervention programs such as media literacy and life skills promotion have been well-studied with the hope that mitigation of poor body image will lead to prevention of its numerous harmful effects (McVey, Davis, Tweed, & Shaw, 2004). In spite of the fact that much attention has been paid to the prevention of body dissatisfaction, little research has specifically answered how to tackle leisure constraints imposed by body image, though their relationship has been proven. This study argues that leisure self-efficacy plays a critical role between body image and leisure constraints, because self-efficacy may encourage more leisure activity (Mannell & Loucks-Atkinson, 2005). Besides, it is also possible that when a female's perceived self-efficacy is high, she will not only have positive beliefs about her performance but may also hold positive beliefs about her body (Karr, Davidson, Bryant, Balague, & Bohnert, 2013). Leisure self-efficacy, one's confidence in one's abilities in the performance of leisure activities, is regarded as being one of the predictors of adherence to physical activities in the adult population (Orsega-Smith, Payne, Mowen, Ho, & Godbey, 2007).

Therefore, this study proposes that leisure self-efficacy moderates the impact of poor body image on leisure constraints among female adolescents. This study may assist in understanding the emotional and cognitive factors of poor body image that cause inactive leisure. It is also important for leisure educators to know how to implement effective measures to improve active leisure participation. Accordingly, the aims of this study are twofold: The first is to examine the relationship of female adolescents' body image, leisure self-efficacy and leisure constraints. The second is to examine how leisure self-efficacy moderates the relationship between body image and leisure constraints among female adolescents.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Body image and its status in female adolescence*

Body image is defined as how people perceive, feel and think about their bodies and physical appearance (Cash & Henry, 1995). Cash (2002) suggests that Body image is a multi-faceted concept which includes emotional and cognitive aspects. The emotional aspect refers to attitudinal responses to one's own body, such as body dissatisfaction. Body dissatisfaction is a negative self-evaluation and frequently measured as the discrepancy between the perceived and the desired body appearance (Gaspar, Amaral, Oliveira, & Borges, 2011). The greater the difference between the perceived size and the ideal size, the higher the level of body dissatisfaction (Thompson & Gray, 1995). This dissatisfaction may further constrain leisure participation (Raymore et al., 1994).

The cognitive element of body image refers to the perception and experience of one's own body. Spangler and Stice (2001) proposed to use appearance beliefs to measure attitudes about body appearance. Appearance beliefs comprise four factors: interpersonal domain, achievement, self-view, and feelings. Interpersonal domain reveals one's belief on how appearance will affect the interpersonal relationship. Achievement means that one's think that their activity performances and abilities depend on appearance. Self-view is affected by appearance. The element of feelings means appearance will affect the emotions. Research findings suggest that appearance beliefs pose leisure constraints for young and mature women (Liechty, Freeman, & Zabriskie, 2006).

Taiwanese adolescents have also been influenced by the image of thinness from western cultures (Chen, Fox, & Haase, 2010). Thus, both forces create pressures for extremely thin ideals which might contribute to high body dissatisfaction for Taiwanese girls (Chen, et al., 2010). According to the Department of Health as many as 66% of female Taiwanese adolescents were dissatisfied with their bodies and 37% of Taiwanese girls identified themselves as inactive (James et al., 2005). These studies show that inactive leisure and negative body images are prevalent among young Taiwanese females. A study investigating female college students in Taiwan finds that body dissatisfaction is a significant drive for weight loss (Lu & Hou, 2009). These studies seem to indicate that inactive leisure, body dissatisfaction and weight loss are prevalent among young Taiwanese females. Although body image and its links to physical inactivity have been studied in western society (Liechty et al., 2006), this issue is less known in Asian society. As mentioned above, extensive study is required to understand the issue in Taiwan's cultural context.

*Leisure activity and body image*

The relationship between body image and leisure activity has been proved to be correlated. Participation in leisure activities was found to improve body image (Silva & Klatsky, 1985). Likewise, James (2000) also found that body image hindered participation as well as enjoyment for adolescent girls in a pool setting. Additionally, an association of a negative body image with low physical activity levels was found by Finne, Bucksch, Lampert, and Kolip (2011). The above-mentioned research supports the idea that body image hinders leisure activity participation. In other words, if adolescents' body image could be improved, they would have less leisure constraints and consequently be involved in more leisure activity. Thus, preventing the negative impact of body image on leisure participation can be beneficial to female adolescents.

*Body image and leisure self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy refers to one's confidence in one's abilities in executing given tasks (Bandura, 1986). There are four sources of self-efficacy: personal performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and emotional states. The efficacy belief system, however, is not a global trait but a series of self-beliefs linked to distinct domains of functioning (Bandura, 1986). This study aims to understand the role of leisure self-efficacy in the relationship between body image and constraints on active leisure. Thus, leisure self-efficacy pertains to one's confidence relating to leisure activities.

Over-concern regarding physical appearance causes damaging psychological effects (Liechty et al., 2006). Katula, McAuley, Mihalko and Bane (1998) found that when people were overly concerned about their appearance that their confidence in their ability to exercise would be reduced. Additionally, Song, Peng, and Lee (2011) thought that seeing oneself during exercise enhanced individuals' self-focus, making body image concerns more salient, resulting in reduction of efficacy in the female participants. These issues point out that poor body image can affect one's confidence. This research speculates that a poor body image might degrade one's confidence during leisure engagement. Therefore, the study proposes that female adolescents who perceive themselves to be more physically attractive will feel more confident in leisure participation. On the other hand, those

who are less confident in their appearance will have less confidence in leisure participation.

H1-1: Adolescent girls who have a higher level of body dissatisfaction will have a lower level of leisure self-efficacy.

H1-2: Adolescent girls who have more negative beliefs about appearance will have a lower level of leisure self-efficacy.

*Body image and constraints on active leisure*

Raymore, Godbey, Crawford and von Eye (1993) introduced leisure constraints that included three dimensions: structural, interpersonal and intrapersonal barriers. Structural barriers are physical obstacles impeding leisure preferences, choices and activities such as time, geographic location or financial resources. Interpersonal barriers involve the relationships and interactions between individuals such as the inability to find a suitable partner for participation. Intrapersonal barriers reflect individual attributes and psychological states such as fear, stress, or depression that drive people away from or into specific activities. Leisure constraints prevent people from progressing in and enjoying leisure activities, or obtaining satisfaction from leisure (Jackson, 1988).

Over concern with and exposure of one's body could hinder people from leisure participation because of external pressure and raised negative emotions. Appearance-related gazing, teasing or ridiculing may happen in leisure activity arenas. In aerobics studios and swimming pools for instance, appearance can become the object of audience stares resulting in possible embarrassment, and discomfort that affects the girls' enjoyment and frequency of participation (James, 2000). Therefore, the person who is more concerned and dissatisfied with her body figure has more constraints on active leisure (Liechty et al., 2006). In other words, having an unsatisfactory and negative view towards body image may lead female adolescents to less participation and enjoyment of leisure activity, namely more leisure constraints. Based on previous research, this study proposes that adolescent girls will have more obstacles in their leisure activities due to their negative assessment of body image.

H2-1: Adolescent girls who have a higher level of body dissatisfaction will have a higher level of leisure constraints.

H2-2: Adolescent girls who have more negative beliefs about appearance will have a higher level of leisure constraints.

*Leisure self-efficacy and leisure constraints*

Related self-efficacy studies were found to negatively correlate with leisure constraints. Loucks-Atkinson and Mannell (2007) found that one has more confidence in one's ability to successfully use negotiation strategies to overcome constraints and higher negotiation efficacy in leisure might persevere in their coping efforts despite constraints. People with greater efficacy to negotiate leisure constraints were more motivated, demonstrated more efficacy, and experienced fewer constraints (White, 2008). Furthermore, Ayotte, Margrett, and Hicks-Patrick (2010) suggested that those who had higher barrier-related and task-related self-efficacy viewed exercise outcome more positively, felt fewer constraints, and were more physically active. Therefore, confidence to engage in activities decreases leisure barriers. According to the above, female adolescents experience a lower level of leisure constraints when they have a higher degree of confidence in their leisure abilities and skills. Therefore, this study posits the following hypothesis:

H3: When adolescent girls have a lower level of leisure self-efficacy, they will have a higher degree of leisure constraints, and vice versa.

*Moderating effect of leisure self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy has been proved to be an effective construct in many streams of research in explaining the success of behavioral changes, including leisure and sports areas (Gao, Lee, Kosma, & Solmon, 2010). People with higher self-efficacy who view physical activities more positively, experience fewer restraints (Ayotte et al., 2010), and are more likely to be physically active (Ferrier, Dunlop, & Blanchard, 2010) than those with lower self-efficacy. Particularly, studies of physical interventions in adolescence also reveal that self-efficacy is a vital mediator affecting intervention on leisure activity behaviors (Lewis et al., 2002). Accordingly, in order to alleviate the leisure constraints caused by poor body image, leisure self-efficacy may play a significant moderating role. For example, by building up confidence in swimming, female adolescents with a negative body image will become more engaged in swimming. Thus, leisure self-efficacy mitigates the effect of poor body image on leisure constraints.

H4: The presence of leisure self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between poor body image and leisure constraints among female adolescents.

METHODS

*Conceptual Framework*

Liechty et al. (2006) pointed out that poor body image increased leisure constraints. Previous studies found that individuals' confidence in their ability to exercise would be reduced when they were overly concerned about their appearance (Spangler & Stice, 2001). Ayotte et al. (2010) found that people with confidence to exercise would perceive fewer constraints. Based on the above discussion, body image affects not only individual's leisure constraints, but also one's confidence in leisure engagement. Therefore, the objective of this study is to focus on the relationship of body image, leisure self-efficacy and leisure constraints, and attempt to verify the moderating effect of leisure self-efficacy. The research framework is presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Research framework
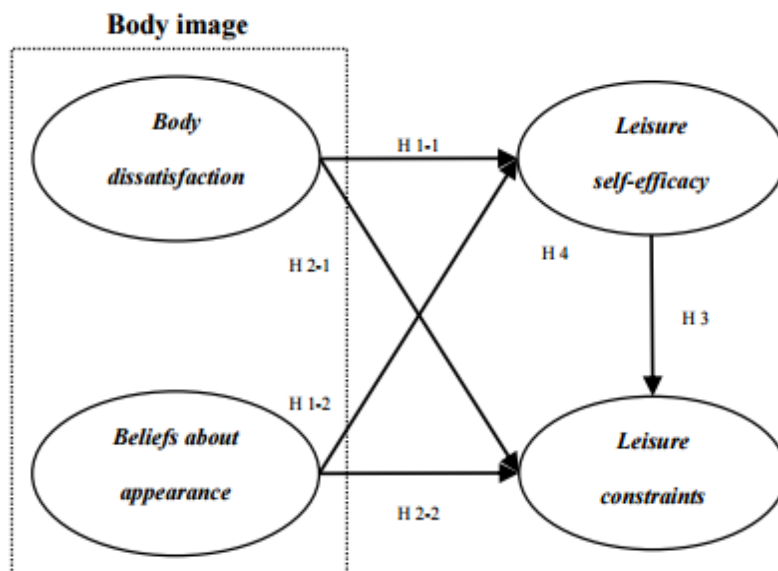


*Sample Selection and Data Collection*

Adolescence refers to the period between 11 and 19 years of age (Ingledew & Sullivan, 2002). A convenience sampling method was chosen to select Taiwanese junior and senior high school girls as

research participants. Based on the school list from the Education Ministry, four junior high schools and four senior high schools located in Taipei, Taiwan were selected as the sampling units because these schools are among those with the highest student populations. 600 questionnaires were distributed to the female students. 527 were returned. In all, 402 questionnaires remained usable, after 125 invalid responses were excluded, yielding a response rate of 76.2%. Of the 402 respondents, there were 206 (51.2%) junior high school girls and 196 (48.8%) senior high school girls.

*Measurement*

In this study, body image consisted of emotional and cognitive aspects. First, this study modified the contour drawing rating scale of Thompson and Gray (1995) to assess the emotional aspect of body dissatisfaction. This scale was used to assess the participant's level of dissatisfaction with her current body size. It consisted of five female drawings that were designed with detailed features and were of precisely graduated sizes from 1 (*thinnest*) to 5 (*largest*). Participants were asked to indicate the figure that most closely represented their current body sizes as well as another one that most closely represented their ideal bodies. The score was calculated by using the ideal body minus the current body. Zero meant participants were satisfied with their current size; negative scores indicated subjects wanted to be thinner; positive scores showed that the students wanted to gain weight. The greater the difference between the perceived size and the ideal size, the higher was the level of body size dissatisfaction. Participants were also asked to indicate their discomfort level with their current body size on a 5-point Likert scale. High scores indicated greater discomfort was felt by the participants. Thus, in this study, body dissatisfaction was the aggregate of the discrepancy of the perceived and ideal body size and the discomfort level of body size.

Grogan, S. (2008) mentioned that body image can measures by subjective satisfaction (evaluation of body) and cognition factor (beliefs about the physical appearance). Therefore, cognitive body image was adopted from the 20-item Beliefs about Appearance Scale (Spangler & Stice, 2001). Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). This study used a 17-item self-efficacy measurement from Sherer et al. (1982). Cronbach's $\alpha$ of these items was 0.86. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale with 1 (*the lowest*) to 5 (*the highest*). An analysis revealed an acceptable internal consistency for the four self-efficacy dimensions: resistance to stress, persistence, self-confidence, permanence. 20-item Leisure Constraints Scale (Raymore et al., 1993) was used to measure barriers to active leisure activity in three areas: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. Cronbach's $\alpha$ of these items was 0.77. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Higher scores indicated higher leisure constraints.

RESULTS

Of the 402 respondents, there were 223 (55.5%) junior high school girls and 179 (44.5%) senior high school girls. Respondents were between 13 and 18 years with the majority (51.7%) of the respondents between 15 and 17 years of age. The composite reliability (CR) for each construct ranged from 0.68 to 0.90. The internal consistency reliability of each construct was thus achieved. Regarding reliability, the maximum correlation in all pairs (0.6442) was smaller than squared AVE (minimum value of 0.50), which supported the presence of discriminant validity.

*The relationship of body image, leisure self-efficacy and leisure constraints*

This study used the LISREL package (version 8.7) to analyze the full structural equation model (SEM) with body image (body dissatisfaction, beliefs about appearance) as exogenous latent variables; leisure self-efficacy and leisure constraints as endogenous latent variables. The results of maximum likelihood estimation suggest that the model fits the data well: $\chi2/df = 4.592$, RMSEA = 0.095, GFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.90, RMR = 0.031. The parameter estimates for the hypotheses are shown

in Figure 2. For the structure model, the structure parameter estimates were all statistically significant. Body dissatisfaction ($\gamma11$ = -0.25, $p < 0.01$) and beliefs about appearance ($\gamma12$ = -0.37, $p < 0.01$) were negatively related to leisure self-efficacy. Thus, hypotheses H1-1 and H1-2 are supported. As well, body dissatisfaction ($\gamma21$ = 0.19, $p < 0.01$) and negative beliefs about appearance ($\gamma22$ = 0.28, $p < 0.01$) were positively related to leisure constraints. This means that hypotheses H2-1 and H2-2 are supported. Lastly, for the structure model the structure parameter estimate was statistically significant ($\beta$ = -0.41, $p < 0.01$) which indicates that leisure self-efficacy is negatively related to leisure constraints. Thus, hypothesis H3 is supported. The results for the full structural equation are depicted in Figure 2. $R^2$ for leisure constraints was 0.36, which means that the model explains 36% of the variation in leisure constraints.

