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The 6th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference

14-17 July 2016
Guangzhou, China

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CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

**6th ADVANCES IN HOSPITALITY &
TOURISM MARKETING &
MANAGEMENT CONFERENCE
14 – 17 July 2016, Guangzhou, China**

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Gursoy*

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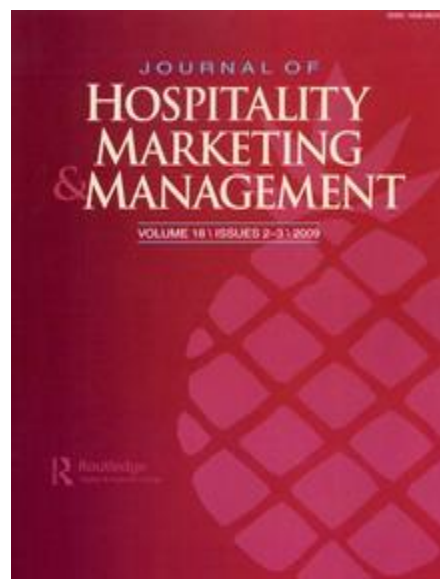


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Preface

On behalf of the organizing committee, we are pleased to welcome you to the “6th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference” co-hosted by Sun Yat-sen University (SYSU) and Washington State University. Following the success of the previous 5 Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference, the 6th conference will be held in Guangzhou, China at Guangzhou Baiyun International Convention Center between July 14 and July 17, 2016.

The goal of this scientific meeting is to provide an interactive forum for attendees from academia, industry, government, and other organizations to actively exchange, share, and challenge state-of-the-art research and industrial case studies on hospitality and tourism marketing and management. The range of proposed topics of this conference reflects a number of major themes in hospitality and tourism marketing and management both in China and internationally. 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. Additionally, there are three different workshops (Structural Equation Modeling; Smoke-Free Supportive (SFS) Hotel Concept; Tourism Enterprises’ Innovation in China) and a competition event organized during the conference. We strongly believe that all these contents will significantly contribute to knowledge creation and dissemination pertaining to hospitality and tourism marketing and management among all conference attendees.

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 “6th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference”. We hope that you will enjoy China hospitality while attending the conference and have an unforgettable and rewarding stay in Guangzhou.

Jigang Bao, Ph.D.
Sun Yat-sen University
Chair of Organizing Committee &
Conference Co-Chair

Dogan Gursoy, Ph.D.
Washington State University
Conference Co-Chair



Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) Workshop

Instructor: Dr. Dogan Gursoy, Washington State University



This workshop introduces the use of Structural Equation Modelling, and is intended as both a theoretical and practical introduction. It mainly focuses on understanding the use of structural equation modeling, steps in SEM analysis and writing and presenting the results for journal publication.

This workshop starts with a conceptual overview of SEM, confirmatory factor models, then structural models involving latent causality, and finally into multi-group models.

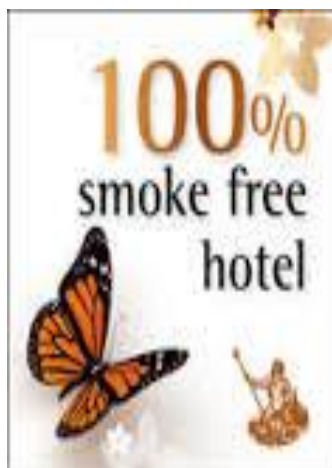
It also uses practical hands on approach with real research data sets with research questions that can be answered using the data available. Several examples will be provided using the SIMPLIS/LISREL software package. Throughout the workshop participants will be able to do

practice exercises using SIMPLIS/LISREL.

About instructor:

Dr. Dogan Gursoy is the Taco Bell Distinguished Professor in Hospitality Business Management at Washington State University in the School of Hospitality Business Management and the editor of Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management. His research has been published broadly in refereed Tier I journals such as Annals of Tourism Research, Journal Travel Research, Tourism Management, International Journal of Hospitality Management, Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research. His research has been presented at numerous hospitality and tourism conferences and received numerous research awards. He serves on the editorial board of several journals including Annals of Tourism Research (resource editor), Journal of Travel Research, Journal of Social Inquiry (associate editor), International Journal of Hospitality Management, Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, Tourism Analysis, Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, International Journal Contemporary Hospitality Management, etc. He is also an active member of Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA) and the International Society of Travel and Tourism Educators (I-CHRIE).

The Smoke-Free Supportive (SFS) Hotel Concept Workshop



Moderator: Dr. Marie Chan Sun, University of Mauritius

The SFS Hotel Concept will be presented as an innovative means of marketing strategy for the tourism and hospitality industry in a globalized environment where the prevalence of smokers is high. The aim of the new concept is to make accessible stop smoking services in a medical tourism context. From individual counseling to evidence-based therapy, the smoking cessation program, available at the Spa and Health Centre of the SFS Hotel, includes a series of activities and rewards to help overcome cigarettes cravings. The SFS Hotel Concept is inspired from the MPOWER package put forward by the World Health Organization to fight the global tobacco epidemic.

This workshop mainly aims to explore views of international stakeholders on the potential of the SFS Hotel Concept as tourism marketing strategy. Therefore this workshop welcomes participants from different disciplines such as Policy makers, hotel managers, marketing managers, chief executive officers, representatives from academia, industry, government, and other organizations, representatives of the organizing committee for the 6th AHTMM conference.

The presentation of the SFS Hotel Concept to all participants registered for the workshop will be followed by the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) among participants who are agreeable to participate on a voluntary basis in the FGD. Participants will be expected to share their views on the above concept and challenge this novel SFS Hotel Concept. The FGD will be video-recorded for the purpose of quality assurance with respect to qualitative data collection. Data will be collected in an anonymous matter and will be used for academic purposes only.

Chinese Hospitality Business Management Training Simulation Competition



Scenario

Using Hospitality Business Management Training Simulation (See <http://www.hotelsimulation.com/>), the School of Tourism Management at Sun Yat-Sen University hosts a school-level competition that provides a platform and opportunity for students from different universities to compete hotel operating and management analytic skills. After fierce competition of preliminary and semifinal contests, 4 teams stand out from crowd to advance to the final contest. These 4 teams are assigned the task of running 500-room hotels in a competitive virtual marketplace. Each 500-room hotel competes against the other three 500-room hotels located in the same destination that are managed by other participants. Just like in the real world, hotels compete against each other to attract customers from their target markets that will generate the most revenue and enable the management team to reach their monthly and annual financial and operational objectives.

At the beginning of each month (round of simulation), each hotel management team must determine their objectives and primary and secondary market segments from eight market segments included in the simulation. Afterwards, just like in the real world, the management team must make decisions relating to hotel operations, marketing, distribution, pricing, operational and capital investment decisions, and financing decisions to fund capital and operational expenditures. The challenge is to develop and implement a competitive business strategy that results in a competitive positioning in the marketplace and produces good financial performance as measured by market share, occupancy, RevPAR, ADR, total revenues, net operating earnings and net profits. These four teams will have a final battle to see whose hotel would perform better during several months' management decisions.

Tourism Enterprises' Innovation in China



This workshop mainly addresses the important role of innovation for tourism enterprises in China. As widely known, China's domestic manufacturers are having more and more difficulties and challenges to make profits and develop overseas businesses due to current bad economy. Therefore, innovation becomes one essential element for Chinese Businesses to survive in such a difficult economic situation and achieve sustainable development. And "Knowledge" this factor is no doubt the key for an enterprise's innovation. Therefore, the issues and topics of tourism enterprises' innovation in China require more attention from international practitioners and researchers.