Figure 2. Hypothesized model
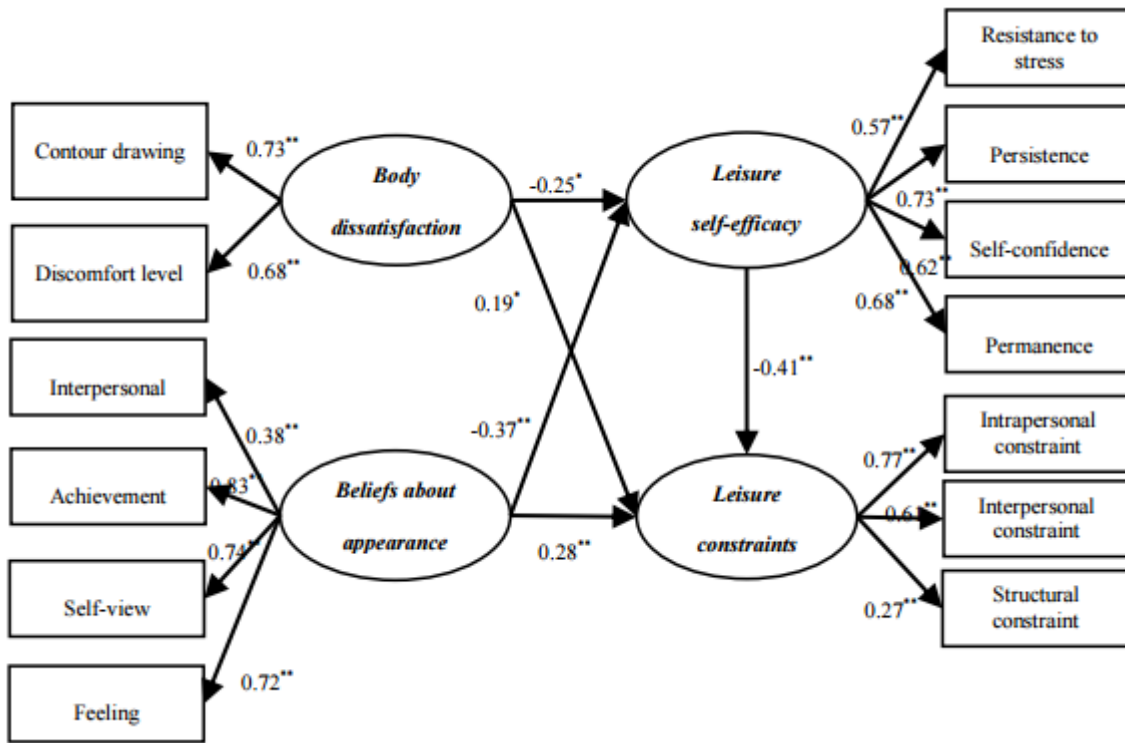


*Test for the moderating effect of leisure self-efficacy*

This study conducted a multi-group analysis, and a structural equation model (SEM) was run by adding the hypothesized paths between body image (body dissatisfaction, beliefs about appearance) and leisure constraints. All samples were divided into high ($n$ = 186, M = 4.73) and low leisure self-efficacy ($n$ = 216, M = 2.35) groups by the K-means method. The model fits the data acceptable ($\chi2/df$ = 1.34, RMSEA = 0.035, GFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.93, RMR = 0.024). In the relationship between body dissatisfaction and leisure constraints, the baseline model was $\chi2$ (48) = 67.23, and the nested model was $\chi2$ (49) = 72.34. Consequently, the moderating effect of leisure self-efficacy on the relationship of body dissatisfaction and leisure constraints is significant ($\Delta\chi2$ (1) = 5.11, $p$ <0.05). In the relationship between beliefs about appearance and leisure constraints, the nested model was $\chi2$ (49) = 71.46; the difference between high and low leisure self-efficacy groups was $\Delta\chi2$ (1) = 4.23, $p$ < 0.05. H4 is thus supported.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study makes a noteworthy contribution by introducing a moderating measure of leisure self-

efficacy. The presence of leisure self-efficacy reduces the impact of poor body image (body dissatisfaction, appearance beliefs) on leisure constraints among female adolescents. Through multiple-group analysis, this paper shows that leisure self-efficacy moderates the relationship between body dissatisfaction, appearance beliefs and leisure constraints. The effects of body dissatisfaction and appearance beliefs on leisure constraints are significant in the case of low leisure self-efficacy, whereas they were not remarkable in the case of high leisure self-efficacy.

Additionally, this paper found that the more negative body image female adolescents have, the more leisure constraints they experience. These results are in accordance with previous studies. For example, Frederick and Shaw (1995) pointed out that participants with poor body image participate in activities less frequently than people with positive body image. Liechty and Yarnal (2010) also contend that obsession with physical appearance leads to less engagement in activity. By confirming the relationship between body image and leisure self-efficacy among female adolescents, this paper has added to previous research that has shown how perceived body image affects an individual's confidence (Spangler & Stice, 2001). These findings help explain the link between body image and leisure. When female adolescents perceive their body negatively, they perceive more leisure constrains and less leisure self-efficacy. Given the alarming numbers of female adolescents who view their physiques negatively, effective measures need to be implemented.

The results of this research are in accordance with Bandura (1986): Compared with individuals with low self-efficacy, those with high self-efficacy tend to give more effort and persist in reaching their goals in leisure engagement. They hold more positive attitudes in leisure engagement; therefore, they will encounter fewer leisure constraints (Ayotte et al., 2010). Thus, female adolescents with high leisure self-efficacy do not worry too much about their appearance and are less likely to avoid leisure participation.

The primary finding of this study is that leisure self-efficacy moderates the relationship between body image and leisure constraints. Thus, in order to mitigate the impact of poor body image on leisure constraints, enhancing female adolescents' leisure self-efficacy might be an effective strategy. Teenage girls underestimate their abilities because they are prone to a lack of confidence (Sleap, & Wormald, 2001). Social supports and persuasion from others can help enhance their self-efficacy (Ayotte et al., 2010). In order to lift female adolescents' leisure self-efficacy, schools could provide preferred leisure activities for girls. The physical education program could be expanded to integrate leisure education to improve female adolescents' leisure self-efficacy thus encouraging them to apply the skills learned in physical education lessons to their leisure activities.

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# FACTORS OF STORYTELLING THAT EFFECT ON VISITORS' SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY

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## ABSTRACT

The current study investigatedthe storytelling effects and interrelationships among storytelling effect, satisfaction, and the behavioral intentions. In particular, this study focuses on situations where tourists gain information about a destination through either websites or apps using Smartphone. In specific, this study seeks to achieve three objectives: to identify the underlying dimensions of storytelling effects; to investigate the relationship of storytelling effects, to satisfaction and revisit intentions; and if the relationships are significant, to identify which storytelling effects are best at explaining satisfaction and revisit intention.

## INTRODUCTION

Storytelling can be an effective way to create emotional ties with customers. If storytelling is successfully applied in destination marketing, it is expected to enhance tourists' experiences to lead to more positive evaluations of these experiences. However, there is a lack of studies that empirically tested to what extent storytelling affects tourists' post-trip evaluations. Rather, previous studies have focused on analyzing consumers 'stories' related to products, brands or services (Woodside, Sood and Miller, 2008; Woodside and Chebat, 2001; Woodside, 2010). For example, research focused on

customers stories on websites (Black and Kelly, 2009) or blogs (Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier, 2008) in an effort to understand customers better.

Furthermore, how stories are provided to tourists greatly influence the effectiveness of storytelling. To some degree, information technology applications and the Internet can be powerful methods to enhance tourists' experiences (Lu, Yu, Liu and Yao, 2003; Pagani, 2004; Oh, Lehto and Park, 2009; Yeh, Leong, Blecher and Lai, 2005). In particular, Smartphones have recently drawn huge attention with its fast market expansion around the world. Smartphones refer to 'a high-end mobile phone, which combines the functions of a personal digital assistant (PDA) and a mobile phone' (wilkipedia 2011 However, despite this interest, it is not clear to what extent smartphones are useful when used as a marketing tool to promote destinations.

In light of all this, this study intends to answer the following research questions:
- What are the effects of storytelling in destination marketing?
- To what extent does storytelling about a destination affect tourists' satisfaction and intention to revisit when people gain information about a destination through smartphones?

Accordingly, by understanding storytelling effects and its relationships with satisfaction and revisiting intention, destination marketers will be able to develop effective strategies that enhance the competitiveness of their destination.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In tourism, storytelling has been shown to make tourists' experiences more meaningful (Mossberg, 2007). Tourists are not just purchasing a round ticket to and from a destination, but purchasing the historical and cultural background of a destination (Mossberg, 2007). If a destination is related to a popular story, it attracts more people because tourists can feel excitement and enjoy fantasy satisfying tourists' hedonic needs through visiting it (Bolbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Mossberg, 2007). According to Bolbrook and Hirschman (1982), tourism products predominantly provide hedonic functions rather than utilitarian functions. It has been pointed out that just providing good service can not a differentiating point anymore, because consumers now expect to get more than just good service (Oh, Fiore and Jeoung, 2007). Storytelling can be useful in this context as it facilitates the development of emotional ties with a destination, which obviously makes a destination more competitive.

One stream of research regards storytelling as an effective way to analyzing 'customers stories'. Reviewing customers' stories helps marketers to understand more deeply about customers (Woodside et al. 2008; Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier, 2008; Black and Kelly, 2009). For example, when Black and Kelly (2009) investigated consumers' online reviews, they found that if a comment mentioned about service failure, it was rated lower than a comment that did not include service failure; however, if a customer included a story about 'how successfully the service failure was recovered', it moved readers. Thus, encouraging people to share their experiences with others is crucial in the service industry because the authenticity of their stories is beyond doubt. Other scholars also supported that storytelling enables service providers to understand customers more deeply since customers' reviews indicate their own interpretation of their service experiences (Padgett and Allen, 1997; Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier, 2008). Furthermore, it was noted that people tend to feel better when they share their own story with others as it gives them a chance to refresh their memories (Woodside et al. 2008).

The other research stream in tourism regards storytelling as a useful way to promote services or products (Escalas, 2004; Herskovitz and Crystal, 2010; Chronis, 2005; Gilmore and Pine, 2002). This research stream emphasizes how helpful storytelling is in promoting a destination, some of which are discussed in the following. First, customers can connect with a brand more deeply when storytelling is involved (Mossberg, 2007; Chronis, 2005). If an advertisement contained a story, it

increased customers' emotional ties, which, in turn, gives consumers a positive image of the brand. In the same vein, if consumers know stories of historical sites, hotels, or restaurants, those places are more likely to gain a competitive advantage (Chronis, 2005; Gilmore and Pine, 2002).

Consumer satisfaction has been extensively studied in marketing. A couple of paradigms have been widely accepted. These include Oliver's (1980) the expectation-disconfirmation paradigm, in which consumers compare their actual performance with expectations; positive disconfirmation indicates satisfaction while negative disconfirmation indicates dissatisfaction. Previous studies have agreed that tourism satisfaction is much more complicated than satisfaction for any other product or service (Oh, Fiore, and Jeoung, 2007; Pine and Gilmore, 2001; Neal and Gursoy, 2008; Lee, Petrick and Crompton, 2007). For example, Neal and Gursoy (2008) suggested that tourists' satisfaction should be understood in three different stages; pre-trip service satisfaction, destination satisfaction and transit route service satisfaction. Tourists' satisfaction is affected by not only service quality but also other factors that cannot be controlled by marketers, such as climate or social groups (Lee et al. 2007).

METHOD

The population of this study was tourists who had experiences of mobile storytelling while they were visiting in tourism destination. The self-administrated questionnaires were distributed to five different tourist destinations where are providing popular mobile storytelling of destination to tourists. After a thorough inspection of the collected samples, 37 questionnaires were eliminated for the analysis due to incomplete questions and outliers. Finally a total of 413 useful samples were utilized to test the proposed model and hypotheses.

In terms of survey instrument, based on the literature review, the survey questionnaires was designed to measure the mobile smartphone storytelling effects of tourism destination, visiting value, satisfaction, and destination loyalty. Especially, in order to develop the measurement of the mobile smartphone storytelling effects, depth interview of tourists (20 person) and tourism storytelling expert were conducted to identify more appropriate variable and revise the measurement scales since solid measurement scales were not developed in the tourism literature.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This study was to investigate structural relationships among storytelling effects, destination value, satisfaction, and loyalty. After assumption tests such as normal distribution, skewness, and kurtosis, it was found out that no errors were detected in the results. First of all, frequency analysis was conducted to profile the respondents and then an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with Varimax rotation was performed to identify the underlying dimensions of mobile storytelling effects. Once the underlying dimensions were identified for mobile storytelling effects, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were conducted to see if the measurement model fit the collected data. Once the measurement model was confirmed based on the goodness-of-fit indices the structural equation model was performed to test the proposed model that includes the exogenous construct of the effects of mobile storytelling of destination and the endogenous constructs of destination value, satisfaction, and loyalty.

CONCLUSION

This study was to investigate structural relationships of tourism destination storytelling that can influence perceived value of tourism destination experience and travel satisfaction, and also finally tourism destination loyalty. Given all this, the effects of storytelling are highly likely to be correlated to tourists' satisfaction in the context of destination marketing. However, despite consumer satisfaction being a very popular topic in tourism, there is a lack of studies that empirically

investigated whether or not storytelling actually plays a part in tourists' satisfaction about a destination.

Table 1. Goodness-of-Fit Measures for the Structural Equation Model

| | Absolute fit measures | | | | Incremental fit measures | | | Parsimonious fit measures | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $\chi^2$ | GFI | RMSR | RMSEA | NULL$\chi^2$ | AGFI | NNFI | PNFI | CFI | IFI | RFI |
| Theoretical model | (171) 591.12 | .88 | .045 | .075 | (210) 9012.76 | .84 | .94 | .76 | .95 | .95 | .92 |
| Revised model | (153) 329.78 | .93 | .032 | 0.050 | (210) 9012.76 | .90 | .97 | .70 | .98 | .98 | .95 |

Note: $\chi^2$ = Chi-square; GFI = goodness-of-fit index; RMSR = root mean square residual; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; AGFI = adjusted goodness-of-fit; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; PNFI = parsimonious normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; IFI = incremental fit index; RFI = relative fit index

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# SERVICE ENVIRONMENT AND GAMBLING BEHAVIORS

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## ABSTRACT

The study investigates the relationships among casino service environment, impulsive gambling and gambling behaviors (spending, visiting frequency and length of stay). Analysis of service environment is approached from both individual and organizational perspectives. The investigation is undertaken in Macau casinos, and involves testing organizational service environment as a moderator and impulsive gambling as a mediator. Results from testing these relationships indicate that casino service environment does explain significant variance in impulsive gambling which subsequently influences gambling behaviors. The mediation testing shows that impulsive gambling demonstrates partial and full mediation effects between various service environment factors and the outcome variables. Casino service environment on an organizational level also successfully moderates the linkage between individual perception of service environment, impulsive gambling and gambling behaviors. The findings have strategic implications for both researchers and practitioners. In particular, this study contributes to service and gambling research by incorporating individual and organizational environmental factors into consumer behavior analyses. Potential applications of the findings are highlighted for casinos and problem counselors.

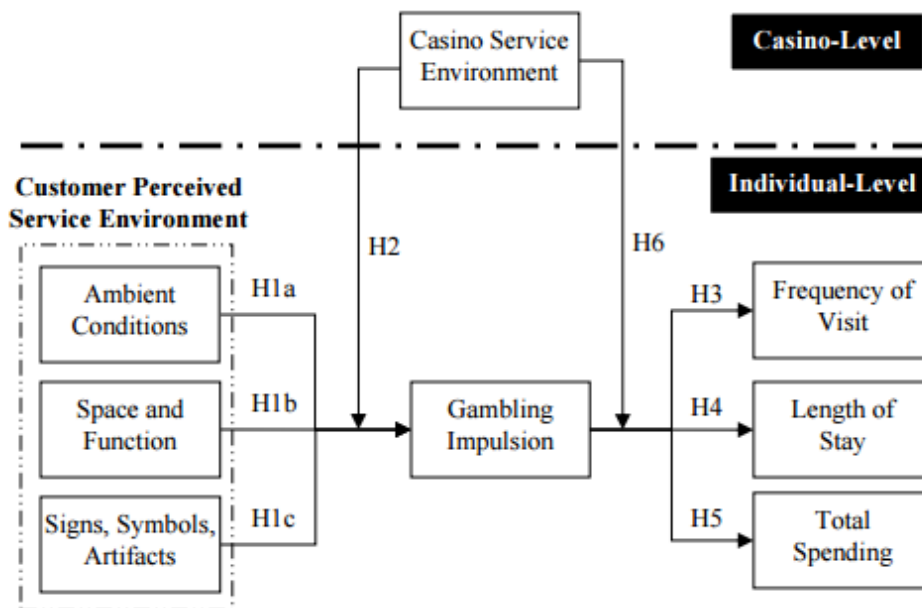Key words: service environment, impulsive gambling, casino, customer loyalty

## INTRODUCTION

A large body of the literature has acknowledged the role of service environment in consumer behaviors. Service environment provides tangible cues about the provider's service quality, and also acts as a stimulus that influences consumers' feelings and arousals that compel them to approach and respond favorably to service offerings (Bitner, 1992; Hightower, Brady, & Baker, 2002; Russell & Mehrabian, 1976). The results of these studies may explain why casinos are increasingly putting emphasis on building theme-park-like properties. Indeed, empirical evidence shows a strong linkage between casino physical surroundings and customer emotion and behaviors (Johnson, Mayer, & Champaner, 2004; Marmurek, Finlay, Kanetkar, & Londerville, 2007; Wong, 2013). Customer emotion, in return, affects his or her perception of service quality, which subsequently impacts on consuming or purchasing behaviors (e.g., Prentice, 2014; Prentice & Woodside, 2013; Ryu & SooCheong, 2007; Wong, 2004). Emotion, in the case of gamblers, has influence on

gambling behavior and ultimately problem gambling (Lorenz & Yaffee, 1986). In particular, customer emotion can be a cause of impulsive buying behaviors (Weinberg & Gottward, 1982). Although impulsive buying, compared to compulsive buying, is less likely to lead to severe outcomes, depending on the nature of purchasing and the product, it does cause negative consequences such as shopping addiction and disorder (Di Nicola et al., 2010; Evenden, 1999; Sohn & Choi, 2014). Consistent with this view and in line with the foregoing discussion, this study examines the relationships among casino service environment, impulsive gambling and gambling behaviors. Gambling behaviors in the current study are operationalized into visiting frequency (patronizing the casino), length of playing and total spending in a gaming venue. These gambling behaviors, to a certain degree, are indicative of customer perspective at the individual level without considering its multilevel nature. Second, prior empirical studies commonly associate customers' perceived service environment with their behaviors while assuming that their evaluation of a particular provider is independent from their perception of other providers. However, service environment is positioned in an organizational level and designed congruently to match a provider's market position throughout the service encounter. Such an approach neglects the dependency of customer service evaluation that is nested within a higher hierarchy where services are delivered (see Mathieu, Aguinis, Culpepper, & Chert, 2012). These limitations reveal a research gap in gambling studies and prompt necessity of the current study.

In response to the limitations, this study seeks to explore the relationship between perceived service environment and three behavior outcomes (i.e., frequency of visit, length of stay, and spending in a casino) through the mediating role of impulsive gambling at the individual level. It further investigates the multilevel nature of the service encounter by examining cross-level direct and moderating effects of casino-level service environment on the individual-level linkage between service environment and gambler behaviors. In essence, the objective of the study is to examine the role of the service environment, at the individual and organizational levels, in impulsive gambling and behavioral outcomes. This study aims to provide a holistic multilevel framework that integrates the effects of the physical setting to better understand gamblers' responses and behaviors, as depicted in Figure 1. The study further seeks to extend the servicescape model by investigating how the organizational-level service environment could moderate the effect of service environment at a lower level.

Figure 1. Conceptual framework

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Service Environment and Impulsive Gambling*

The extant literature has acknowledged the role of service environment in consumer behaviors. Previous research on environmental psychology sets the foundation in understanding the impact of the environment on human responses and behaviors (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). In particular, stimuli from the tangible environmental affect consumers' emotional states and provide them with vivid sensory and pleasure, which in turn changes their perceptions and behaviors. Building on environmental psychology research, Bitner (1992) develops the servicescape model, which comprehensively links service environment with various consumer behavioral outcomes (e.g., attraction, stay/explore, spend more, and satisfaction) through the role of consumer and employee responses. Bitner's seminar work articulates the dimensionality and attributes of the service environment and provides the theoretical background for understanding the details in crafting the physical setting. In particular, the three core dimensions of perceived service environment − ambient conditions (i.e., temperature, air quality, noise, music), space and function (i.e., layout, equipment, facilities, and furnishings), and signs, symbols, and artifacts (i.e., signage, style of decor, and personal artifacts) − provide customers a holistic view of the physical surrounding in the service encounter (Bitner, 1992; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2007).

From the customer perspective, service environment serves as a tangible cue about service quality of the provider (Bitner, 1992). Empirical evidence indicates that positively perceived service environment leads to favorable consumer behaviors and loyalty outcomes through the mediating role of consumer responses such as positive affect and perceived value (Hightower et al., 2002). Indeed, as Bitner's (1992) servicescape model posits, stimuli from the service environment influence consumers' sensory experience and lead to arousal and positive affective responses including strong impulses to approach specific services (Rosenbaum, 2006). Research also shows that congruence between physical atmosphere and the customer leads to favorable customer evaluation of perceived service quality as well as a higher level of approach and impulse buying behaviors in retail stores (Mattila & Wirtz, 2001). Similarly, Beatty and Ferrell (1998) acknowledges a link between impulse buying and affective response.

In the context of casinos, the literature has acknowledged the importance of service environment in attracting gamblers and satisfying their needs (Wong & Rosenbaum, 2012). Favorable service environment plays a pivotal role in engendering positive emotions and affective responses (Finlay, Marmurek, Kanetkar, & Londerville, 2010; Mayer & Johnson, 2003). In fact, contemporary casinos are aesthetically crafted to create a theme-park-like environment that aims to inspire people to gamble more, stay longer, and spend more. All the elements – the lighting and background music, the atmosphere, the furnishing (e.g., seats, tables, and chips), decor, architecture, signage, amenities and facilities – are elegantly designed to be thematically congruent with the casino's market position and to induce a unique and pleasant experience for gamblers; thus, they would feel more attached to the casino and subsequently engage in gambling (Wong, 2013). The Venetians, for example, built a Venice-like complex with riverside and Gondola ride to enthral gamblers and provide them a place for indulgence. Contemporary casinos often place the casino floor in the central area of the property with clear signage and surrounding facilities to attract gamblers. Accordingly, we argue that service environment as perceived by customers has a positive influence on impulsive gambling.

H1: Customer-perceived service environment is positively related to impulsive gambling.

Service environment is a commercial place that is designed to provide the customer with a unique service experience, and to differentiate one service provider from others (Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Wong & Wu, 2013). Since it is a primary organizational value proposition used to interact with customers and satisfy their needs, it holds strategic importance to the organization (Bitner, 1992;

Hightower, 2003; Rosenbaum, 2008). In fact, an organization's service strategy requires consistent and standardized service environment throughout each service encounter in order to match its brand image and positioning strategy (Lovelock & Wirtz, 2007; Mattila & Wirtz, 2001). Nevertheless, Becker (1981) attests that "the way the physical setting is created in organizations has barely been tapped as a tangible organizational resource" (p. 130). Indeed, despite the strategic significance of the physical setting to service providers, the extant literature largely defines it as a quality perception from individual customers rather than conceptualizing and operationalizing it as a strategic asset at the organizational level.

We argue that service environment and its impact on customers should be considered at both individual and organizational levels, as Figure 1 depicts. In fact, our framework heeds the call from Russell and Mehrabian (1976). The authors contend that there are two classes of variables that explain consumer behaviors: "Those variables describing differences in environments... and those variables describing differences in the persons" (p. 62). This premise addresses the divide between the consumer-psychology view, which focuses on the linkage between environmental stimuli and individual perceptions, and the organizational-resource view, which focuses on utilizing the environment as a strategic asset and competitive advantage. More specifically, we predict that organizational-level service environment should not only influence impulsive gambling and other consumer behaviors, but it should also moderate the relationship between customer-perceived service environment and impulsive gambling. This view is reinforced by the institutional theory, which posits that the organization shape the actors' perceptions and behaviors. The environment, as Powell and DiMaggio (1991) describe, "[creates] lenses through which actors view the world and the very categories of structure, action, and thought" (p. 13). Such an institutional system and its environment exert strong effects on the individual actor's behaviors and preferences (Scott, 2001).

In a similar vein, the literature in psychology and management fields, such as the contingency theory (Battilana & Casciaro, 2012) and person-environment fit theory (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009), collectively suggests that individual outcomes are consequences of the combined influences emanating from personal and environmental variables. Cross-level interactions, which assessed the moderating effect of the research context on individual-level relationships, have been at center stage in recent academic literature because they help researchers gain a better understanding of how individual behaviors are contingent on the environment that actors are embedded within (Mathieu et al., 2012). For example, the study by Grizzle, Lee, Zablah, Brown, and Mowen (2009) shows that the relationship between employee customer orientation and customer-oriented behaviors (individual-level) is moderated by the organizational environment (e.g., customer orientation climate), in that the individual-level relationship is strengthened in organizations with a high level of customer orientation climate. Accordingly, we argue that the relationship between customer-perceived service environment and impulsive gambling should be strengthened in casinos that offer good service environment, whilst be weakened in casinos that put less emphasis on the environment.

H2: The relationship between service environment perceived by customers and impulsive gambling is moderated by casino-level service environment (CSE) in that the relationship should be stronger when CSE is high.

Impulsive Gambling and Behavioral Outcomes

Impulsion is characterized as choosing short-term gains over long-term ones, and involves a tendency to act on a whim and to behave with little consideration of the consequences (Evenden, 1999). Accordingly, impulsive buying is referred to as an unplanned decision to purchase a product or service; such decision is often made right before buying, and triggered by external stimuli of the product, causing the buyer to act irrationally and purchase the product for instantaneous gratification (Kalla & Arrora, 2011). The traditional consumer decision-making model has very little influence on this buying behavior. Unlike impulsive buying, compulsive buying is more inwardly motivated, and

experienced as an irresistible and uncontrollable urge to purchase or consume; it leads to adverse or severe negative consequences such as social, personal and/or financial difficulties (Kellett & Bolton, 2009; Valence, D'Astous, & Fortier, 1998). Compulsive buying may function as a means of alleviating negative feelings of stress and anxiety; the process of spending and consuming ultimately becomes addictive and disrupts the consumer's daily life (Black, 2001). Although functionally different, impulsive and compulsive buying are interrelated in that each demonstrates a tendency to act prematurely or inconsiderately and often results in negative outcomes (Berlin & Hollander, 2008). Impulsive buying has been claimed to be on a continuum with compulsive buying on one end and impulsion on the other (see Engel et al., 2005). Consistent with this view, we argue that impulsive buying eventually turns into compulsive buying when an individual tends to purchase impulsively in multiple situations. Our contention is consistent with the work of Sohn and Choi (2014), which suggests that impulsive and compulsive buying are different phases that ultimately lead to shopping addiction. This situation is particularly true in the gambling context.

Casinos are no longer a place where only gambling takes place. Resort-style facilities, especially those in Las Vegas, Macau, Genting Highlands and Singapore, are more appealing to recreational tourists, who appreciate the celebrity chefs, concerts, indoor and outdoor theme parks that casino resorts offer exclusively. Although not regular or professional gamblers, they may place a few bets while stimulated by casino ambience and atmosphere, or lured by peers' winnings (see Prentice, 2014). An initial impulse bet may turn into repetitive betting, given a lucky win that prompts a desire to win more, or by losing that drives the punter to win back. Winning for money and winning back losses have been identified as gambling motivation factors (Lee, Lee, Bernhard, & Yoon, 2006). On the basis of the continuum theory (Engel et al., 2005), initial unplanned gambling (impulsive gambling) ultimately leads to repetitive gambling which likely turns into compulsive gambling or problem gambling.

Previous research on compulsive gambling has analyzed motivation factors and focused on consequences. To better understand antecedents of compulsive gambling, we argue that impulsive gambling is an initial cause that leads to subsequent gambling behaviors manifested in visiting the casino frequently (visiting frequency), staying longer in the casino (length of stay), and spending more in the gaming area. Consistent with this discussion, the following hypotheses were proposed:

H3: Impulsive gambling is positively related to gamblers' visit frequency to a specific casino (FOV).

H4: Impulsive gambling is positively related to gamblers' length of stay in a specific casino (LOS).

H5: Impulsive gambling is positively related to gamblers' total spending in a specific casino.

Most research on gambling behavior and addiction is approached from a psychological perspective and focused on personal factors including personality and demographic information (Clarke, 2006; Stinchfield, 2004). Theory of planned behavior suggests that behavior is predicted by intention which is influenced by the individual's attitudes and subject norms (Ajzen, 1991). However, from the service management and marketing perspective, many gaming researchers have determined that casino service environment (including the casino servicescape, ambience, and physical surroundings) has influence on customer (gambler) satisfaction, desire to stay and intention to revisit. For example, Wong and Fong (2010) show that casino service environment is the most important predictor to gambler satisfaction and revisit intention. Prentice and Woodside (2013) find that gambler perception of casino ambience and facilities have influence on both their first choice of visit to the casino and on their propensity to switch venues. Although these factors may not determine gambler intention and behaviours, Lio and Rody's (2009) study indicates that casino service environment can enhance gambler mood and gaming experience in the casino, which prompts their gambling behaviours. On the basis of the foregoing discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6: The relationship between impulsive gambling and FOV, LOS, and total spending is moderated by casino-level service environment (CSE) in that the relationship should be stronger when CSE is high.

METHODS

*Sample*

The study was undertaken in Macau casinos. The survey was conducted at two occasions for the purpose of the study. A systematic sampling method was adopted with a skip interval of three. Prospective respondents were intercepted at the exit of the survey casinos. The first sample includes 1,393 completed responses from 35 casinos, with an average group size of 40 (ranging from 20 to 160). The second sample includes 530 complete responses that represent 22 casinos with an average group size of 24 (ranging from 20 to 50). The casino IDs for the two samples were matched to create a linkage between them. The questionnaire used in this research was developed in English and then translated in Chinese using the back-translation method by professional translators.
Of the respondents from the first sample, 52.1% were males; 36.5% were between the age of 21 and 30 while 28.9% were between the age of 31 and 40; 65% were from mainland China, 23% were from Hong Kong, and the rest from other parts of the world. Of the respondents from the second sample, 47.9% were males; 28.7% were between the age of 21 and 30, 40.2% between the age of 31 and 40; 38.6% held a bachelor's or higher degree while 32.6% received up to a high school education; 89.5% were from mainland China, and the rest from Hong Kong.

*Measures*

Overall casino service environment was measured based on two items adopted from Hightower et al. (2002), and each item was assessed by a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strong disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Respondents from Sample 1 were asked to rate the overall evaluation of a casino's service environment with statements such as "Generally, I am impressed and pleased with the environment." The scale has a reliability measure with Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha$) of .75. Since our focus is on overall casino-level service environment, we averaged and then aggregated the two items. We diagnosed the intermember reliability indexes (ICC[1] = .36, ICC[2] = .93, $F[21, 568] = 14.65$, $p <$ .001) and median interrater agreement (rwg[j] = .78). The results support aggregating individual perceived service environment to the casino level.

Customer-perceived service environment was measured by a 15-item servicescape scale from Hightower et al. (2002). Respondents from Sample 2 were asked to rate each of the items based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The scale assessed three dimensions of the construct based on the Bitner's (1992) work: ambient conditions (e.g., "The casino is clean"), space and function (e.g., "The physical facilities are comfortable"), and signs, symbols, and artifacts (e.g., "The signs are useful to me," "The materials used inside are pleasing and of high quality"). The three subscales demonstrate adequate reliability with $\alpha s \geq .73$.

Impulsive gambling was measured by four items adopted from Beatty and Ferrell's (1998) impulse buying behavior scale. Respondents from Sample 2 were asked to rate each of the items based on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly disagree). Examples of statements include: "When I stayed in this casino, I felt a spontaneous urge to gamble" and "When I stayed in this casino, my mind kept thinking about gambling." The scale is fairly reliable with an alpha of .91.