Therefore, this workshop is honored to invite several outstanding Chinese entrepreneurs to share their insights, experiences and practices about knowledge innovation and management under different business contexts. Some discussed contexts will include large-scale leisure resorts, hotels, and IT enterprises. All these shared experiences and practices would enlarge our horizons and be of great value for tourism enterprises' knowledge innovation and management.



Table of Contents

ABSTRACTS	1
A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR PREDICTING CHINESE ECOTOURISTS' TRAVEL INTENTION TOWARDS A FOREIGN ECOTOURISM DESTINATION	2
AUTHENTICITY AND PLACE ATTACHMENT TO NATURAL TOURISM DESTINATIONS: AN EXPERIENTIAL PERSPECTIVE.....	3
A TALE OF TWO CULTURES: BEHAVIORAL IMPLICATIONS OF VISITOR AND HOST CULTURES AMONG YOUNG CHINESE TOURISTS TO THE UNITED STATES	4
PROPOSING THE VISITOR-EXHIBITOR-ORGANIZER CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK ON TRADE SHOW PERFORMANCE EVALUATION	5
BEAM ME UP, SCOTTIE! DRONES AND THE PRODUCTION OF A 'THIRD SPACE' IN TOURISM.....	6
A WELCOME INVASION? HOST-GUEST RELATIONSHIPS IN AIRBNB COMMERCIAL HOMES	7
ADVANCING THE DESTINATION DUALITY MODEL: A CONTENT MODEL OF MENTAL DESTINATION REPRESENTATIONS	9
TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY E-MARKETING VIA WECHAT AND WEIBO: A COMPARISON OF SMALL COMPANIES AND BIG ESTABLISHMENTS IN THIS INDUSTRY IN CHINA.....	11
BIG DATA-ARE WE READY FOR IT? A PRESPECTIVE OF HOSPITALITY EDUCATION	13
THE EFFECT OF ETHICAL CLIMATE ON FOOD SAFETY RESPONSES OF F&B EMPLOYEES IN TAIWAN'S HOTEL INDUSTRY	14
A STUDY ON PERFORANCE OF STANDARD OPERATION PROCEDURE FOR FOODSERVICE INDUSTRY	16
PERCEPTION OF MAURITIAN TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS ON THE SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL	18
PERCEPTION OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS ON THE NOVEL SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL CONCEPT	19
STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF PLACE ATTACHMENT ON RESIDENTS' TWO TYPES OF WORD-OF-MOUTH BEHAVIOUR: THE CASE OF SYDNEY AND SHANGHAI.....	20
A LARGER PIE OR MORE SLICES? SENIOR TOURISM MARKET IN CHINA	22



UNDERSTANDING CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CSR) IN THE TANZANIAN TOURISM INDUSTRY.....	23
VACATION ACTIVITY PREFERENCES OF OUTDOOR RECREATION PARTICIPANTS ...	24
COST MANAGEMENT TOOLS FOR THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY	25
ONLINE DISTRIBUTION CHANNEL MANAGEMENT AND TECHNOLOGIES IN HOTEL ENTERPRISES.....	26
THE EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING VALUE AND BRAND ATTITUDE ON CONSUMER PURCHASE INTENTION- BRAND FAMILIARITY AS A MODERATOR	27
TOURISTS’ BELIEF ON TOURISM AND HEALTH: A CASE STUDY OF SANYA CITY	28
HOTEL BIG DATA ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK FROM CUSTOMER'S PERSPECTIVE.....	29
EXPLORING HOST-GUEST RELATIONSHIPS IN AIRBNB COMMERCIAL HOMES.....	31
RESPONSIBLE TOURISM: A CASE OF SANDALS RESORTS INTERNATIONAL	33
STUDY OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND FAMILY-WORK CONFLICT IN CHINESE TOURISM INDUSTRY: DOES GENDER DIFFERENCE MATTER?	34
CULTURE CONFLICTS AND CHALLENGES IN LOCALIZATION OF SENIOR EXECUTIVES OF INTERNATIONAL LUXURY HOTELS IN CHINA.....	35
FULL PAPERS	37
THE CONSTRUCTION OF A VOCATIONAL COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK FOR HOTEL TRAINING MANAGERS IN CHINA	38
THE CHINESE ‘SLOW TRAVELERS’: A NETNOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF TRAVEL BLOGS OF CYCLING TO TIBET	39
UNDERSTANDING AND IMPROVING CUSTOMER ONLINE SEARCH EXPERIENCE: A LATENT CLASS MODELING APPROACH.....	45
HOTEL MANAGERS’ BRAND LOVE AND HEALTH.....	51
MODERATING EFFECTS OF CUSTOMER INVOLVEMENT ON DUAL-PATH EFFECTS OF HOTEL SUB-BRAND LOVE.....	53
GENTRIFICATION URBAN POLICIES OF AS A TOOL FOR URBAN TRANSFORMATION	55
ANTECEDENTS OF DESTINATION SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF SARDINIA, ITALY	60



INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTEER TOURISM: THE MORAL EXPERIENCE OF TAIWANESE TOURISTS	68
MEMORABLE EXPERIENCES AT BOAT SHOW AND EFFECTS ON PERCEIVED VALUE AND INTENTION	71
SERVICE INTERACTIONS AT HIGH-CONTACT EXHIBITION BOOTHS	73
TOURIST DESTINATION POLICES WITH PEOPLE AFFECTED WITH HIV/AIDS IN SMALL ISLANDS DEVELOPING STATES IN THE INDIAN OCEAN -THE MAURITIAN AWARENESS POLICY CASE STUDY-	75
STAKEHOLDER COLLABORATION IN TOURISM DISASTER MANAGEMENT: THE CASE OF CYCLONE MARCIA IN CENTRAL QUEENSLAND, AUSTRALIA	79
A MULTI-SCALE DECOMPOSITION-BASED APPROACH FOR REAL-TIME TOURISM FORECASTING	82
MARKET SEGMENTATION BY MOTIVATION: A STUDY ON GERMAN TOURISTS VISITING SIDE, ANTALYA-TURKEY	86
THE PACKAGE TOUR EXPERIENCES	93
IMPACT OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT ON TOURISM OF REGION IN SLOVAKIA ...	100
MARKETING COMMUNICATION OF SENIORS IN GOLF TOURISM	110
LOCAL RESIDENTS' LEVEL OF TRUST, EMOTIONS, ATTACHMENT, AND SUPPORT FOR THE 2014 FIFA WORLD CUP, BRAZIL.....	119
HEALTH TOURISM AND POLICIES: BENCHMARKING WORLD'S AND TURKEY'S SITUATION.....	129
WHAT SCREAMS ARE MADE OF: SELLING EMOTIONS WITH TOURIST PROMOTIONAL RACK CARDS	144
WHEN HERITAGE MEETS MARATHON	149
UNLOCKING LUXURY TRAVEL CONSUMPTION IN CHINA	160
HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM RESEARCH IN SWISS HOTEL SCHOOLS: A CASE STUDY OF RESEARCH PRACTICES AT ECOLE HÔ TELIÈRE DE LAUSANNE	177
THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT ON JOB PERFORMANCE: THE DISCUSSION OF POST 90S	192
CUSTOMERS' EXPECTATIONS OF HOTEL GREEN MARKETING: A NEW ZEALAND CASE STUDY	205