Sample 2 also includes measures of gamblers' behaviors such as their length of stay in a casino (LOS in hours), frequency of visit to the casino (FOV), and total spending in the casino in the most recent visit.

We addressed common method bias (CMB) by using multiple data sources. To further diagnose CMB

in Sample 2, the single-factor method was used. The results show that CMB is not a concern for the study ($\chi/df$ = 9.34, p < .001). We diagnosed multicollinearity, and the results indicate that it is not a limitation in the study as the variance inflation factors are below 2.0.

FINDINGS

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations of the constructs of interest. The results indicate significant correlations among the service environment measures and impulsive gambling (r ≥ .36, p < .001), while the correlations among the service environment measures and the three endogenous behavioral variables are substantially weaker. On average, the gamblers spent about 1.74 hours in a casino, visited the casino more than once (M = 1.61), and spend about USD $554 in the casino. While total spending is significantly correlated with length of stay (LOS) (r = .11, p < .05), it is not correlated with frequency of visit (FOV) (r = .02, n.s.).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations

|  | Mean | S.D. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Casino service environment | 3.35 | .54 | (.75) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. Ambient conditions | 3.38 | .70 | .37*** | (.79) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. Space and function | 3.42 | .80 | .31*** | .55*** | (.73) |  |  |  |  |
| 4. Signs, symbol, artifacts | 3.37 | .72 | .56*** | .57*** | .56*** | (.81) |  |  |  |
| 5. Gambling impulsion | 4.45 | 1.32 | .41*** | .36*** | .38** | .48*** | (.85) |  |  |
| 6. Length of stay | 1.74 | 1.12 | .24*** | .15** | .18*** | .22*** | .22*** |  |  |
| 7. Frequency of visit | 1.61 | 1.95 | .12** | .05 | .13** | .13* | .14** | .15*** |  |
| 8. Total spending | 554.06 | 1,469.27 | .12** | .13** | .07 | .10 | .11* | .19*** | .02 |

Note: * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001.
Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) are on the diagonal.
Casino-level means assigned down to the individual gamblers.
Correlations between individual and casino variables based on biased N = 530.

To test the hierarchical nature of the proposed relationship, hierarchical linear modeling with HLM 6.06 was used. Control variables include gamblers' demographics such as gender, age, and education level. Hypothesis 1 postulates a relationship between the three dimensions of customer-perceived service environment (i.e., servicescape) and impulsive gambling at the individual level. Results from Model 1 reveal that customer-perceived ambient conditions (b = .16, p < .10); space and function (b = .21, p < .01); and signs, symbols, and artifacts (SSA) (b = .19, p < .05) are positively related to impulse gambling, supporting Hypothesis 1 (see Table 2). Hypothesis 2 proposes a cross-level moderating effect of the service environment at the casino level on the relationship between the three servicescape dimensions and impulse gambling at the individual level. First, we tested the cross-level direct main effect leading from the casino-level service environment to the gamblers' impulsive gambling behaviors. Results show a significant relationship of the two variables ($\gamma$ = 1.04, p < .01). Next, we tested the cross-level interaction in Model 2. The results indicate only the casino-level service environment × SSA interaction is significant ($\gamma$ = .39, p < .05), partially supporting Hypothesis 2. To graphically illustrate the interaction effect, we followed Aiken and West (1991) and defined the moderator as high and low casino service environment by plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean (see Figure 2). The results suggest that the effect of customer-perceived SSA on impulse gambling is positive only when a casino offers a good overall service environment.

Table 2. Results of hierarchical linear modeling estimates of gambling impulsion

| | Model 1 | Model 2 |
|---|---|---|
| *Main effects* | | |
| Casino-level service environment (CSE) | 1.04** | 1.04** |
| Ambient conditions | .16† | .17* |
| Space and function | .21** | .20** |
| Signs, symbols, and artifacts (SSA) | .19* | .15† |
| *Cross-level Moderating effects* | | |
| CSE × ambient conditions | -- | -.12 |
| CSE × space and function | -- | .05 |
| CSE × SSA | -- | .39* |
| $R^2$ | .42 | .44 |

Noted: † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.
Parameter estimates are unstandardized.

We tested Hypotheses 3−5, which postulate a direct relationship leading from impulse gambling to three behavioral variables − FOV, LOS, and total spending − in Model 3. The results in Table 3 indicate that the effect of impulse gambling is significant for FOV ($b = .11$, $p < .05$) and spending ($b = 77.81$, $p < .05$), but not for LOS ($b = .04$, n.s.); the results support Hypotheses 3 and 5, but not Hypothesis 4. Next, we tested Hypothesis 6, which proposes a cross- level moderating effect of the service environment at the casino level, on the relationship between impulsive gambling and the three endogenous behavioral variables. We first tested the cross-level direct main effect leading from the casino-level service environment to the three endogenous variables. Results show a significant cross-level effect emanating from casino-level service environment to FOV ($\gamma = .45$, $p < .01$), LOS ($\gamma = .47$, $p < .01$), and spending ($\gamma = 285.34$, $p < .05$). Next, we tested the cross-level interaction in Model 4. The results indicate that only the casino-level service environment × LOS is significant ($\gamma = .20$, $p < .05$), partially supporting

Figure 2. Casino-level service environment x signs, symbols, and artifacts interaction on gambling impulsion
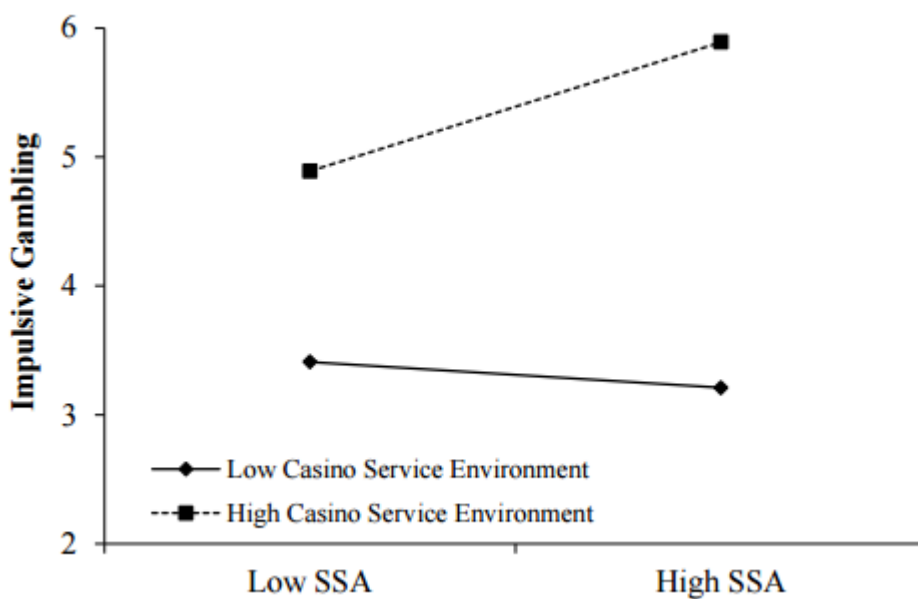
Hypothesis 6. We graphically illustrate the casino-level service environment × LOS interaction by following the procedure detailed above (see Figure 3). The results suggest that the effect of impulse gambling on LOS is positive if a casino offers a good overall service environment, while the effect is negative if a casino provides a low-quality service environment. That is, impulsive gambling has a divergent effect on people's length of stay in a casino, in that the effect is contingent on the casino's overall service environment. A comfortable and well-designed environment keeps people in the casino and wagering more; and hence, they spend more (r LOS, Spending = .11, p < .05).

We tested the mediating effect of impulsive gambling with respect to the effect emanating from customer-perceived service environment to the three endogenous variables using the Sobel test. Results suggest that impulsive gambling fully mediates the relationships leading from ambient conditions and SSA on FOV, LOS, and spending as well as the relationship leading from space and function on LOS. In addition, impulsive gambling partially mediates the relationships leading from space and function to FOV (Z = 1.98, p < .10) and spending (Z = 1.71, p < .10). We further tested the cross-level mediating effect leading from casino-level service environment to the three behavioral variables through impulsive gambling. The results support a partial mediating effect of impulsive gambling on the relationship between casino-level service environment and FOV (Z = 1.98, p < .05) and spending (Z = 1.87, p < .10), and a full mediating effect of impulsive gambling on relationship between casino-level service environment and LOS (Z = .59, n.s.).

Figure 3. Casino-level service environment x gambling impulsion on length of stay
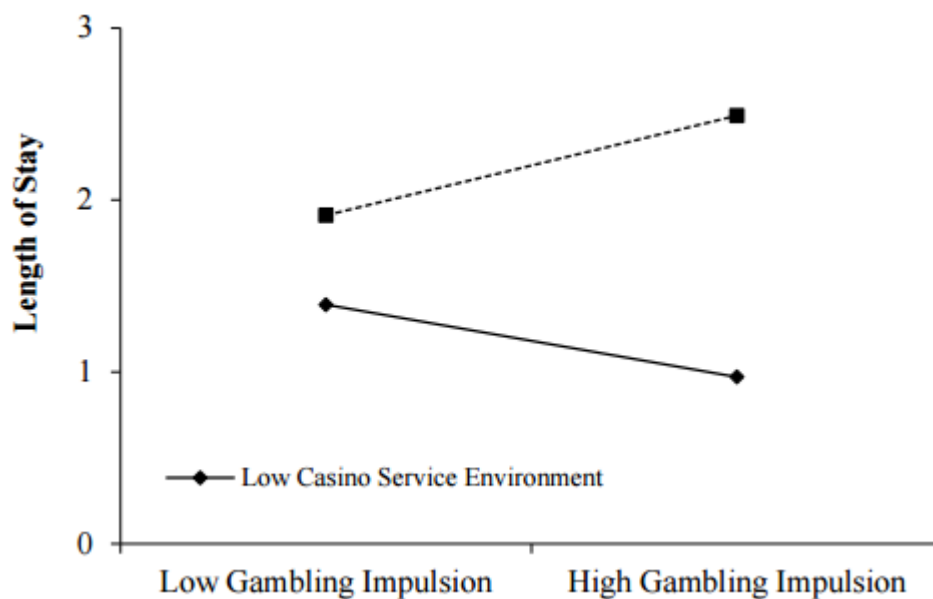


DISCUSSION

The present study investigates the relationships among casino service environment, impulsive gambling and gambling behaviors. The investigation is approached from both individual and organizational levels. The study analyzes the mediating role of impulsive gambling between individual perception of casino service environment (referred to as ICSE) and gambling behaviors, as well as the moderating effect of service environment on the organizational level (referred to as OCSE). Service environment on the individual level is operationalized into casino ambient conditions, space and function, and signs, symbols and artifacts. Analyses of gambling behaviors are focused on length of stay, gambler visiting frequency and total spending in the casino. Findings from testing the relationships among service environment, impulsive gambling and gambling behaviors show that both ICSE and OCSE have significant influence on impulsive gambling, which in turn has impact on

gambler visiting frequency and total spending in the casino. The mediation testing indicates that impulsive gambling partially or fully mediates the relationship between casino service environment and gambling behaviors. OCSE demonstrates significant moderation effects on the relationship between casino signs, symbols and artifacts, and on the relationship between impulsive gambling and length of stay. Discussion involving these findings follows.

*ICSE, OCSE and Impulsive Gambling*

This study sheds new light on academic inquires in regard to the service environment. Prior research by and large examines the relationship between the physical setting and customer behavioral outcomes at the individual level. As a result, discussions on the role of the service environment are resolved around and can only be inferred via customer perceptions rather than as a firm's tangible asset and value proposition. This study takes a different approach by incorporating both individual-level and organizational-level evaluations of the service environment to understand their joint effect on impulsive gambling and gambling behavioral outcomes. In particular, this study bridges the gap in the literature by assessing how the combined effects of ICSE and OCSE influence people's gambling urge. Furthermore, OCSE enhances the influence of the tangible casino environment (e.g., signs, symbols and artifacts) on impulsive gambling, demonstrating a significant positive moderating effect. That is, the findings imply that a casino's signage and artifacts trigger people's impulsion to gamble only in casinos with luxurious and exquisite physical designs.

*Impulsive Gambling, OCSE and Gambling Behaviors*

Results from testing the relationship between impulsive gambling and gambling behaviors indicate that the former has significant impact on gambler visiting frequency and total spending in the casino, but not on length of stay. Nevertheless, OCSE shows a significant cross- level direct positive effect on all three gambling behavioral outcomes, warranting the critical role of physical setting as a viable organizational asset. In other words, casino's overall environment plays a key role in prompting gamblers to stay longer, visit more, and spend more in the casino. OCSE also moderates the relationship between impulsive gambling and length of stay. This implies that people's gambling impulsion compels them to stay longer in a casino only if the casino offers an environment representing an oasis for indulgence. On the contrary, these people are likely to leave sooner if the casino fails to do so (perhaps to gamble at another casino with a better environment).

The association of impulsive gambling with frequency of visiting the casino and spending is plausible. Impulsive gambling is indicative of gamblers' spontaneous urge to gamble while staying in the casino. Such an urge (intention) or impulse prompts further action or behaviors (gambling). Winning evokes a thought or hope of more chances of winning; loss compels gamblers to win back by casting more bets. When the gambling budget on that trip is exhausted, the urge to win back promotes more trips to the casino. Such a cycle results in more spending and visits to the casino. Volume of gambling expenditure and visiting frequency are not necessarily related to the length of stay in the casino. A large bet can be exhausted in seconds. However, some gamblers enjoy the casino amenities and atmosphere. They prefer to stay in the gaming area within the casino property even without placing any bets, appreciating varieties of buffet, the exquisite décor and other gamblers' recreational enthusiasm (see Prentice, 2014). This accounts for the positive moderating effect of casino service environment on length of stay in the casino.

*The Mediation Relationship between ICSE or OCSE and gambling behaviors*

Appearance of a full mediation in perceived ambience and tangible amenities in the casino reveals the importance of gambler attitudes in determining their behaviors. This finding has profound implications for casino practitioners as well as for problem-gambling counselors. From a recreational gaming perspective, this finding provides guidelines for casinos on boosting gaming consumption by

managing gambler perception and attitudes. Similarly, problem- gambling counseling should be approached from moderating gambler attitudes to regulating problem behaviors.

The partial mediation between space and function and visiting frequency or spending indicates that ICSE with respect to a casino's grand design has a direct influence on gambling behaviors, and that themed, integrated casino resorts do appeal to gamblers and account for their patronage and gaming activity. This finding explains why gamblers opt for coming to casino resorts despite the existence of many other gambling opportunities such as online gambling (and playing Mahjong at home, in the case of Chinese). Results from post hoc analyses of a partial mediation relationship between OCSE and gambling behaviors indicate that casino environment on the organizational level also has a direct effect on gambler visiting frequency and casino spending.

IMPLICATIONS

The findings generated from this study yield theoretical and managerial implications. Theoretically, the study contributes to the service management literature by analyzing the influence of service environment on customer intentions and behaviors. In particular, the analyses of environmental factors are approached from both individual and organizational levels. This approach bridges the gap resulting from focusing on individual perception identified in previous research. The presence of a significant moderation effect demonstrated by the organizational service environment supports the approach. In particular, this study advances the service literature by understanding the joint effect of service offerings and environmental factors at different levels of the service encounter. It takes a leap forward in service research by enriching the theoretical understanding of the service quality domain in respect to how a firm's capabilities and resources could affect the relationship between individual-level service perceptions and consumer behaviors.

From the consumer behavior perspective, this research enriches the theory of planned behavior proposed and tested by Ajzen (1991) by analyzing a hierarchical relationship of perception (perceived service environment), attitudes or intention (impulsive gambling ) and behavior (gambling activities). The study also contributes to problem-gambling research by incorporating service environment factors into the analysis of impulsive gambling. Previous research on problem gambling is primarily focused on individual factors. Understanding the influence of organizational factors provides a fresh prospect for counselors looking into problem gambling.

Practically, understanding the influence of service environment on gambling activities would help casino practitioners identify appropriate factors for boosting consumption. However, the mediating effect explained by impulsive gambling in the relationship between casino service environment and gambling activities cautions casino practitioners to avoid promoting the factors that may trigger compulsive gambling behaviors. Casinos should focus on managing or moderating service factors in relation to casino tangibles that exert direct effects on gaming activities. The findings of this research also provide guidelines for problem-gambling counselors to undertake collaborative efforts with casino management for more effective counseling and treatment. Particularly, they should focus on the elements that are fully correlated to impulsive gambling.

Limitations and future research

Although this research demonstrates a significant contribution to both literature and practitioners, a number of limitations arise. The study analyses the influence of casino service environment on gambling behaviors from both individual and organizational perspectives. Incorporation of other organizational factors such as marketing promotions would provide a broad perspective on the impact of non-individual factors on gambler behaviors. Impulsive gambling in the current study is primarily focused on impulsive gambler intention to gamble. Including other problem-gambling scales that measure gambling consequences (such as the Canadian Problem Gambling Inventory) may provide more insights into the environment – problem gambling relationship. The sample frame of this study may limit the generalizability of applying its findings to other contexts. Nevertheless, this study offers

gambling researchers a new perspective on approaching problem gambling from both individual and organizational levels.

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# ABSTRACTS

SOCIAL DISTANCE BETWEEN JAPANESE RESIDENTS AND
INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

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ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the social impacts of tourism in Japan; specifically it focuses on the perceived social distance Japanese residents hold towards varying tourist nationalities. Data has been collected from Japanese residents across the top five tourism destinations in Japan. Respondents were asked to complete a multi item social distance scale and a host community attitude to tourism scale. Data is currently being analysed and the relationship between perceived social distance and overall tolerance and acceptance of tourism will be reported on at this conference.

Key words: social impacts, social distance, Japan

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

In 2012, Japan's Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism released the 'White Paper on Tourism in Japan'. This document outlines a target of 18 million foreign tourists to Japan by 2016, with a further long- term target of 25 million by early 2020 (up from 12 million foreign tourists in 2014, www.tourism.jp/en/statistics). Clearly, there is a government commitment to increasing international tourist numbers and revenue to Japan. As we know through tourism social impact research, a key factor in a destination's success in becoming a desirable tourism destination is the receptiveness of local host communities towards tourism and international visitors (Pizam, 1978; Lui & Var, 1986; Chen & Raab, 2012). For a population not accustomed to large numbers of foreign visitors, it is important to understand how receptive Japanese residents will be toward tourism development and the tourists that it encourages.

Many tourism social impact studies have concentrated on host community attitudes towards tourism development (e.g. Pizam, 1978; Lui & Var, 1986; Williams & Lawson, 2001; Siu, Lee & Leung, 2013). However more limited research has been done on the characteristics of the visitor that the community receives, specifically, the social distance between hosts and visitors, and the impact this has on acceptance and tolerance of tourism. This study considers

the notion that most people and communities have a natural affinity with visitors who are socially and culturally similar to them by proposing a link between social distance and the acceptance of, and hospitality towards, tourists. Bogardus (1940) defines social distance as the "degree of co- operative behaviour that may be expected in a particular social situation. It has also been defined as the degree of sympathetic understanding that exists between persons, between groups, and between a person and their group". This notion is extremely important with regard to tourism development in understanding whether host communities are going to support different visitor markets and be comfortable with increased numbers of culturally dissimilar visitors. Although social distance has been commonly employed in the study of race, nationality and cross-cultural contact (Owen, Eisner & McFaul, 1981) it has seldom been applied to a tourism context. Exceptions to this are Thyne and Lawson (2001) who developed a social distance scale and applied it to a New Zealand context, Sinkovics and Penz (2009) who adapted that social distance scale to suit an Austrian context, and Yilmaz and Tasci (2014) who looked at social distance in Mugla, Turkey.

Our research objectives for this paper are to:

1. Measure the degree of social distance that Japanese demonstrate towards tourists who are more physically/culturally different to them;
2. Measure the degree of social distance that Japanese demonstrate towards tourists who are more physically/culturally similar to them;
3. Determine how differing degrees of social distance affect overall acceptance and tolerance of tourism.

To address the research objectives above, a questionnaire was developed which included a validated scale measuring host community attitudes to tourism and its development and a validated social distance scale, as well as respondent demographics. The host community attitude scale was made up of 45 attitude statements adapted from those designed by Lawson et al. (1998) and later used by Williams and Lawson (2001). The items were adapted by the co-authors of this paper to make them more applicable to a Japanese context. Only two items from this scale will be referred to in this paper, as representations of general tourism attitudes.

Along with a tourism attitude/opinion section, each questionnaire also contained a multi item social distance scale (Thyne & Lawson, 2001). In total, 64 items were used to represent varying degrees of social distance or social intimacy between a Japanese resident and an international visitor. Items in the multi-item measure required respondents to indicate their response on a seven-point rating scale with regard to how comfortable they believed the average Japanese person would be in various situations which included contact with different tourist nationalities (1= very comfortable, 7= very uncomfortable). Four different origins of international tourists were chosen to test the proposition that the extent of social distance observed would vary depending on the cultural and physical similarity of the host and visitor. Taiwan, China, the USA and Australasia were deemed to represent a range of cultures and physical characteristics, while also being of strategic importance to Japan as key markets for inbound tourists (www.tourism.jp/en/statistics). To avoid respondent fatigue, each questionnaire only referred to two of the four countries, resulting in two data sets for each Japanese destination: Taiwanese and Australasian tourists in one data set and Chinese and US tourists in the other.

Two bilingual researchers refined and adapted the scale items to suit the Japanese context and then translated (and back translated) the scale into Japanese. The questionnaire was distributed via a research panel to respondents across the top five tourism destinations in Japan (Tokyo, Osaka, Fukuoka, Kyoto and Hokkaido). A total of 300 respondent's representative of age, gender and income per location were gathered; (1500 respondents in total; 750 responding to the social distance scale on Taiwanese and Australasian visitors and 750 on Chinese and US visitors).

Preliminary data analysis show significant differences in the degree of social distance ascribed to Taiwanese and Chinese tourists versus the Australasian and US tourists. That is, respondents suggested that the average Japanese resident would feel more comfortable in various contact situations

with Australasian and US tourists. A regression analysis was also undertaken to determine the relationship between social distance and overall attitudes towards tourism. Results confirmed a strong relationship between lower perceived social distance and more positive attitudes to tourism, however, contrary to research objectives 1 and 2, the findings suggest Japanese respondents feel less social distance toward European visitors than toward visitors from other Asian nations. Possible reasons for this observed relationship will be expanded upon in the conference presentation.

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# CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND ITS EFFECTS ON PROMOTION: A STUDY IN TOURISM ENTERPRISES

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## EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Career is a sequence of related work experiences and activities, directed at personal and organizational goals, through which a person passes during his or her lifetime (Orpen, 1994). Career outcomes are often the joint result of individual efforts and outside forces over which the individual does not have complete control (Lent & Brown, 2006). Therefore, the responsibility for career development lies both with individuals and with the organization which employs them. The study explores empirically organizational career development activities and its effects on promotion, as perceived by employees. It attempts to identify through explanatory factor analysis what are the major dimensions of such activities and how they relate to each other, to develop useful guidelines for firms in their efforts to improve the careers of their employees, for their benefit and that of the firm itself. A theoretical model was proposed based on the literature. While doing the literature review it was realized that there were limited researches investigating the effects of career development activities on promotion. This research aimed to contribute to fill in this gap.

A questionnaire was developed to collect primary data, and so to test hypotheses proposed on the theoretical model. Survey was conducted to the employees of business entities operating in tourism industry. Data was analyzed based on 183 valid responses. Data was analyzed with descriptive statistics, explanatory factor analysis (EFA) and multiple regression technique.

EFA analysis suggested to group items of the career development activities construct in three sub constructs: career consultancy, organizational planning, and organizational support. Further analysis was conducted with these composite variables. Multiple regression analysis was used to test if the promotions significantly predicted by the career development activities.

The results of the regression analysis indicated that promotions significantly predicted by the career development activities ($R^2 = 0,154$, $F(18,992) = 10,459$, $p < ,01$) ). It was also found out that "organizational support" significantly predicted promotions ($\beta=.248$, $t(179) = 2,732$, $p < .05$) however career consultancy ($\beta = .145$, $p>.05$) and organizational planning ($\beta = .196$, $p>.05$) were not significant.

Research findings suggested that organizations may adopt clear promotion strategies to enhance employees' career satisfaction. This may increase the organizations' ability to

attract and retain qualified employees. Employees often strive to fulfill their obligations, by showing greater organizational commitment, higher productivity levels, higher job satisfaction and lower turnover levels, when they perceive that the company is fulfilling its obligations through proper career development practices, promotion, training and support.

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# LIFESTYLE IMMIGRANTS IN DALI CHINA: TYPES AND IDENTITY

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## ABSTRACT

Numerous Chinese escape from the metropolis in east China to environmental friendly small cities or towns in west China for comfortable and relaxed life. Who are these people and what are their place identity to the local place remains unknown. The paper, with 38 interviewees sampled in Dali of west China, which is a popular tourist destination with abundant attractions for relax life, analyses the types of lifestyle immigrants and their motivations, their place identity to the local places. The findings indicate that small business owners, young labor who escaped from modern urban life, social elites who live in seclusion are the mainstream of the lifestyle immigrants in Dali, they seek for the dream lifestyle in Dali, but their sense of place and place identity varies. The small business owners usually has property in metropolis, and there are change their middle class lifestyle in metropolis, and they has a strong place identity to the life rhythm of Dali. The escaping young labors usually under 30, they are afraid of competitive lifestyle in big cities, they strongly identified with the natural environment of Dali. The social elites who live in seclusion in Dali, most of them are artists or professional workers, they pay more attention to the local culture of minority and mountain-lake landscape. The research contributes to the current research by exploring the relationship among destination personality, immigrants' motivation and place identity in a qualitative way.

Key words: Place identity, destination personality, lifestyle immigrants, motivation

# SPECIAL EVENT VOLUNTEERS' MOTIVATION, ENGAGEMENT, AND RETENTION

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## ABSTRACT

Volunteers contribute a lot to the success of many special events. Understanding the factors that impact special event volunteerism will assist in event volunteer management. Using a self-administrated questionnaire as the instrument, this study examines the relationships among volunteers' motivation for volunteering, engagement to the events, and their willingness of retention at one special event held in Stillwater, Oklahoma. The study will conclude by providing event practitioners possible suggestions about how to best recruit, train, and retain volunteers, which helps to maintain a long term relationship with volunteers and contribute more to the success of special events.

Key words: special events, volunteer motivation, engagement, retention

## INTRODUCTION

Event volunteering has attracted increasing attention because of its importance to the success of many events. Volunteers provide their labor, knowledge, skills, time, and experience at no wage cost to the utilizing organization, serving as heroes to many events. As a result, understanding the factors that impact event volunteerism is very important for researchers and practitioners who try to understand how to better manage the volunteers. Most of the studies on event volunteerism focus on the motivation and satisfaction of volunteers (Johnston, Twynam, & Farrell, 2000; Ralston, Downward, & Lumsdon, 2004; Reeser, Berg, Rhea, & Willick, 2005; Monga, 2006; Fairley, Kellett, & Green, 2007; Khoo & Engelhorn, 2011), little is known about the engagement of volunteers and its relationship with motivation and willingness of retention. In order to gain a better knowledge about event volunteers and maintain a long-term relationship with volunteers, there is a need to explore the relationships among event volunteers' motivation, engagement, and their willingness of retention.

Most of the studies related to volunteering focus on sport events (Reeser et al., 2005; Fairley, Kellett, & Green, 2007; Giannoulakis, Wang, & Gray, 2008; Doherty, 2009), very few studies examine the volunteering in special event area. Special event is a rapid growing niche in event and meeting industry. According to Getz (1997), special events can be defined as "temporary occurrences, either planned or unplanned, though some may be periodic, but each one has a unique ambiance created by the combination of its length, setting, management and those in attendance" (p. 4). Special event is a board concept that it includes a variety of activities from a cuisine festival to a holiday parade and Christmas Pageant. Special events also range in different scales: it can as small as with only 30 participants, or it can as big as holding thousands of people. Due to the increasing complexities of holding these events together with associated financial constraints, special events are particularly reliant on the involvement of volunteers, who undertake important tasks from the beginning to the end. If researchers could find ways to retain repeated volunteers who are already well trained, it will be very helpful for the organizers of special events to save preparation time and reduce costs. To find out the ways to retain volunteers, there is a need to explore the factors that may affect

volunteers' willingness of retention, which are motivation and engagement in the present study. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between special event volunteers' motivation and engagement, and to explore how engagement is related to the willingness of retention. The study also examines the impact of engagement in mediating the relationship between motivation and willingness of retention. The present study will contribute to the understanding of the relationship among motivation, engagement, and retention.

The result will provide event practitioners possible suggestions about how to best recruit, train, and retain volunteers, which will help to reduce costs, maintain a long term relationship with volunteers and contribute more to the success of the special events.

LITERATURE REVIEW

*Motivation*

Extensive literature has explored the motivations of volunteers and the reasons of volunteering (Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Farrell, Johnston, & Twynam, 1998; Ralston, Downward, & Lumsdon, 2004; Reeser, Berg, Rhea, & Willick, 2005; Fairley, Kellett, & Green, 2007). Two-dimensional and three-dimensional models are widely used to describe the motivations of volunteers. The two-dimensional models distinguish between egoistic and altruistic motivations (Horton-Smith, 1981; Clary & Miller, 1986; Latting, 1990). An egoistic motivation is the incentive to individuals that leads to the increase of their own welfare (Batson, 1991). An altruism motivation is associated with the individuals who act with the ultimate goal of improving others' welfare (Pinker, 1979; Horton-Smith, 1981).

The three-dimensional models categorize motivations as altruistic/normative/purposive, material/utilitarian, and solidary/affective/social motivations (Adams, 1980; Knoke & Prensky, 1984; Fitch, 1987; Morrow-Howell & Mui, 1989). Material/utilitarian motivations are related to the rewards that have monetary value or can be transformed into monetary value, such as salaries, learning opportunities, information, and property value (Taylor, 1995). Solidary/affective/social motivations are associated with social interaction, networking, interpersonal relationships, friendships, group status and group identification (Knoke & Prensky, 1984). Altruistic/normative/purposive motivations are based on concerns of a suprapersonal nature and appeal to values such as community support, civic responsibility and environmental concern (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994).

Monga (2006) argues that the motivations of volunteers for special events are different with other forms of volunteering because special events are of limited duration, have festival spirit, and offer a special leisure, social, and cultural experience. Monga (2006) adds one more dimension—affiliatory—to the three-dimensional model and distinguish the prevailing "material/utilitarian" category into egoistic motivations (intangible rewards) and instrumental motivations (tangible rewards). As a result, a five-dimensional framework is developed to highlight the main characteristics of motivation of volunteers in special events:

*Egoistic motivations* aim at achieving personal intangible goals through volunteering activity (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992). They are derived from the intrinsic and personal needs of the ego, which lead to enhanced self-esteem by making the individual feel he/she is important or needed through participating the events (Monga, 2006).

*Instrumental motivations* include the tangible rewards such as free admission to the event, souvenirs, appreciation certificates or even training opportunities that may enhance their future careers (Andrew, 1996).

*Solidary motivations* are associated with social interaction, networking, interpersonal relationships, friendships, group status and group identification (Knoke & Prensky, 1984).

*Altruistic motivations* are based on social responsibility and devotion to the welfares of others. Participants with altruistic motivations desire to accomplish something useful or worthwhile to others (Milo, 1973).

*Affiliatory motivations* emphasize the individuals' special sense of attachment to and affiliation with the event. Volunteers participate in the event is mainly because they were involved or associated with the event previously, or because they are attracted by the unique ambiance created by the event (Monga, 2006).

Allen and Bartle (2013) investigate the volunteers' engagement at sport events and find that volunteers' motivations are positively related to their engagement to the events. However, the authors treat motivation as a whole concept and don't differentiate different types of motivations in their study. In order to further examine the relationships between each motivation of volunteers at special events and their engagement to the events, five hypothesized positive relationships between volunteers' motivation and engagement (H1 to H5) will be tested in this research.