THE EFFECT OF SOCIAL MEDIA DESIGN CONCEPTS (WESTERN ORIENTED OR TRADITIONAL CHINESE ORIENTED) ON CHINESE CONSUMERS' ATTITUDE TOWARD THE BRAND.....	219
SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL CONCEPT: A NEW TOURISM MARKETING STRATEGY FOR CHINA?	240
THE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND JOB SATISFACTION: THE HOTEL SAMPLE	251
SMART TOURIST DESTINATIONS: A DUAL APPROACH.....	259
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL TOURISM RECEIPTS AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN THE CHINA ECONOMY	274
A STUDY OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION, RE-VISITING WILLINGNESS: A CASE OF LOTUS LAKE OF KAOHSIUNG ZUOYING.....	287
MOVING AWAY FROM MASS TOURISM TO CREATIVE TOURISM – HOW TO GET STARTED A CASE STUDY: CREATIVE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF TRAT PROVINCE, THAILAND.....	299
REFINING THE RESTAURANT PREFERENCES BEHAVIOR MODEL.....	311
WEIGHT OF HOTEL ATTRIBUTES: APPLICATION TO GUESTS OF DISNEYLANG PARIS HOTELS	325
USING REVPAR INDEX TO CLASSIFY THE MARKET OF TAIWAN'S INTERNATIONAL TOURIST HOTELS	336
INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTEER TOURISM: THE MORAL EXPERIENCE OF TAIWANESE TOURISTS	345
THE IMPACT OF HOTEL TECHNOLOGY INNOVATION ON CUSTOMERS' HOTEL SELECTION.....	349
ANALYZING CUSTOMER ONLINE SEARCH QUERIES: A SEMANTIC APPROACH IN SPONSORED SEARCH ADVERTISING	359
EVALUATION OF THE ACCESSIBLE DESTINATIONS' DMO WEBSITES: A CONTENT ANALYSIS ON DMO WEBSITES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION EDEN 2013 PROJECT DESTINATIONS	367
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MEDICAL TOURISM – PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION	379
CHINESE PAPERS.....	393
主题酒店发展模式探讨.....	394



民宿客栈网络营销策略探析.....	394
以貌取人? 酒店对客服服务的凝视研究.....	395
我国温泉酒店服务质量评论分析--基于携程网的网络评论	395
需求视阈下旅游公共服务的内涵和形成机制研究.....	395
大型体育赛事吉祥物品牌个性对出游意愿影响——以“威威”、“金鳞”、“泰山童子”、“宁宁”为例	396
旅游者购买意愿和满意度模式研究——基于旅游行为构造的视角	396
酒店行业的别样风景-设计酒店	397
客户关系管理机制内涵与特征及构建路径探析.....	407
基于旅游人类学视角的旅游目的地文化涵化研究.....	407
游客不当行为对其国家形象的影响——来源国刻板印象的调节作用	408
1978 年来我国旅游与经济发展波动周期的非同步性分析	418
经济型品牌连锁酒店网络关注度时空分布特征及形成机理——以如家快捷酒店为例	418
浅析旅游 IP——旅游发展的新思路	419
华侨城集团投资经营海螺沟景区的风险分析.....	419
民族社区居民参与乡村旅馆经营现状及问题研究.....	420
浙江民宿产业的集聚特征及形成机理研究.....	420
基于 CVM 视角的三峡国家公园管理制度研究.....	421
社会化媒体对旅游者行为意愿影响研究.....	421
民宿众筹影响因素分析.....	422
基于收益管理的酒店价格显示策略对大学生订购意愿的影响.....	422
不同类型旅游扶贫重点村农户参与旅游活动的方式及影响因素研究——以秦巴山区为例	423
国内在线旅游上市企业微博、微信营销内容研究.....	423



滕王阁文化景区游客满意度影响因子分析——以携程游客评论为例..... 424

基于游客视角的景区品牌资产模型构建..... 424

基于大数据的我国省域旅游客源市场信息系统的构建研究——奥地利 TourMIS 的启示.. 425

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ABSTRACTS



A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR PREDICTING CHINESE ECOTOURISTS' TRAVEL INTENTION TOWARDS A FOREIGN ECOTOURISM DESTINATION

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ABSTRACT

China's ecotourism market has grown rapidly in the past decade and there has been a growing interest among Chinese ecotourists in taking overseas ecotourism trips. Despite the market size and potential, little has been known about the characteristics of the Chinese ecotourism market, in particular, Chinese ecotourists' destination selection behaviour. Choosing an international travel destination often involves a complex decision process of which prediction of travel intention is one of the key issues facing ecotourism. Drawn from the Country Image literature and the Theory of Planned Behavior, this paper proposes a conceptual framework in which a number of important factors are identified. It is hoped that this conceptual framework can help ecotourism marketers and operators develop a comprehensive understanding of Chinese ecotourists' travel intentions towards an international ecotourism destination, such as Australia.

Key Words: ecotourism, China, Australia, destination, country image, Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB).



**AUTHENTICITY AND PLACE ATTACHMENT TO NATURAL TOURISM
DESTINATIONS: AN EXPERIENTIAL PERSPECTIVE**

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ABSTRACT

Place attachment as an important predictor of satisfaction and loyalty remains under-examined and demands more consideration both academically and practically. Drawing from a comprehensive literature review of relevant studies, this study develops and tests a coherent conceptual model to explain the complexities involved in developing place attachment with distinctive dimensions of dependence, identity, affect, and social bonding. It takes a visitor-centric view and recognizes the focal role of visitor perceptions in the relationship between marketing stimuli and marketing outcomes. This study critically examines perceived authenticity as a principal mechanism that mediates the relationship between destination image and place attachment. It is proposed that destination image is positively related to authenticity, which in turn leads to place dependence, place identity, place affect, and place social bonding. Data was collected in Tropical North Queensland and Phillip Island, from November 2015 to January 2016. Structural Equation Modelling using AMOS v.23 was applied to test the hypotheses concerning the relations between destination image and authenticity, authenticity and different dimensions of place attachment and the mediated relationships through authenticity between destination image and different dimensions of place attachment. All proposed hypotheses were supported. This paper closes with implications of the study for academics and practitioners.

Key Words: destination image, authenticity, place attachment, mediation



A TALE OF TWO CULTURES: BEHAVIORAL IMPLICATIONS OF VISITOR AND HOST CULTURES AMONG YOUNG CHINESE TOURISTS TO THE UNITED STATES

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ABSTRACT

Due to China's loosening of travel restrictions, growing middle class, and national population of 1.4 billion, tourism's largest area for growth is China's outbound tourism market (Fountain et al, 2010). Young Chinese travelers represent a growing market segment, with sizeable financial and cultural implications for hosts and guests alike (Chan, 2006; Sparks & Pan, 2009). The coming of age of this cohort has led to significant cultural impacts on host destinations, and scholars have paid particular attention to independent young Chinese travelers (Prayag et al., 2015).

The scholarly corpus on Chinese outbound tourists continues to grow unabated (Jin & Wang, 2015). Fountain et al (2010) analyzed the motivations, expectations, and overall satisfaction of Chinese tourists on their visits to New Zealand. Li et al (2011) sought to understand the expectations of Chinese tourists in regards to hotels, activities, food, itineraries, and transportation. Sparks and Pan (2009) researched the attitudes of Chinese tourists towards international travel, the influences present when choosing destinations, and the use of information in the decision-making process. In one of the few studies focused on young Chinese travelers, Xu and McGehee (2012) analyzed the shopping behaviors and experiences of Chinese tourists on their trips to the U.S, concluding that while the visitors' experience was positive, cultural vehicles such as language could be improved.

Missing from this body of literature is the study of young Chinese tourists' cultural expectations and behavior when traveling to the U.S., specifically in the Midwest region. Further, given the paucity of studies focusing on young Chinese travelers to the U.S., questions concerning how culture impacts this most important market segment remain unanswered (Chan 2006). What is more, the effect of U.S. locals' attitudes towards Chinese visitors is also severely understudied.

To address these and other gaps in the literature this study asked the following research questions: Is there a visitor/guest culture among young Chinese tourists to the American Midwest? How does such culture impact their tourist behavior? Lastly, this study sought to investigate the behavioral outcomes of the acculturation and enculturation processes when host (American) and guest (Chinese) cultures meet within the purviews of what Edensor (2001) called the "produced tourist space." Using a mixed-methods approach, the present study used participant observation, in-depth interviews, and tourist imagery analysis to question Chinese freshmen from a large American university in the Midwest visiting several local tourist landmarks about their culture(s) and experience(s). Cultural consensus and cultural consonance analyses were conducted to investigate whether or not a guest culture exists(ed) among them, as well as its influence on tourist behaviors. Preliminary findings point towards the existence of two separate cultures, with distinct effects on young Chinese tourists' behavior: a visitor culture, representing the travelers' own beliefs and cultural mores, and a second, host-influenced culture, mass-mediated by perceptions of what Chinese tourists are "supposed" to do. Findings highlighted the need to focus on culture as an operating variable when studying tourist behavior of young Chinese tourists. Managerial implications and futures avenues for scholarly research are discussed.



**PROPOSING THE VISITOR-EXHIBITOR-ORGANIZER CONCEPTUAL
FRAMEWORK ON TRADE SHOW PERFORMANCE EVALUATION**

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this study was to propose and examine the Visitor-Exhibitor-Organizer (VEO) conceptual framework on trade show performance evaluation. Building on stakeholder theory and survey data from two pilot tests and the main study with a total of 1,022 valid responses from trade show exhibitors and 514 valid responses from trade show visitors, the empirically supported VEO framework extends previous research on trade show performance by incorporating all three key stakeholders in the trade show industry (i.e. visitors, exhibitors, and organizers). The results of the first pilot study suggested that visitors' and exhibitors' overall satisfaction with a trade show consists of three components: satisfaction with self-performance and satisfaction with the other two key stakeholders, respectively. It was also found that the VEO framework explained a good portion of variance in visitors' and exhibitors' overall satisfaction and positive behavioral intention, which suggests that the three key stakeholders must be accounted for when evaluating trade show performance. To further examine the application of VEO framework, a follow up study was conducted to construct and validate a VEO measurement instrument on exhibitors' satisfaction through a pilot test, scale purification and validation. The final instrument consisted of 46-items that represented 12 sub-dimensions and 3 dimensions of exhibitors' satisfaction. Reliability, multidimensionality, content validity, construct validity, discriminant validity, and predictive validity of the scale were tested and established using 930 responses from 4 trade shows in China. The end-product, a 46-item measurement scale on exhibitors' satisfaction, can be used by organizers to determine the factors that influence exhibitor's trade show experience and market and manage their trade show accordingly. Using the 46-item measurement scale on exhibitors' satisfaction to predict positive behavioral intention, it was found that satisfaction with self-performance, satisfaction with organizers, and satisfaction with visitors are significantly and positively related to exhibitors' positive behavioral intention. Satisfaction with organizers turned out to be the dominant predictor with a standardized path coefficient of .442 (t -value = 6.161, $p < .001$) while satisfaction with self-performance and satisfaction with visitors also positively affected exhibitors' positive behavioral intention. In combination, these three dimensions explained approximately 65% of the variance in exhibitors' positive behavioral intention. Overall, a major contribution of this study is that it introduces a new approach to measuring satisfaction in the trade show industry. Previous research on trade shows has focused on one specific stakeholder and ignored the interactions taking place with other stakeholders, which was problematic because it failed to capture the significant impacts of all three key stakeholders. The results of this study supported stakeholder theory and indicated that all three dimensions (i.e., satisfaction with self-performance and satisfaction with the other two key stakeholders, respectively) had a significant positive effect on trade show performance. Thus, in the future it would be myopic to focus on only one or two stakeholders when studying trade show performance because the performance of the three key stakeholders in the trade show industry is closely linked.



BEAM ME UP, SCOTTIE! DRONES AND THE PRODUCTION OF A ‘THIRD SPACE’ IN TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

This working paper investigates the role of drones and their production of a ‘Third Space’ in tourism. Specifically, drones, or unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), are remotely piloted objects that can be steered for a range of purposes. Within tourism, drones have been employed for conservation studies (Koh & Wich, 2012), delivering food in restaurants (Liu, 2015), crisis management (Ferris-Rotman, 2015) and marketing campaigns (Ironsides, 2014).

Despite their increasing adoption within industry, academic studies on drones remain limited. An extant study by Birtchnell and Gibson (2015) revealed that the current state of social research employing drones has been very much associated with understanding topography and potentially, human behaviour. However, the authors lamented that “*there has been next to no reflection on how drones might impact upon the social sciences as a research tool.*” (Page 182). Prompted by the limited scope of studies surrounding drones in tourism, this paper investigates how drones are a key tool in the production of a ‘Third Space’ in tourism. Borrowing from Soja (1996), the term ‘Third Space’ is a rubric that interplays between the lived and imagined worlds of individuals. According to Soja (1996), *First Space* are regions that can be mapped onto a chart to show its physical locations. In contrast, *Second Space* involves the imagined realms of places as produced in film, art and other craft. Finally, *Third Space* teases out the ideas and symbolic interactions of places and people within their everyday lives. Applied to a drones context, this framework is well suited to tease out the motivations of participants who employ drones for tourism and their experiences.

This research will involve participant observation of a community of drone users based in Singapore in December 2015/January 2016. Participants will be approached within social media communities of drone enthusiasts and provided with a brief overview of the research. Interested participants are then invited to a local park and beach setting where they are first observed in their use of drones unobtrusively. Data will be captured through the use of a video camera. Subsequently, all participants will be invited to participate in a focus group discussion of their drone experiences that is audio-recorded. All data collected on-site with participants will be analyzed and a summary of findings will be presented at the AHTMM conference 2016. The author will also bring a drone to the conference and demonstrate its use in action.



**A WELCOME INVASION? HOST-GUEST RELATIONSHIPS IN AIRBNB
COMMERCIAL HOMES**

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ABSTRACT

Commercial home, accommodation where guests pay to stay in private homes and share space with the hosts (Lynch, 2005), serves both business and private home functions (Di Domenico & Lynch, 2007). The emergence of commercial home has blurred the boundaries of the social, private and commercial hospitality domains (Lashley, 2000). Traditionally, the three domains share the concept of hospitableness but feature distinct interpersonal relationships. As a hybrid of hospitality in private and commercial domains, commercial home could presumably create a new host-guest relationship — one different from that in home reception and employee-guest interactions in commercial hotels.

Airbnb, an online community for commercial home hosts and guests, has experienced surprisingly rapid growth since its foundation in 2008. It is reported that the New York City lodging market and economy suffered a \$2.1 billion (rounded) loss between September 2014 and August 2015, due to the emergence of Airbnb (HVS Consulting & Valuation, 2015). Unignorably, commercial home has played an ever-important role in hospitality industry, which makes it necessary to understand the host-guest relationships associated with commercial homes.