*Engagement*

Engagement can be defined as a "positive, fulfilling, affective- motivational state of work-related wellbeing" (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008, p. 187). Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonza´lez-Roma´, and Bakker (2002) state that engagement is "positive fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption". Organizations look for workers "who feel energetic and dedicated, who are absorbed by their work. In other words, they need engaged workers" (Bakker et al., 2008, p. 147). Similarly, event organizers also pursue engagement from volunteers who can deliver high quality programs and services in events (Cuskelly, Hoye, & Auld, 2006). Researches show a positive relationship between engagement and work performance, which is a desired outcome of event organizers (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Bakker et al., 2008; Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). Engaged workers are more likely to experience positive emotions, have better health, and provide support to others, which can improve performance (Bakker et al., 2008; Demerouti & Cropanzano, 2010). Engaged volunteers can function the same way since they also use the best of their ability and knowledge, deal with demands better, and work with others more effectively.

Even though little is known about how engagement is related to retention, it will be interesting and insightful to explore the relationship between volunteers' engagement and their willingness of retention – willingness to   volunteer for the same event again – which is one of the desired outcome of event organizers. Engaged volunteers are more involved into the events and can feel special attachment to the events. They are more likely to achieve what they expect to achieve and gain more from the events. The feeling of fulfillment will make them stay for the event and be willing to volunteer for the same event next time. Therefore, a hypothesized positive relationship between volunteers' engagement and their willingness of retention (H6) will be tested in this research.

> H1: There is a positive relationship between volunteers' egoistic motivation and engagement.
> H2: There is a positive relationship between volunteers' instrumental motivation and engagement.
> H3: There is a positive relationship between volunteers' solidary motivation and engagement.
> H4: There is a positive relationship between volunteers' altruistic motivation and engagement.
> H5: There is a positive relationship between volunteers' affiliatory motivation and engagement.
> H6: There is a positive relationship between volunteers' engagement and their willingness of retention.

## METHODS

This study will use a paper and pencil questionnaire as the instrument, using items derived from the Monga (2006) model of motivations of volunteers at special events, and from the work of Allen and Bartle (2013). The questionnaire items will be derived from two focus groups of (1) the director and manager of the Oklahoma City Convention and Visitors Bureau (CVB) and (2) Oklahoma State University students enrolled in meeting and convention management class. The target population will be the volunteers at a special event being held in April, 2015 at Stillwater, Oklahoma. Researchers will first contact the organizers of the event to get the permission to survey the volunteers. The questionnaires will be distributed at the green room for volunteers on the event day. Therefore, a completely random survey will be used in this study.

After the data is collected and coded, SPSS 20.0 will be used to do the data analysis. Hierarchical regression analysis will be used to examine the relationships among motivation, engagement, and retention.

Figure 1 Research framework
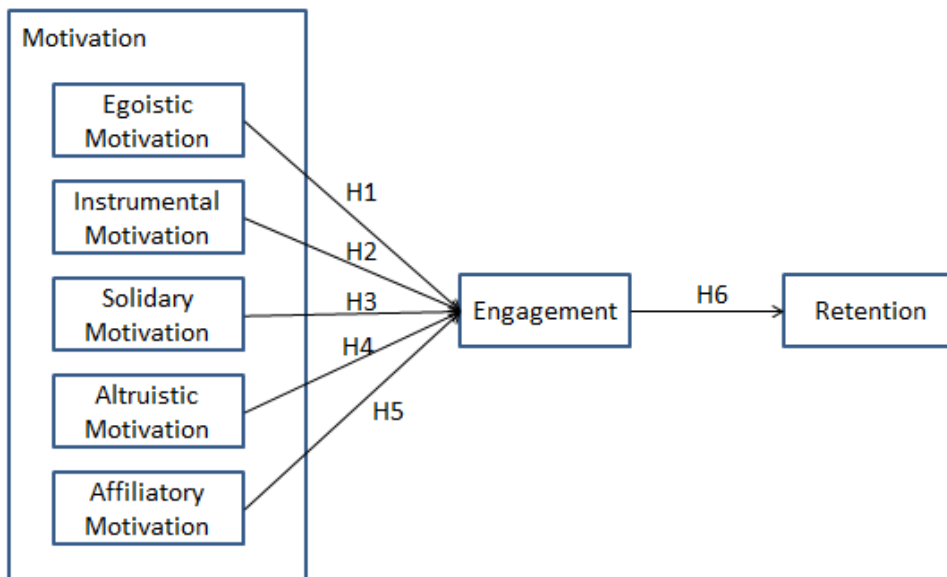
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# BRANDING COPPOLA WINERY:
## LEVERAGING FRANCIS COPPOLA BRAND EQUITY TO WINERY OPERATION

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## ABSTRACT

Coppola Winery has gained prominence through its innovative branding strategy. The winery has introduced a series of innovative wine packages and labeling to attract millennial wine consumers. In addition, the winery has leveraged the brand equity of Francis Coppola, a well-known movie director in its winery operation in many different ways. The purpose of this study is to examine Coppola Winery's brand management strategy using a case study method. The results of the study will provide winery operators with insights about how to develop creative branding strategies for their wineries.

Key words: Coppola, Winery, Branding

## INTRODUCTION

Coppola Winery situated in Sonoma County, California has been attracted the attention of the wine industry due to its unique and innovative brand management. Francis Coppola, who directed a well-known movie series "Godfather," has owned and operated Coppola Winery since 2010. While wineries generally focus on the aspects of wine production such as improvement of wine quality and vineyard management, the Coppola Winery focus on innovations by introducing entertainment and hospitality components into their winery operations. Specifically, the winery houses the Francis Coppola Museum inside the winery. The museum displays the movie works of Francis Coppola including the car used in Francis Coppola's movie and clothing items worn by the stars of Francis Coppola's movies. Also, the winery has a variety of hospitality management facilities such as a swimming pool, an Italian dining restaurant, and a private catering facility in the winery which leads the winery to extend the winery beyond being a place for wine tasting and drinking but also be a place for entertainment and dining.

Furthermore, the winery has adopted a number of innovations in brand management. For example, the winery launched the Gina line of wine which was developed to target young female consumers. Specifically, the Gina wine line designed its label, bottle, and packaging to attract more female consumers who look for stylish and feminine wine product. Thus, the study explores how the Coppola Winery has been able to blend the hospitality and entertainment components into their winery operations. The purpose of the study is also to investigate the innovative brand management strategy of the Coppola Winery.

METHOD

The researchers will adopt the case study method to investigate the research questions posited above. The researchers will conduct in-depth personal interviews with the President and the Marketing Director of the Coppola Winery. The researchers will triangulate the results of the interviews by comparing them with relevant academic research and articles from trade magazines to enhance the validity of the results of the study.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

While there are numerous studies that tap into wine marketing, there has been very little research related to wine and winery branding in spite of the importance of this topic. The results of the present study will provide some insightful brand management suggestions for wineries who plan to engage into competitive and sustainable wine branding. Furthermore, this study will illuminate how wineries can embed hospitality and entertainment components into their winery operations to leverage their brand equity and to increase winery revenues.

# URBAN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NIAGARA FALLS, CANADA

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## EXTENDED   ABSTRACT

While Niagara Falls, Ontario, Canada is home to the world famous waterfalls, it is also an evolving urban tourism destination. From high-rise hotels and casinos to scenic parks and golf courses, Niagara Falls has undergone tremendous transformation in recent years. Within the Official Plan for the City, a Tourist Commercial Area has been established in and around Niagara Falls as well as for satellite tourism districts away from the main viewing area of the waterfalls. This commercial area is based on the Niagara Falls Tourist Area Development Strategy. This presentation will examine the evolution of tourism development in the city with a focus on the recent planning decisions that have changed the character of the tourism area setting precedents for future expansions. Sections of the City resemble Hannigan's Fantasy City (1998) which are cities that present fantasy experiences as factories, piers and warehouses are replaced by casinos, megaplexes, and themed restaurants (Hannigan 1998). Revisiting the topic in 2007, Hannigan suggests that the fantasy city development is on the wane in North America and flourishing in other regions most notably in Dubai, however in Niagara Falls, the trend continues.

One of the major changes has been in regards to decisions on building heights for hotels in the Fallsview tourist area on top of the Niagara Escarpment. The Niagara River flows from Lake Erie over the Escarpment generating the waterfalls known as Niagara Falls. The City has had a changing height policy   for hotels on the Escarpment overlooking the falls that was once set at 30 storeys. Building heights   continue to rise in this area topping the 60-storey mark making them among the tallest hotels in the country. Along the Escarpment the City has approved two large-scale hotel and condominium development projects but construction has not yet started. The Loreto project comprises 7.5 acres and the proposal includes 3 towers. The North Tower will be 42 storeys with 300 unit condominiums or 690 hotel rooms, the Central Tower will be 57 storeys with 800 hotel rooms and the South Tower will be 32 storeys with 484 hotel rooms. The Niagara River Road Luxury Resort contains a proposal for two towers at 61 and 60 storeys   each with 488 and 478 suites respectively. The presentation will include an examination of the formulas used to generate development fees for the hotels over 30 storeys.

Niagara Falls is also home to two casinos, Fallsview Casino Resort and Casino Niagara. In 2013 the City was able to renegotiate with the Ontario Lottery & Gaming Corporation

(provincial agency in charge of gaming) the fee the City receives for hosting the casinos. The new agreement is expected to generate $20 million up from the previous $3 million under the older agreement. The commercial area of Clifton Hill runs perpendicular to the Niagara River is focused on human made attractions including wax museums, amusements and restaurants and is home to the 175-foot Niagara Skywheel (Ferris Wheel). The Scotiabank Convention Centre open in 2012 is a 288,000 square foot building certified as LEED sliver (Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design) and in 2013 generated $93 million in economic impact (Niagara Falls 2014). The city is also home to the controversial Marineland, an aquarium based theme park with dolphins and whales.

A central component of the Official Plan is to incorporate green space. The Niagara Parks Commission operates the park area that runs the length of the Niagara River and includes the waterfalls and is in stark contrast to the more commercial areas. However, the Parks Commission has been adding tourist facilities on its properties such as a Butterfly Conservatory. The Niagara Parks Commission recently signed a new agreement for cruises in the Niagara River up to the base of the waterfalls, which was previously operated by the Maid of the Mist. Hornblower Niagara Cruises was awarded the new contract for 30 years. Hornblower will utilize two 700-passenger catamaran boats for the trips to the base of the Falls. The contract will generate $300 million more than the previous agreement (Ricciuto 2015). The Niagara Parks Commission has also rebuilt their inclined railway that takes tourists from the top of the Niagara Escarpment down to Table Rock, the main viewing area of the waterfalls. The inclined railway was redesigned to be enclosed for year round operation at the cost of $ 7 million. The Niagara Parks Commission and the City of Niagara Falls are also partners in a new integrated $50 million dollar WEGO bus service with 27 new buses travelling between the tourist areas in Niagara Falls.

The developments in Niagara Falls have changed the character of the tourism area in the city. Critics argue that a wall of hotels have been built on the escarpment that blocks out the sun later in the afternoon. Studies have been completed which indicate a backdraft has been created by the wall of hotels. Under certain wind conditions it has resulted in mist being drawn from the spray of the waterfalls being dumped on the falls viewing area. In the winter this has resulted in ice build up and has changed the visitor experience. This presentation will examine the changing nature of urban tourism in Niagara Falls in the context of the Official Plan and recent policy changes.

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# UNDERSTANDING CHINESE OUTBOUND TRAVELER'S MOTIVATIONS: A STUDY ON CHINESE VISITORS TO HAWAII

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## ABSTRACT

This study applies the theory of push and pull factors of travel motivation as a basic theoretical framework to explore the motivational factors that drive and attract Chinese outbound tourists to travel to Hawaii. Primarily, questionnaire survey has been conducted to collect the primary data, and analytical methods including frequency distribution, descriptive analysis, and factor analysis and t test are utilized to understand the characteristics of travel motivations that have had significant influences on Chinese travelers to Hawaii. The data analysis has revealed the importance order of motivational items affecting Chinese tourists and identified five principal factor components in both push and pull dimensions. Business implications of major findings as well as the limitations to the study have been discussed in the end.

Key words: travel motivation, push and pull factors, Chinese outbound tourism, Hawaii

## INTRODUCTION

Chinese outbound tourism has experienced tremendous growth in recent decades due to the government relaxed policies and economic prosperity (Zhang et al., 1999). UNWTO report (2013) had pointed out that the total number of Chinese outbound tourists in 2011 was approximately 83 million trips overseas in 2012, up 18% over 2011 (UNWTO, 2013). On the other hand, the international travel expenditure by Chinese visitors in 2012 was 102 billions, with China become the biggest international tourism spender in 2012, surpassing Germany and the United State of American was (UNWTO, 2013) Given the

huge potential of Chinese outbound tourism market as well as the increasingly important role that Chinese outbound tourism plays in the global tourism industry, this study seeks to explore and understand Chinese outbound tourists' travel motives and identify primary destination attributes that attract Chinese tourists.

This study applies the theory of push and pull factors of travel motivation to test and to explore the degree of influences associated with different motivational factors that drive and attract Chinese outbound tourists to travel to Hawaii. Primarily, a questionnaire survey has been conducted to collect the primary data from Chinese tourists, and analytical methods including descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and t tests were utilized to understand the different factors that significantly motivated Chinese travelers.

This study has identified "have fun and be entertained", "spend time with family or friends", and "broaden horizons" as the top three important push motivational items while items such as "have others know that I have been to the destination" and "gain a sense of accomplishment" as the most unimportant. This finding coincides with Zhang and Lam (1999)'s finding that relaxation is one of the four push factors that motivate Chinese tourists to travel abroad. In addition to ranking both push and pull motivational items, this study has shown that five principal push motivational components labeled as "ego-enhancement and self- development", "knowledge and novelty seeking", "relationship strengthening", "destination participation and socialization", and "escape and relax" are the major driving forces that push and motivate Chinese outbound tourist to traveling. The most important component among them is "ego-enhancement and self-development".

Regarding the impacts of push and pull factors on different demographic groups, this study finds that the impact of five principal motivational components on male and female travelers has no statistically significant difference. However, "relationship strengthening", "destination participation and socialization" and "escape and relax" components are likely to bring about different degrees of impact on single and married travelers. The results of findings have indicated that "ego-enhancement and self-development" component exerts more influence on travel motivations of Chinese tourists with high school, college/university or technical/professional education backgrounds than those with post graduate education, and that "knowledge and novelty seeking" and "escape and relax" component tends to affect Chinese tourists born between 1982 and 2000 in a greater extent.

On the pull side, this study has disclosed that female married travelers are more likely to be attracted by destinations providing easily accessible travel information, and that single travelers prefer destinations with the offerings of leisure and outdoor activities. Additionally, travelers born between 1946 and 1964 regard the "easily accessible travel information" factor as more important than do those of any other age groups while travelers born in the 1982-2000 group are more inclined to favor destinations which offer a large selection of leisure and outdoor activities.

This study has made contributions to both academically and practically. Theoretically speaking, this study applies the push and pull theory of travel motivation to reveal the important motivational items and to identify the principal motivational factor components that affect Chinese outbound tourists' behavior prior to their departure for Hawaii. In a practical point of view, as the number of Chinese outbound tourists grows, understanding Chinese tourists' destination choice becomes a critical part of the overall strategic marketing management for destination strategists and planners across the world. Motivation for Chinese tourists to travel plays a significant role in formulating such a process. This study, which sets out to explore and identify push and pull motivational factors in light of Chinese tourists' travel to the destination, hence provides great insights for destination marketing organizations to effectively develop tourism related products which target Chinese visitors.

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# DESTINATION MARKETING AND VISITOR PERCEPTIONS: THEIR INFLUENCE ON VISITOR DELIGHT, PLACE ATTACHMENT AND POSITIVE WORD-OF-MOUTH

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## ABSTRACT

When confronted with increasingly experienced, demanding and sophisticated visitors, it remains a problem for destination marketers to achieve favourable marketing outcomes including positive word of mouth (WOM), visitor delight and place attachment. This research aims to establish a new visitor behavioural model to explain the complexities involved in the formation of these marketing results. It investigates the importance of destination marketing, visitor expectations, perceptions and psychological traits on visitor delight, place attachment and positive WOM.