The growth of Airbnb has gained increasing attention among researchers. However, to the authors' knowledge, no prior research has focused on the host-guest relationships associated with Airbnb commercial homes. Some research has examined host-guest experience in commercial home, including hosts' relationships with commercial home (Sweeney & Lynch, 2007), hosts' homestay hosting experience (McIntosh, Lynch, & Sweeney, 2010), and spatial interactions between hosts and guests (Di Domenico & Lynch, 2007). Although these studies have shed some light on the host-guest interactions, they did not necessarily provide sound theoretical foundation to understand the host-guest relationships in commercial homes. In addition, Airbnb, as a mediator between hosts and guests, actively exerts its influence on host-guest relationships in commercial homes. Research is warranted to recognize the role of mediators like Airbnb in host-guest relationships.

This study, following a qualitative approach, attempts to provide theoretical insights into the unexplored host-guest relationships with Airbnb as a mediator. The focus of this study is the underlying mechanism of host-guest interactions in commercial homes, and the role that Airbnb plays in the host-guest relationships. Specifically, stories posted online by both hosts and guests will be collected via theoretical sampling, and sufficient users of Airbnb (both hosts and guests) will be interviewed to achieve theoretical saturation. With multiple coding processes, how hosts and guests interact in commercial home and the role and duties of a mediator will be analyzed. Theoretical explanations will be proposed to understand the host-guest relationships.



Theoretical significance of this study lies in the conceptual locus to facilitate understanding of host-guest relationships in commercial home settings and the role of mediators in the host-guest relationships, which echoes the increasingly recognized notion of sharing in people's daily lives (John, 2013). Practically, findings of this study will benefit commercial home hosts and guests in their communication and interactions, and help third party mediators to improve hosts' and guests' experience. Moreover, the host-guest relationships can be generalized to relationships between host communities and tourists.

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ADVANCING THE DESTINATION DUALITY MODEL: A CONTENT MODEL OF MENTAL DESTINATION REPRESENTATIONS

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ABSTRACT

During the last forty years, tourism researchers have devoted considerable effort to understand the way individuals mentally form and use representations of a destination (e.g. Baloglu and McCleary 1999). Destination image has become the most important construct to explain and measure individuals' choice of destinations and their intention to visit them. Likewise, tourism managers use destination image in their attempts to understand tourist behavior, and destinations make efforts to improve their image.

Given the importance of the concept, much tourism research has focused on this area. Yet many studies find conflicting results and the strength and at times even the directionality of the concept with tourism outcomes even conflict. This is at least in part caused by the lack of theoretical grounding of the destination image construct (Beerli and Martin 2004) and the myriad of constructs that have been developed and used under this common label (Stylidis, Belhassen and Shani 2015). The present paper addresses this gap. We develop a destination content model (DCM) which relies on and advances the destination duality model (Josiassen et al. 2015). The duality model delimits destination imagery (DY) and destination image (DI) as two separate concepts with DY driving DI. While the original duality model (Josiassen et al., 2015) contributed greatly to clarify the understanding of tourists' destination dispositions, the coverage and the theoretical underpinnings of the model are still limited.

The DCM conceptualizes mental destination representations as a three-dimensional content model and outlines the formation processes that work to link the dimensions. In particular, three distinct but related types of mental destination representations are developed. We draw on seminal psychology literature and thus address recent calls from academicians to establish stronger links between psychology and tourism (Pearce and Packer 2013). The present work documents that the existing view in tourism research on mental representations about destinations (referred to as the 'destination image' in these studies) provides a too simplistic and often problematic view on mental processes and tourist behavior. By proposing a three-dimensional concept of destination image, this study structures the rich literature on destination image and enables researchers to build their future research on a sound theoretical base and enables appropriate conceptualization as well as the right operationalization for the destination construct under investigation.

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TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY E-MARKETING VIA WECHAT AND WEIBO: A COMPARISON OF SMALL COMPANIES AND BIG ESTABLISHMENTS IN THIS INDUSTRY IN CHINA

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ABSTRACT

The popularity of Wechat (the China version of Line and Twitter combined) and Weibo (the China version of Facebook) as social media platforms is widespread and dominant in China, one of the biggest tourism markets in the world. Currently, Wechat boasts a monthly active user group of 600 million people, while Weibo has a daily active user group of 93 million. The great potential of using Wechat and Weibo as marketing channels in the fledgling development have already turned into promising ones generating real profits and prosperity for tourism industry. However, limited research has been done on how and what for hospitality and tourism businesses should effectively use Wechat and Weibo, and what the industry should do to be more efficient in using them.

This exploratory study compares the use of Wechat and Weibo in e - marketing of tourism and hospitality between SMEs (like private hostels, small hotels with features of themes, good restaurants in tourism cities) and some more well - established entities (like international hotel chains in China, tourism cities' official e - marketing social media channels) in China. SMEs are well - operating ones from local government approved lists, and international companies are those of big revenue in the local tourism and hospitality industry. Data are collected via browsing and recording in - operating Weibo and Wechat E - marketing webpages and are recorded manually. In total, 10 SMEs' and 10 big international companies' official Weibo and Wechat are included (mainly in Guangdong Province and Hainan Province of China).

Correlation analysis is carried out to indicate the correlation between variables (including number of new postings, frequency of new postings, posting size, length of text in postings and number, number of trendy catchphrases) about features of Wechat and Weibo pages, and number of Likes (which reflects the efficacy of e - marketing). One - way ANOVA is carried out to see if postings with Red Envelope in Wechat, and postings with Hashtags or other features in Weibo will lead to larger number of Likes than those without it. The degrees of correlation and significant importance are recorded, compared, and interpreted.

The results show differences between the two groups. The comparison on number of new postings, frequency of new postings, posting size, length of text in postings and number finds that in social media marketing of tourism and hospitality, smaller companies/entities are less well - organized, less well - planned, and more obviously immediate - profit - oriented (reflected by sudden surging/better content quality of postings in peak seasons and much less number/lower qualities of postings in off - peak seasons) than the more overwhelmingly dominant entities or companies in tourism and hospitality industry. Interestingly, some small

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companies/entities show more drive and carry out interestingly effective experiments in innovation in e - marketing in content creation and styles of communication via social media. More research is needed on the topic of Wechat/Weibo - marketing in tourism and hospitality while international social media giants like Facebook and Twitter are also bidding their best time to enter into this huge market to be the strongest rivals of Wechat and Weibo in the future.

Key Words: E - marketing, social network, tourism, hospitality, Wechat, Weibo



BIG DATA-ARE WE READY FOR IT? A PRESPECTIVE OF HOSPITALITY EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Web searches, mobile phones, tracking system, sensors, electronic payment and social networks are generating massive volumes of data. Today scientists have developed new technologies to capture, store, search, share, analyze and visualized the mountains of data exhaust in what is called “Big Data”. Big data is a term that describes the large volume of data – both structured and unstructured – that inundates a business on a day-to-day basis. While the term “big data” is relatively new, the act of gathering and storing large amounts of information for eventual analysis is ages old. The concept gained momentum in the early 2000s when industry analyst Doug Laney articulated the now-mainstream definition of big data as the three Vs:

Volume. Organizations collect data from a variety of sources, including business transactions, social media and information from sensor or machine-to-machine data. In the past, storing it would have been a problem – but new technologies (such as Hadoop) have eased the burden.

Velocity. Data streams in at an unprecedented speed and must be dealt with in a timely manner. RFID tags, sensors and smart metering are driving the need to deal with torrents of data in near-real time.

Variety. Data comes in all types of formats – from structured, numeric data in traditional databases to unstructured text documents, email, video, audio, stock ticker data and financial transactions

Research showed that it was not the amount of data that was important. It is what organizations do with the data that matters. Big data can be analyzed for insights that lead to better decisions and strategic business moves.

“If there was ever an area of the economy primed for the use of big data, it is the travel industry” (Brian Honigman, 2014). Big data offers the potential for a vast shift for all travel companies, empowering them to enhance both the business and experience of travel (Thomas Davenport, 2013). Airlines, hotels, cruise companies, travel management, railways and travel agencies have an opportunity to improve their business and the customer experiences by effectively handling the big data at their fingertips.

While big data is starting to be embraced by the travel sector, do future managers know how to take the advantages of the advancements? The purpose of this study is to interview educators and students on their knowledge of big data’s current and coming impact on travel industry. The research also intends to examine how big data has been included in the curriculum of hospitality and tourism management. A series of interviews will be conducted among students and educators in hospitality and tourism management in ten higher educational institutions in the Midwest region of USA. The findings might assist the educational institutions in developing learning models of big data technology, benefits and analysis which lead to better business decision.



THE EFFECT OF ETHICAL CLIMATE ON FOOD SAFETY RESPONSES OF F&B EMPLOYEES IN TAIWAN'S HOTEL INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

Various food safety incidents have increased consumers' concern about food safety (Hsu & Chen, 2014) and business ethics (Wang, 2014) across many countries. In the F&B workplace, employees dealing with food preparation are the main gatekeepers of food safety and thus their food safety behaviors are essential to organizational outcomes, such as customer satisfaction, corporate image and reputation, and financial performance (Ko, 2013). Applying Schwartz's (1975) notion of knowledge-attitude-behavior to the F&B work environment, employees' food safety knowledge would influence their attitudes towards food safety and then affect their related behaviors. In spite of that, corporate ethics has been identified positively influencing organizational performance, such as corporate image, reputation, and public relationships (Valentine et al., 2014). Schwepker and Hartline (2005) stressed that ethical climate, which serves as a cultural control mechanism, can enhance employees' attitudinal responses of service employees. In the same vein, in the context of F&B workplace, it can be postulated that ethical climate is likely to influence employees' food safety attitudes, which further impact their food safety behaviors. Consequently, organizational ethical climate is regarded as a key role moderating the relationship between employees' food safety knowledge and attitudes, which eventually leads to employees' food safety behaviors. Targeting the sample of F&B employees, this study proposed the following hypotheses:

- H1. Food safety knowledge positively influences food safety attitudes of F&B employees.
- H2. Food safety attitudes positively influence food safety behaviors of F&B employees.
- H3. Food safety attitudes significantly mediate the effect of food safety knowledge on related behaviors.
- H4. Perceived ethical climate significantly moderates the effect of food safety knowledge on related attitudes.

METHOD

The sample comprised employees dealing with food preparation at the F&B department in international hotels in Taiwan. A questionnaire survey was administered to collect data from 16 international hotels. Of 540 distributed questionnaires, 397 questionnaires were returned, accounted for a 73.5 % response rate. This study used four scales adopted from previous studies for construct measurement. The six-item scale of perceived ethical climate was adopted from Wotruba et al.'s (2001) study; the seven-item scale of food safety attitudes was derived from McIntyre et al.'s (2013) measure; and the scale of food safety behaviors was adopted from Ko's (2001) research. All the aforementioned scales were measured with 7-point Likert scales, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). In addition, the 16-item scale of food safety knowledge was also adopted from Ko's (2001) study to measure respondents' scores received from correct food safety knowledge.

RESULTS



At the beginning, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to confirm the structures of the constructs of this study. After modification, the factor loadings of all remaining items of each construct are within .64 and .95. The composite reliability (CR) ranges from .88 to .91, which are all above .70. The average variance extracted (AVE) ranges from .59 to .67, which are higher than the threshold value .50, indicating good convergent validity. Additionally, the correlations of the variables were performed. The square roots of the AVE are all higher than the inter-correlation values among each item, revealing appropriate discriminant validity. Next, the structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to assess the hypotheses of this study. The paths between food safety knowledge and attitudes ($r = .20$, $p < .001$) and food safety attitudes and behaviors ($r = .67$, $p < .001$) are all significantly positive, indicating that H1 and H2 are supported. Moreover, the direct, indirect, and total effects of the hypothesized model were estimated. The results indicate that food safety attitudes significantly mediate the effect of food safety knowledge on food safety behaviors, thus H3 is supported. Furthermore, the relationship between food safety knowledge and attitudes was significantly moderated by employee perceived ethical climate, thus H4 is also supported. The findings reveal that perceived ethical climate plays a critical role in shaping attitudinal responses in food safety of F&B employees in the hotel industry. Despite the positive effect of food safety knowledge, it is suggested that hotel firms should pay attention to ethics control systems such as corporate ethics programs since they can help managers to create the ethical climate reinforcing the effect of attitudes towards food safety of F&B employees. Once positive attitudes have been developed, F&B employees are more likely to demonstrate food safety behaviors that can lead to positive outcomes, including customer trust and satisfaction and increased corporate overall performance.

Key Words: Perceived ethical climate; Food safety knowledge; Food safety attitude; Food safety behavior; F&B employee



A STUDY ON PERFORMANCE OF STANDARD OPERATION PROCEDURE FOR FOODSERVICE INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

This study applied the theory of planned behavior (TPB) to construct the model of behavior intention of food service industry staff apply standard operation procedure (SOP). Attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control were positive behavior attitude toward the applied SOP. Attitude showed toward the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control; applying SOP behavior intention showed significant predictive power to applying SOP behavior satisfaction

Key Words: the theory of planned behavior, behavior intention, behavior satisfaction, standard operation procedure

INTRODUCTION

A Standard Operation Procedure (SOP) is a set of directions that must be followed to ensure food safety when completing certain tasks. These SOP's should be used as a guide to establishing a food safety program for your operation. Food safety SOPs including corrective actions, monitoring procedures, verification procedures, and record keeping procedures. It is very important issue for foodservice industry. This study applied the theory of planned behavior (TPB) to construct the model of behavior intention of foodservice industry staff apply standard operation procedure (SOP). The purpose of this study was to understand the influence of each variables (behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, control beliefs, attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control) toward behavioral intention of foodservice industry staff applied SOP.

METHODOLOGY

The survey was conducted questionnaires to the foodservice industry staff, a total of 410 valid questionnaires, 397 were returned, the effective recovery rate was 96.83%.

RESULTS

The result of this thesis, we found that attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control were positive behavior attitude toward the applied SOP. Using correlation analysis, we found correlation between behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, control beliefs, attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, behavioral intention and behavioral satisfaction. Furthermore, attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control showed a 57.4% significant predictive power to applying SOP

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behavior intention under the multiple regressions; applying SOP behavior intention showed 65.6% significant predictive power to applying SOP behavior satisfaction under the multiple regressions. No significant difference between different personal gender and working experience in behavior intention and behavior satisfaction. However higher education staff, management team staff, younger generation staff, restaurant chain store staff and western food restaurant had higher positive behavior intention and behavior satisfaction. Moreover, the staff that did on job training had higher positive behavior intention but no significant difference in behavior satisfaction.