Destination image, destination attractiveness and information are elements that can be manipulated and controlled by destination marketers in the travel system. Visitor experience is a dynamic interaction process between visitors and the travel system. Expectations before the trip and perceptions during the trip both contribute to the creation of the visitor experience. Firstly, expectation determines the perception of the service performance and the overall evaluation of the visitor experience. Secondly, the experiential nature of tourism emphasizes that visitor experiences stem from the pursuit of fantasies, feelings and fun. Literature suggests that the world of tourism is about having fun. However, the concept of fun in the tourism context remains largely under theorized in both conceptualization and operationalization aspects. Visitors not only search for pleasure but also for authenticity. The importance of authenticity and the need to connect the concept with other themes in tourism studies have been highlighted in previous literature. Further, albeit advocated as the center of all business practices, customer orientation is a relatively new construct in destination marketing research. Despite the recent academic interest in customer orientation, the majority of literature investigates the concept as an element of corporate culture from the perspective of the marketer. Much is to be unearthed about customer orientation from the customer's perspective.

It is proposed that customer expectations, as well as perceived customer orientation, fun and authenticity are principal mediators that convert the benefits of destination marketing into

favourable marketing results. In addition to the above process, visitors' psychological characteristics are incorporated in the conceptual framework as moderators to offer a clearer and better understanding of the mechanism. The present study aims to extend prior research by exploring the differential role of value consciousness and novelty seeking in the relationship between destination marketing offerings and visitors' reactions.

Data will be collected mainly from Chinese visitors to Australia using a survey approach at various important Australian tourism destinations. Scholars have emphasized the distinctive "Chinese tourist gaze" and suggest that Chinese visitors might have preferences and perceptions that are rather different from those of western visitors. But the conventional marketing wisdom is mainly derived from research and practice with western customers. Thus investigation into Chinese visitors to Australia will make an interesting and fruitful contribution to the existing literature.

A variety of data analysis methods will be employed to test the hypotheses. These include multiple regressions; moderated mediation and structural equation modelling. The paper's theoretical contributions, its limitations and practical implications for destination marketing and delivering exceptional value to meet Chinese visitors' expectations in particular are discussed.

# INTERNATIONAL TOURISM CONSULTANT PERSPECTIVES ON PRO-POOR TOURISM PROJECTS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT

Tourism continues to be not just one of the fastest growing industries in developing countries, but also has the potential to offer practical and accessible solutions to the development challenges of fledgling economies. The number of international tourist arrivals to developing countries has increased dramatically and the subsequent economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts have brought their own set of challenges (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2013).

The most recent Human Development Report: The Rise of the South: Human Progress in a Diverse World notes 'over the last decade all countries accelerated their achievements in the education, health and income dimensions as measured in the Human Development Index (HDI) – to the extent that no country for which data was available had a lower HDI value in 2012 than in 2000' (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2013: ii). While living conditions have been steadily improving worldwide, the issue of poverty continues to be of concern to the Third World. The World Bank (2013) reports that of the more than seven billion people on the planet, still 1.2 billion live in extreme poverty, subsisting on US$1.25 per day or less.

Various international agency initiatives have been developed to apply Pro Poor Tourism (PPT) as one of the tools to contribute to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and its targets in individual countries. Most PPT projects, funded by international donors, have secured the service of international tourism consultants (Asian Development Bank, 2013; The World Bank, 2013a). While a great deal of academic research has been conducted into the role that consultants play in fields as diverse as management, education and nursing (Booth, Hutchison, Beech, & Robertson, 2006; Christensen, 2005; Clark & Salaman, 1998; Curnow & Reuvid, 2003; Czerniawska & May, 2004; Earley & Weindling, 2006; Hale, 2007; Sadler, 2001); there is a conspicuous gap with regards to international tourism consultants. This research addresses these literature gaps by exploring the roles of international tourism consultants in PPT projects and to what extent they influence project outcomes. In order to explore issues and challenges related to poverty alleviation in developing countries, understanding the role of consultants in PPT is key to improve PPT project outcomes.

To achieve the objectives of the study, 17 semi-structured, in depth interviews were undertaken using various modes including: face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and Skype video calls. A purposive, snowball sampling strategy was adopted for sampling the participants for the in depth interviews (Neuman, 2006). Each interview took approximately 30 to 60 minutes (average duration was about 40 minutes). As content

analysis, open coding was utilised (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) and manifest and latent content analysis techniques were then employed (Smith, 2010). The thematic framework approach was employed to identify key characteristics of the data and interpret the overall findings.

Four primary themes emerged from the data: the consultant's perceptions about success factors, benefits and outcomes of PPT projects; the underpinning and inherent challenges and limitations in PPT projects; the funding bodies' stipulations in project proposals for local engagement; and potential strategies related to PPT.

This presentation will explore and analyse the success factors and challenges of PPT from the perspective of international tourism consultants. Although a variety of research has been conducted on PPT projects in developing countries, many continue to fail or experience implementation issues which negatively impact on the capacity of the project to achieve its usually well-intended objectives.. Consequently, there is room for debate about how to overcome these issues from the perspective of international tourism consultants, who are key actors in PPT projects. In the absence of adequate literature about international tourism consultant's contribution to PPT, this study has sought the experiences, opinions and inputs from a variety of experienced consultants. In doing so, gaps between the founding bodies and the international tourism consultants were identified. This might be considered the first step toward enhancing outcomes for local engagement and project success in PPT.

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# THE CHINESE TRAVEL MARKET'S RESPONSE TO THE 2011 JAPAN EARTHQUAKE

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the travel behavior of the Chinese tourism market following the Japan Earthquake in a bid to identify travellers. The post disaster travel behavior of 1050 Chinese travelers is analysed to reveal the circumstances under which members of this market would go to Japan despite the earthquake and the characteristics and concerns of those who cancelled their travel indefinitely. Relationships are explored between travel decision and variables such as past travel experience, trip purpose, perception and demographic background and practical implications for destination marketers reliant on this market and seeking to encourage visitation post disaster are provided.

Key words: disasters and tourism; Japan Earthquake; Chinese tourism market; resilient travellers

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

On March 11th 2011, a magnitude 9.0 earthquake hit the Pacific coast of the Tohoku area in Japan. This was the most powerful earthquake ever to hit Japan on record. The earthquake triggered powerful tsunami waves which caused extensive structural damage to buildings, roads and railways in north-eastern Japan and was estimated to cost the country tens of billions of dollars. Of significant concern was the damage to the Fukushima Nuclear Power Plant complex which resulted in the evacuation of Japanese residents living within a 20 kilometre radius of the plant due to the high levels of radioactive leakage (CNN, 2011), many of whom are unable to return to their home towns.

This disaster has had a profound impact on inbound tourism to Japan, with the total number of international tourism arrivals decreasing by 28% when compared to the previous year (Japan Tourism Agency, 2012). In particular, inbound tourism demand from China deceased by almost 50% in the six months following the earthquake. Given China's prevalence as a major source market for Japan, and numerous regions across the world as the number of approved outbound destinations continues to rise (In the year 2013, 98.19 million Chinese traveled abroad with the outbound expenditure reaching $128.7 billion USD. This is an increase of 18% compared to the year 2012, [China Tourism Academy, 2014]).

Tourism is an industry which many destinations are dependent upon for their growth and survival, and one that is greatly susceptible to external dynamic factors; in recent years there has been an increasing concern and consideration for the impact of crises and disasters, how to prepare and plan for the unexpected, and how to limit damage, recover and restore

confidence following a major disruptive event (Hystad & Keller, 2008). This particular case demonstrates the vulnerability of the tourism industry to unpredictable events and disasters when considering the change in tourism visitation to Japan following the 2011 earthquake. This comes as no surprise given what is currently known about the impact of disasters of this magnitude on destination image. The negative impacts of disasters spreads beyond the physical damage to destinations, with studies suggesting that negative perceptions can be more damaging to tourism flows than the actual disaster itself (Carlsen & Hughes, 2008; Henderson, 2005). For example, Henderson (2005) noted that tourism companies in the Maldives suffered significant financial losses in the wake of the Indian Ocean Tsunami due to the association of the country with the negative impacts of the tsunami on nearby countries, despite the minimal physical impact of the tsunami. This was also suggested by Walters & Clulow (2010), who found potential tourists had an inaccurate understanding of the geographical boundary of the impact of Victorian bushfires. Numerous studies have discussed the prominent role of media in shaping perceptions regarding a disaster-hit region (Miles & Morse, 2007; Pottorff & Neal, 1994; Ritchie, 2004; Rittichainuwat, 2008; Walters & Clulow, 2010).

In response to the challenge disastrous events present to the tourism industry, there exists a growing body of research on tourism crisis and disaster management and recovery strategies for destinations and individual tourism organisations (Ritchie, 2004). Hence, the focus of much of the literature has been on better equipping industry in dealing with post-disaster situations to maximise the resilience of the industry to disasters (Rittichainuwat, 2013). It is, however, equally important to identify markets which may be resilient to disasters, and would consider travelling to a region shortly after it was affected by a disaster. The aim of this research is to explore the travel behavior of Chinese travellers in the wake of the Japan earthquake. In particular, this study will reveal the circumstances, under which Chinese travellers would cancel, postpone or go ahead with their travel as planned.

This study employed a Choice Modelling approach using a multinominal logit model (MNL) to address the research aims. Three choice alternatives were presented to respondents in light of the Japan earthquake; cancel their travel plans; change or postpone their travel or travel as originally planned. To provide a rich description of those most likely to go ahead with their travel plans despite the earthquake and those who were not, explanatory variables including age, gender, trip purpose, income, travel experience and education level were incorporated into the analysis. A number of image perception items were also included to explore the relationship between travel behaviour and the tourist's perception of what took place.

The survey was conducted in China over a three week period in January 2014 with the help of an Internet survey company. Beijing and Shanghai were chosen as the survey area, due to the fact that they represent two major Japanese inbound source markets. 1,050 usable questionnaires were obtained - 520 from Beijing and 530 from Shanghai.

The findings of this study suggest, among other things, that Chinese business travelers can be relied upon as an inbound source market for Japan, regardless of whether they had pre-existing travel plans, in the aftermath of a disastrous event. The practical implications of this research speak directly to those destination managers seeking to overcome the impacts of significant events such as the 2011 earthquake and are looking towards the emerging Chinese market to do so.

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# A NEW ASPECT OF MARKETING FOR CHINESE OFFICIALS VISITING JAPAN IN TERMS OF DARK TOURISM AND RED TOURISM

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## ABSTRACT

It has been said that dark tourism has no relationship with marketing. However, the number of visitors to Auschwitz became 2.3 times in the past 1o years, and it has become a tourism attraction in itself. Moreover, papers discussing the economic ripple effects have been published recently.

This is why, as the first step of this paper, official trips by Chinese people will be rethought in terms of dark tourism. What will be reconstructed in terms of the relationship between dark tourism and red tourism that has been established in China?

Some areas related to those examples have potential as dark tourism sites.At the same time, like the modern industrialized facilities that support the modernization of Japan, some of them have been established as famous tourism sites. Regarding those areas, the Japanese do not know about historical reality and do not know about the Chinese laborers who were forced to work, even if only for one year. Developing these kinds of areas as dark tourism sites can help the Japanese obtain more accurate historic knowledge.

Moreover, in terms of marketing, what are the characteristics of these types of dark tourism development? Today, people who work in the tourism industry say that Chinese visitors are not important from the perspective of economics. Because it is sure that they pay much money in gross and mass, but each person is not so generous. Therefore, Japanese hotels, travel agencies, etc., sometimes claim that the profits from Chinese customers are not very large. To avoid those situations, Japanese travel agencies focus on luxurious wealthy people. I think, however, that there are other kinds of people, aside from rich people, who can spend significant amounts of money—specifically, civil servants and officers of the Communist Party who come to Japan as business travelers have adequate budgets. They do not need to cut their expenses since the origin of cost is from public sector. However, since their budgets come from the public sector, their trips must comprise not only leisure but also study or inspection.
Dark tourism sites where Chinese slaves died cover the need for study and inspection. In such places, praying for the dead is very meaningful and worthwhile for Chinese travelers, and it is reasonable for the public sector to cover the travel costs. Developing dark tourism sites in Japan for Chinese people has marketing implications regarding that new target.

This concept has similarities with the fluency of money in MICE (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, and Exhibitions") tourism. In MICE tourism, visitors do not pay by themselves, so they are liable to spend more money. This is why, the per-person expense in Chinese cases tends to be bigger, because this kind of travel is also official business trip.

As examples, this report discusses Gunkanjima (Hashima), Hanaoka Mine, Mine Mitsui-Miike Coal Mine, Ashio Copper Mine, and the Hunauki district on Iriomote Island. Chinese captives were forced to work in those areas, and some lost their lives. Detailed explanations will be provided in my presentation.

# STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE PRACTICAL TRAINING PROGRAM: A CASE IN HOTEL DIPLOMA 3, GANESHA UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, BALI

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Unlike the curricula offered for a Bachelor degree, the one for a diploma three vocational study in Indonesia is designed in such a way that all subjects are offered as a package in each semester. That is, students are to take all subjects offered in a semester. In other words, there is no optional subjects for students for each semester. The nature of such curricula forces students to pass all the subjects being offered or otherwise they have to redo any subjects they fail to pass only in the next two semesters or in one year time. Thereby, students who fail particularly in the final semester will prolong their study and will be unable to finish exactly within three years.

The curricula of Hotel Diploma 3 Program at Ganesha University of Education, Bali includes a practical training that is offered to students who are already in the final semester. This subject counts for four credits and is the only subject offered in semester 6. Prerequirement for this subject is that students should have taken all subjects offered in their previous semester (semester 1 to semester 5).

The practical training is an essential program for students who enrolled at the Hotel Diploma 3 Department in order to introduce the real hotelier work-life experience to students before they graduate and then decide their career path. Students are sent to several hotels with different classifications in Bali. The selection of hotels is arranged by the Training Division of the Department. Moreover, the practical training is set in the form of internship, whether it is paid or unpaid. However, despite the importance of this program, there was an increasing number of students who withdrew from the practical training program. The impact of the withdrawal may be detrimental to the Hotel Diploma 3 Department. Indeed, the grieved hotels cancelled the agreement and may potentially not accept any future trainee from Hotel D3 Program of Ganesha University of Education. In additions, hotels may report the case to other hotel most probably during the hotel association meeting. As a result, in the long run, this impacts will jeopardize the sustainability of the Hotel Program at Ganesha University of Education.

This paper reports on a preliminary study conducted on the perceptions of hotel students toward their practical training program. This study was undertaken as part of a larger study to examine how the on the job training program influence students motivation to work in the hotel industry. As such, the initial study aimed to elicit how students perceived their practical

training program and what aspects are considered important by students to continue or discontinue their practical program. Moreover, the initial study also aimed to understand if there were differences of students' motivations to work as hotelier after completing their job training program. At the end, the results of this study are used to provide solutions to the Department with regard to improving the quality of the practical training program both for student and hotel perspectives. Moreover, provides guidance to the Hotel Department at Ganesha University of Education to execute this program more professionally.

In its nature, this first stage of study used a qualitative approach. Ten students participated in the study, were undertaking the program at several hotels in Bali at the time the study was undertaken. Data were gathered using interview method and were transcribed and analysed. First, students were asked about general questions. Next, students were posed a more elaborate question about their practical program for example, how they feel about their program. A field note was taken especially to record specific gesture or intonation of voice.