PERCEPTION OF MAURITIAN TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS ON THE SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL

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Background: The need for global tobacco control coupled with the need for innovation in tourism marketing has triggered the design of the Smoke-Free Supportive Hotel Concept: This hotel concept provides a holiday package which protects non-smokers from second-hand smoke, offers help to quit to smokers and prevents uptake of tobacco use among children [Chan Sun & Nunkoo, 2015].

Objectives: The aim of this research work is to explore the feasibility of the Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept among stakeholders of the tourism industry in Mauritius. Its objectives are to capture the views of relevant stakeholders on the SFS Hotel Concept and to explore avenues for its implementation.

Methods: A qualitative exploratory study, which is based on the structured interviewing of participants, is being carried out. The study sample consists of hotel managers, other stakeholders of the tourism industry and also stakeholders of tobacco control in Mauritius. An email is sent to prospective participants with the following three attached files, concept brief, participation information sheet and interview guide. Ethical clearance from the relevant academic /health institution was obtained prior to start of field work. The interviews are audiotaped for the purpose of thorough qualitative data collection, with prior permission sought from participants. The transcription of the audios is being performed with tools available from the NVIVO software. Anonymity of data collected is maintained throughout the research process. The study sample size will be constituted by saturation. The NVIVO 10 software which will be used for data analysis will facilitate the organization of the sources and the identification of the nodes or themes of this research work.

Findings: Positive and negative perceptions on the hotel concept will be presented. The main themes, project feasibility and project leadership, will be communicated. Unexpected emerging data will also be revealed. The need for marketing strategies to target the specific customers and tourists in general has been identified.

Discussion: Optimistic views on the concept itself and on its feasibility prevail. The reasons for the choice of the hospitality sector for the implementation of this hotel concept will be discussed. The anticipated reasons for the success of the concept will also be put forward. The demand for health and wellness services needs to be addressed.

Keywords: tourism marketing, new hotel concept, stop smoking services, health and wellness tourism



PERCEPTION OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS ON THE NOVEL SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL CONCEPT

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Introduction: The Smoke-Free Supportive (SFS) Hotel Concept is presented as a meaningful hotel package which stakeholders of both the tourism and the health sector need to explore as an innovative marketing strategy. The product is meaningful as it aims at delivering positive health outcomes. The product is novel as such hotel package has not yet been proposed to customers. It will be cool as it helps consumers to return to normalized behavior. As a matter of fact, smoking is being more and more de-normalized as a consequence of smoking bans being implemented in more and more countries.

Objectives: The proposed workshop to the 6th AHTMM organizing committee on this novel SFS Hotel Concept has two objectives: (1) to present the new SFS Hotel Concept to tourism and hospitality stakeholders through a PowerPoint Presentation and (2) to explore views of international stakeholders on its potential as tourism marketing strategy through a focus group discussion among volunteer participants registered for the workshop.

Methods: The workshop will be organized in two parts: (1) Presentation of the SFS Hotel Concept to all participants registered for the workshop, (2) Focus Group Discussion (FGD) among workshop participants who are agreeable to participate on a voluntary basis in the FGD. The targeted participants will be *attendees from academia, industry, government, and other organizations to actively exchange, share, and challenge* this novel SFS Hotel Concept, as well as the chairs (or representatives) of the six AHTMM conferences since 2011. Informed written consent from participants will be sought prior to the workshop. As such, during the planning and organization process of the workshop, a participant information sheet will be provided to potential participants of the workshop so as to invite registration for the FGD. Ethical clearance from relevant body will have to be sought. The FGD will be facilitated by principal investigator with the second investigator acting as moderator. There will be two rapporteurs for data collection. The FGD will be video-recorded for the purpose of quality assurance with respect to qualitative data collection.

Findings: The video generated and its content will constitute part of the findings of this qualitative study. The interpretation of the video and the notes taken by the rapporteurs will be carried out subsequently. All participants in the video will be acknowledged in the planned publication of this qualitative study and/or may be considered as co-authors.

Discussion: The SFS is being presented as an innovative means of marketing strategy for the tourism and hospitality industry in a globalized environment where the prevalence of smokers is high. The 6th AHTMM conference in Guangzhou will, through this proposed workshop, be providing an innovative means to *stimulate dialogue, and develop new perspectives in the field of hospitality and tourism within the globalized environment.*

Keywords: Tourism Marketing, Health and Wellness Tourism, Health Services Accessibility, Smoking Cessation.



**STUDY OF THE EFFECT OF DIFFERENT DIMENSIONS OF PLACE
ATTACHMENT ON RESIDENTS' TWO TYPES OF WORD-OF-MOUTH
BEHAVIOUR: THE CASE OF SYDNEY AND SHANGHAI**

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ABSTRACT

Due to the development of information and communication technology, residents are playing an increasingly important role in tourism destination marketing and attracting potential tourists. Little research has been done on the relationship formed between residents and a place, or residents' actual behavioural influences on a destination. A gap exists between the perceived importance of residents in destination studies and the lack of research on residents' actual behaviour. Therefore, this study aims to understand how residents recognize, understand, and identify their place and what role they are playing in destination planning and development; and further, how their voluntary WOM behaviour to promote the place as a destinations is motivated and generated.

To set up the study context, the article starts with a literature review on place attachment, word-of-mouth and its motivation. This study focuses on one-to-many WOM (WOM generated from one and sent to many) and many-to-many WOM (WOM generated and communicated in a social context) about a place as a tourism destination. Because potential tourists are increasing using this Web 2.0 media to obtain information to assist them in choosing a tourist destination, an increasing number of researchers are exploring how to encourage users to generate more positive WOM and prevent them from generating negative WOM about certain product or service. This study proposes different dimensions of place attachment (place identity, place dependence, social bonding, affective attachment, place memory, and place expectation) have impact on these two types of WOM in different manners.

A survey approach was employed to test the hypotheses. Data was collected from two cities on a stratified sample of 330 Shanghai residents and 361 Sydney residents from November 2011 through March 2012. First confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test the validity of the indicator variables. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was thereafter used to identify relationships among the constructs in the hypotheses.

Shanghai and Sydney residents share a direct relationship from place expectation to one-to-many WOM, which means residents' expectation on the city's future has an influence on their information posting behaviours on social media. In addition, how residents are dependent on Shanghai will influence their one-to-many WOM behaviour, while Sydney residents' behaviour on social media can be influenced by their past experiences. The case of many-to-many WOM behaviour is more complex than others. Shanghai residents' WOM sharing on tourism online communities may be affected by their place identity,



affective attachment, social bonding, and place memory of Shanghai. On the other hand, only two factors have direct influences on Sydney residents' many-to-many WOM behaviour: their social bonding and place expectation of Sydney. And for both Sydney and Shanghai residents, a direct relationship between social bonding and many-to-many WOM was found. The results suggest unforgettable or memorable events can motivate residents of a destination to generate positive WOM of their resident place in private conversations, and higher expectation of the resident place will lead to more WOM behaviour in private and on social media.