The results of the study showed that students had different perceptions of the on the job training program. The majority of the participants responded that the on the job training program was essential and useful for their future career path. Data gathered were classified into two types, which are favorable and unfavorable perceptions. Respondents who demonstrated favorable perception reported that the program helped them to implement their knowledge and skills within the hospitality operations including the ability to use English more often in a real work- life atmosphere. Some respondents also emphasized on the opportunity they had to interact and work with senior hoteliers. Others stressed on the experience to solve problems. According to these respondents, their confidence and pride to work as hotelier increased. Some of them event expressed their dream about becoming a hotelier in a cruise line company. On the other side, respondents who were negative toward their experiences explained that the program was too long and it was costly (cost for meals if not on duty, transportation, and accommodation). Some of them responded that they were not mentally and physically ready for the program. Indeed, there were respondents who were absent for a few days because of feeling unhealthy. Furthermore, these respondents said that they felt not confidence to perform their job because of lack of knowledge and skills. Others commented that working with seniors was not enjoyable. That is, they felt uncomfortable being called "anak trainee" or trainee boy/girl. One respondent experienced unfavorable political office situations due to her English was better than the senior or employee of the hotel. In additions, there was an issue also about not appropriate behavior of a male senior to a female trainee.

Suggestions offered for the management of Hotel Diploma 3 Program is to carefully select and assign students with specific hotels. That is, the implementation of the program should be based on a general rule that a high performing students will be sent to a five stars hotel, while a lower performing students will be sent to a lower classification of hotel. Although, this rule may not be formally written. This rule helps minimize problem with students feeling not confidence in performing their practical training program and good relationships with hotels can be maintained. Further study should examine the motivations of students on working as hotelier based on the finding of this study.

# APPLICATION OF IMPORTANCE-SATISFACTION ANALYSIS FOR BAUDEOGI FESTIVAL: A COMPARISON OF RESIDENTS AND VISITORS

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## EXTENDED ABSTRACT

As one of the fastest growing tourism market segments, cultural heritage tourism involving historic places and cultural inheritances has gained increasing attention from tourists and researchers. Through the heritage tourism experience, a tourist can receive a memorable and enjoyable experience that is connected to their past and present where they live (Kang et al, 2014). This cultural heritage tourism attracts visitors especially those who look for personally rewarding and enriching tourist experiences. In the point of view, one of tourism's newly emerging forms is festival (Getz, 1991). According to Shin (2004), festivals have multiple meanings to the community such as economic benefit, community identity, and pride.

Korean indigenous and cultural festivals started to be revived with the legislation of the law for protection of cultural assets in 1961 overcoming the Korean War during 1950 to 1953. The Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism have supported the local government hold cultural festivals since 1995, so that more than 1,000 festivals are held in Korea every year. As one of the cultural heritage festivals, the City of Anseong in Gyeonggi province holds the Baudeogi Festival to celebrate the fascinating history of Namsadang, the country's oldest performance troupe and travelling entertainers in the final years of the Chosun Dynasty that lasted from 1392 to 1910. With its high level of heritage value, the festival was inscribed as an intangible heritage and humanity by UNESCO in 2009.

The Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism evaluate the national festivals at the end of year, gives awards, and adjusting the supporting budget. However, it evaluates only visitors, so it will be interesting to compare their evaluation and residents' one. Therefore, this study aims to explore the two groups evaluation with the tool of Importance-Satisfaction Analysis which was originally introduced as

Importance-Performance Analysis by Martilla and James (1977). IPA and ISA has been employed to compares the degrees of importance before a person's experience and the degree of performance or satisfaction after the person's experience. According to Martilla and James (1977), they indicate that the degree of consumer satisfaction could be utilised to predict both expectations in relation to certain important attributes and judgments of performance attributes. With this evidence of positive outcomes produced through the application of ISA, the ISA framework was employed in this study.

In terms of festival evaluation, Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) has developed 18 evaluating items since 2002 and has been evaluating every Cultural Tourism Festival around the country with them and this research has been employed as an evaluation tool. Surveying took place for over 5 days by 6 graduated students, selected and trained by the authors. 400 questionnaires were collected, of which 309 were judged to be valid. There were 93local residents (31.1%) and 213 visitors (68.9%), most visitors were family groups with children. Also, 251 respondents were married (81.2 %), more female (56.3%) than male respondents (43.7%) and the average age of respondents was between 30 and 40 years of age and undergraduate degree were 66%. Major occupation was housewife (31.7%) and office worker (34.3%). Table shows difference in mean values between each attributes' degrees of importance and satisfaction. The results show that the average degree of satisfaction for all attributes lower than importance level, especially Price of products (2.70), Price of foods (2.70), Near local tourist attraction (2.70), Parking facility (2.57), Sufficient seats and tables for the rest (2.47), Toilets (2.78).

Table 1. Importance-satisfaction analysis

| | Items | Importance | Satisfaction | S-I | p |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Location and accessibility | 3.96 | 3.37 | -0.59 | .000* |
| 2 | Media Publicity | 4.13 | 3.32 | -0.81 | .000* |
| 3 | Information facilities | 4.00 | 3.06 | -0.94 | .622 |
| 4 | Information broch | 4.00 | 3.27 | -0.73 | .000* |
| 5 | Kindness of staff | 4.08 | 3.22 | -0.86 | .000* |
| 6 | Interesting programs | 4.13 | 3.30 | -0.83 | .000* |
| 7 | Varied programs | 4.09 | 3.40 | -0.69 | .000* |
| 8 | Affiliate Programs | 3.97 | 3.22 | -0.75 | .000* |
| 9 | Understanding local culture | 3.77 | 3.22 | -0.55 | .000* |
| 10 | A range of products | 3.45 | 3.10 | -0.35 | .000* |
| 11 | Quality of products | 3.73 | 3.01 | -0.72 | .000* |
| 12 | Price of products | 3.70 | 2.70 | -1 | .005* |
| 13 | A range of foods | 3.62 | 3.03 | -0.59 | .000* |
| 14 | Price of foods | 3.69 | 2.70 | -0.99 | .021* |
| 15 | Near local tourist attraction | 3.65 | 2.70 | -0.95 | .025* |
| 16 | Parking facility | 4.04 | 2.57 | -1.47 | .659 |
| 17 | Sufficient seats and tables for the rest | 3.95 | 2.47 | -1.48 | .359 |
| 18 | Toilets | 4.08 | 2.78 | -1.3 | .017* |

*p<.05

The figure blow shows the Important-Satisfaction Analysis Grid between residents and tourists. Overall, these results suggest that festival manages should be focusing their efforts on developing tourist attraction near festival site to enhancing tourists expectation. Consequently, in order to sustain and increase the economic benefit to the local community as well. Also, the results recommend that festival management has not put forth sufficient effort to maintain to the visitors. Working to offer cheaper food and products may be the easiest way to increase overall satisfaction. This attribute was very important to festival visitors, but was underperforming in regards to customers' expectation. Finally, the festival should work to maintain the same toilets,

sufficient seats and tables for the rest, parking facility because this was the most important attribute among local residents and visitors.

Figure 1. Importance-satisfaction analysis grid between residents and visitors



Residents                                                    Visitors
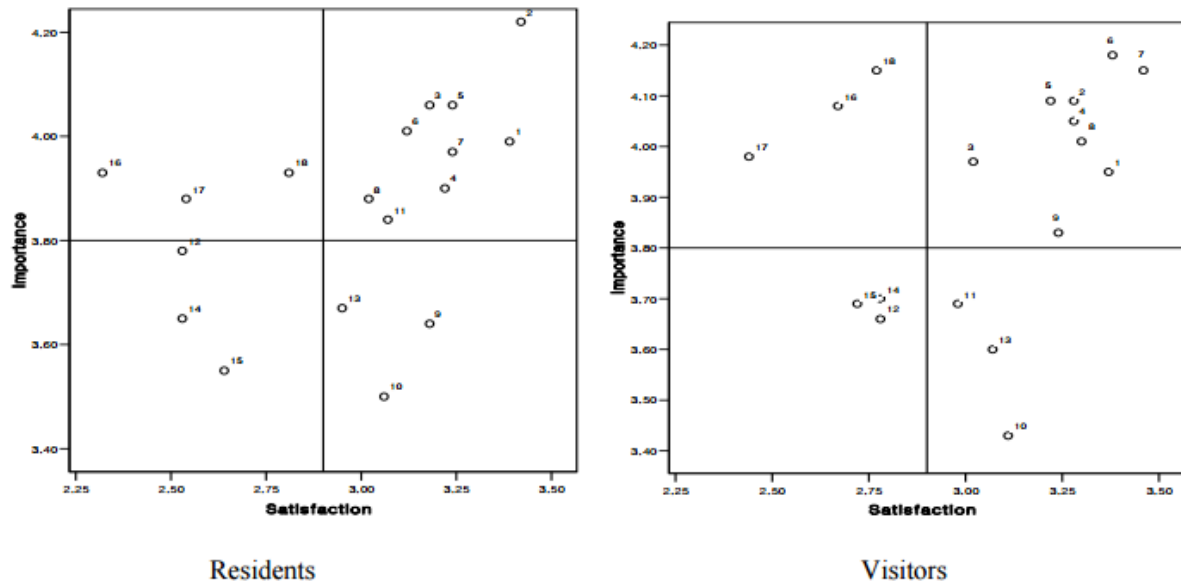
# G2G (GOVERNMENT TO GOVERNMENT) PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN THE UAE AND SOUTH KOREA FOR MEDICAL TOURISM IN SOUTH KOREA

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and

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

This study investigates the partnership between the UAE and South Korean Government in the medical tourism and global healthcare industry and makes recommendations and projections for its sustained growth. The partnership has brought in and extended the agreement between the Korean Ministry of Health and Welfare (MOHW) and the Health Authority of Abu Dhabi (HAAD). Certain Korean hospitals have provided medical services to UAE patients sent via HAAD. The agreed service is carried out through a trustworthy relationship and is a high quality, customized, one stop service, including pickup service, , halal food, and Arabic medical coordinators, Korea tourism and cultural information is also provided by the Korea Health Industry Development Institute(KHIDI) as a part of the service, while further tourism information can be provided by the Korea Tourism Organization (KTO) A similar agreement was contracted between the Ministry of Health and Welfare (MOHW) and UAE Armed Forces. Furthermore, a partnership between MOHW and the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Health (MOH) resolved to provide paid training services to Saudi medical staff. 13 hospitals in Korea with MOHW are involved in the agreement and the partnership. The average annual growth rate of incoming UAE patients to Korea is 50% and the average amount of money spent in S. Korea is about $17,000 per person. Korean culture wave has lubricated the relationship between the governments and motivated more UAE patients to come to S. Korea for medical tourism. To accelerate the pace of this fast growing market, the Korea Tourism Organization (KTO), under the Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST) displayed advertisements and held festivals in the UAE to promote Korean Medical Tourism. Municipal governments are involved by their participation in the festivals and making a promotional video to be broadcasted via local media in the UAE. Furthermore, the Korean medical system and medical services are being exported to the UAE. Seoul National University Hospital with support from MOHW signed a contract with Sheikh Khalifa Specialty Hospital in the UAE to manage it with Korean doctors under the Korean medical system and services for 5 years starting in 2014.

This study analyzed articles and statistics on medical tourism and global healthcare from the Korea Tourism Organization (KTO), the Ministry of Health and Welfare (MOHW), the Korea Health Industry Development Institute (KHIDI), and the Korean International Medical Association (KIMA). These sources are highly representative and well regarded portal websites for the medical tourism industry in Korea. The article aims to enhance the understanding of the G2G partnership as a new successful movement for the industry between the UAE and S. Korea. The study contributes theoretically and practically by examining the partnership, process, and outcome in this booming industry. The understanding gained through this analysis can be used to sustain the growth in the number of medical tourists in S. Korea from the UAE by comparing marketing methods and

components of the partnership to see which initiatives were the most effective. These findings can also be used to develop medical tourism partnerships between S. Korea and other countries, particularly those in the Middle East as they will be most relevant to this research. As more people can enjoy the benefits of medical tourism, analysis like this can guide marketing and partnership efforts to gain the maximum economic benefit for S. Korea and the best medical results for patients.

# THE CONSUMERS AUTHENTICITY PERCEPTION FOR ETHNIC RESTAURANTS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to propose a customer-based brand equity model for the ethnical restaurant by incorporating customers' authenticity perception. More specifically, this study aims to empirically examine the relationships between consumers authenticity perception and four dimensions (brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, brand loyalty), as well as how these four dimensions interrelated with one another. This study enriches the hospitality literature by connecting the concept of authenticity with customer-based brand equity model for ethnic restaurants.

Key words: brand equity, authenticity, ethical restaurant

INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, a number of tourism researchers (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Gyimóthy & Mykletun, 2009; Hall & Sharples, 2003; Hansen, Jensen, & Gustafsson, 2005; Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000) have paid much attention to cultural food and cooking due to the increasingly prominent role of culinary consumption in tourism. In addition, with a growing number of ethnic restaurant opening in America, Lu and Fine (1995) argued that consumers become to desire a more unique and comfortable dining experience when given their own cultural preference. Apparently, authenticity appears to be an important selling point for an ethnic restaurant to provide unique dining experiences for customers and to differentiate self-business from other competitors.

Customers' authenticity perception toward an ethnic restaurant relies on the overall evaluation of the cultural cuisines they have, indoor and outdoor settings they see, ambiance they feel, and attendants they interact with. Accordingly, the more exotic and unique experiences an ethnic restaurant provides for customers, the more likely that restaurant can shape its' own identity and image in customers' mind. In this sense, the brand of a more authentic ethnical restaurant would more easily come across customers mind compared with that of others due to its impressive authenticity perception. Therefore, in the context of the ethnic restaurant, the association between consumers' authenticity perception and brand management can be expected and should demand more attention from hospitality practitioners and researchers. This study aims to propose a customer-based brand equity model for ethic restaurants through incorporating customers' authenticity perception with four core components of brand equity identified by Aaker (1991). Specifically, the major purpose of this study is to empirically examine how consumers' authenticity perception associates with four dimensions of brand equity as well as how these four dimensions interrelate with one another.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of authenticity has been conceptualized by a number of researchers in several different perspectives, including original and staged (MacCannell, 1973), fabricated (Belk & Costa, 1998), iconic, indexical, and hypothetical (Grayson & Martinec, 2004), self-referential hyperauthenticity (Rose & Wood, 2005), symbolic (Culler, 1981), existential (Wang, 1999), literal or objective (M. B. Beverland, Lindgreen, & Vink, 2008), legitimate (Kates, 2004), sincere (M. Beverland, 2006), approximate and moral (Leigh, Peters, & Shelton, 2006), and emergent (Cohen, 1988). In tourism, authenticity has been widely conceptualized as a universal value and a critical driving force that motivates tourists to travel to distance places and times (Cohen, 1988; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; MacCannell, 1973; Naoi, 2004). Generally, the complex nature of authenticity in tourism can be categorized into three dimensions: objective, constructive, and postmodern. Ebster and Guist (2004) suggested these three perspectives can be used to interpret the authenticity of ethnical themed restaurant.

Cohen's (1988) arguments are the fundamental of constructivism that authenticity is a subjective, socially and personally constructed perception of objects and cultures. As a result, in the context of ethnical restaurant, for example, two Chinese restaurants of the same name located in two different places with obviously different physical settings, foods, and attendants' dressing might still be considered as authentic by their own customers because both restaurants represent two different aspects of Chinese culture.

In branding research, Keller (1993) and Chaudhuri (1995) used two different perspectives (financial and customer-based) to interpret brand equity. Customer-based perspective is first proposed by Keller (1993) and he conceptualized brand equity as the overall evaluation of consumer response to a brand. From financial perspective, brand equity is considered as financial value created by brands (Bailey & Ball, 2006; Lassar, Mittal, & Sharma, 1995). Also conceptualizing brand equity from a customer perspective, Aaker (1991, p. 16) defined brand equity as "the set of assets (and liabilities) linked to a brand name and symbol that adds the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or that firm's customers". He categorized brand equity into five dimensions: brand awareness, brand association, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and other proprietary brand assets, while the last dimension is usually disregarded in marketing research because it is not directly related to the customer. Aiming to examine the relationship between authenticity and brand equity for the ethnical restaurant from customer perspective, this study adopts Keller's (1993) customer-based brand equity (CBBE) and utilizes Aaker's (1991) four core brand equity dimensions as theoretical underpinning.

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