Key Words: place attachment; destination branding; word-of-mouth; Sydney; Shanghai; Tourism



A LARGER PIE OR MORE SLICES? SENIOR TOURISM MARKET IN CHINA

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ABSTRACT

China has witnessed a rapid increase of aging population and will become the world's most aged society in 2030. It is expected that by 2050, China's population aged 60 and over will swell to 330 million, which account for a quarter of its total population. The burgeoning senior population, together with the changing household structure and growing wealth, has made people believe the Chinese senior tourism as a promising market. However, the classical life cycle model predicts that household consumption drops substantially after retirement, and this is referred to as the retirement consumption puzzle. With the backdrop of the rise of seniors in China, this study examines whether Chinese households smooth tourism consumption after retirement, as predicted by the theory of retirement consumption puzzle. A mandatory retirement policy at age 60 for men and 55 for women in China's governments, public sectors, state-owned enterprises and collectively-owned enterprises provides a natural experiment for this empirical study. We exploit the mandatory retirement policy and apply the regression discontinuity approach, a quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design that elicits the causal effects of interventions by assigning a cutoff or threshold above or below which an intervention is assigned, to estimate the impact of household head's retirement on the household tourism consumption. Moreover, the dataset of China Family Panel Studies (CFPS), a nationwide, comprehensive, longitudinal household survey, is employed in this study. The CFPS dataset includes detailed and nuanced information on household consumption, family structure, migrant mobility, event history (e.g., history of marriage, education, and employment), cognitive ability, and child development. The results of both the regression discontinuity design and the fuzzy regression discontinuity design indicate that retirement does not affect household tourism consumption significantly, which suggests that the retirement consumption puzzle may not exist within the household tourism consumption in China. Based on the results of regression discontinuity approach and the rise of senior population in China, we predict that the senior tourism industry in China will start to soar in the future. Furthermore, we estimate a double-hurdle model to explore the factors that affect the travel decisions and household tourism consumption of the Chinese senior. Our results suggested that self-assessment of health status is the most important factor that affect both travel decisions and household tourism consumption of the senior. This study also showed similarities and differences in the determinants of travel decisions and household tourism consumption between retired and un-retired tourists. This two-step approach provides in-depth information on the processes involved in deciding to travel and how much to spend on travel of senior in China. The results impart valuable insights on understanding senior tourists. This research also presents new challenges to China's senior tourism market, such as identifying distinct segments of senior tourists based on their external conditions (health statues, age, and personal finance) and internal desires (improving well-being, escaping routines, socializing, seeking knowledge, pride and patriotism, personal reward, and nostalgia) and designing different special tour route and product for different senior tourist segmentation.

Key Words: Senior; Household tourism consumption; Retirement consumption puzzle; Regression discontinuity approach



UNDERSTANDING CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CSR) IN THE TANZANIAN TOURISM INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

Nowadays, the notion of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is at the forefront of contemporary business thinking (Eweje & Bentley 2006). The concept has received significant attention in both business and public domains as a compelling response to deliver responsible behaviour in the neo-liberal world (Coles et al 2013). CSR is seen as a means for businesses to embed the principles of sustainability in their regular operations including monitoring and managing impacts on the environment and on society. Set apart from the core goal of profit making, CSR also helps businesses to better address their reputation and improve relationships with stakeholders.

While the literature on CSR has received considerable attention in the global context, Africa has featured much less so than other regions (Idemudia 2014; Kolk & Lenfant 2010; Muthuri 2013). This is despite calls for more insights concerning CSR in the many African settings (Baba Abugre 2014; Idemudia 2014). Out of the few studies (Idemudia 2014; Muthuri 2013) that have examined CSR in Africa, little attention has been paid to CSR in the tourism industry. There is, therefore, a need to redress this paucity of research given the tourism industry's current importance in terms of economic development for many African countries, including Tanzania.

Through a content analysis of tourism accommodation and tour company websites, together with semi-structured interviews with 38 tourism business managers, this study explores CSR perspectives of foreign and locally owned companies in Tanzania. Specifically, the study examines the understanding of, the motivation for and inhibitors of responsible practices in the Tanzanian tourism industry. The results show that most companies are familiar with what constitutes being a socially responsible company. Companies performed CSR initiatives that mirror the challenges facing the Tanzanian community. Reasons for engaging in CSR initiatives include social legitimacy, community expectations/interdependence, and entice tourists. The findings reveal, however that issues of unclear and uncertain tax regime from the government, conflicts with local communities, lack of cooperation from stakeholders and mismanagement of community initiatives hindered the performance of responsible practices. The study supports the literature suggesting that the implementation of CSR is manifested in different ways in developing countries and faces different challenges (Idemudia 2014). The research contributes to the body of knowledge on CSR, especially as it relates to a developing country, a context in which the operationalization of CSR is relatively under-explored.

Key Words: CSR; Tourism; Africa

VACATION ACTIVITY PREFERENCES OF OUTDOOR RECREATION PARTICIPANTS

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses outdoor recreation participants' vacation activity preferences based on a market segmentation approach in order to develop nature activities into the tourism markets. The purposes of this study are three-fold: 1) to examine outdoor recreation participants' vacation activity preferences based on a market segmentation approach, 2) to examine the significant differences between the vacation activity preferences factors and sociodemographic variables and 3) to examine the significant differences between the vacation activity preferences factors and outdoor recreation participation characteristics.

The implementation of this study was conducted in Eskişehir, Turkey. The sample of the study is outdoor recreation participant who perform trekking, mountaineering, cycling, handling fishing, nature photography, and water sports single or as a group in Eskişehir, Turkey. Vacation Activity Scales scale developed by Lehto, O'Leary and Morrison (2004) were used for the purposes of the study. After the pilot test, the main survey was completed from December 2012 through May 2013. In total, 313 questionnaires were analyzed. Explanatory Factor Analysis (EFA) was applied for the determination of the structure validity of the scales. In order to verify the factor structures, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-test procedure were employed to determine whether the derived vacation preferences factors varied by sociodemographic and outdoor recreation participation characteristics.

EFA was conducted on a list of 12 activity variables. Three factors were formed with about 46% of the total variance explained. Based on the activities associated with each factor, they were named as cultural vacation activities, outdoor vacation activities and entertainment activities (Cronbach Alpha: 0,786). The factor structure was verified by CFA. The fit indexes indicated acceptable fit (χ^2/df : 2.71, RMSEA: 0.074, NFI: 0.93, NNFI:

0.95, CFI: 0.95, SRMR: 0.064). The results indicated that the most preferred factor is cultural vacation activities. Outdoor vacation activities preference is ranked as the second. Furthermore the outdoor activity preference factors were found to vary significantly with participants' sociodemographic and outdoor recreation participation characteristics.

The results of the study can be useful for both recreation and tourism practitioners to improve marketing implementation. In addition, it is worthwhile to consider the outdoor recreationists within the scope of the tourism market. As it is understood from the interviews and observations in the field-work, the participants conduct nature activities, which they define as outdoor recreation, where they go a long distance and that last about one week. At this point, it can be stated that a tourism activity which is not formal, occurs. Actually, this situation points to the fact that recreation and tourism are intertwined and the boundaries between them are flexible.

Key Words: Outdoor recreation participation, activity-based market segmentation, vacation activity, Turkey.



COST MANAGEMENT TOOLS FOR THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

At the last decades, hospitality industry has become one of the rapid growing industries in the world. Along with this growth, competition could be seen one of the key elements of achieving the goals of hospitality organizations. It is well known that getting through among other organizations and reaching goals, financial decisions are profoundly important. While wrong financial dictions could drag organizations to be collapsed, right financial decisions could robust and make organizations successful. From this point of view, it is clear that managers need cost management tools in order to make the right decisions.

Cost accounting and cost management play a significant role for the hospitality organizations. Managers of hotel organizations could use these cost management tools in order to make the right financial dictions. These tools could be listed as; activity based costing, activity based budgeting, the balanced scorecard, value chain analysis, target costing, life cycle costing, benchmarking, lean accounting, the theory of constraints and business intelligence. This theoretical study investigates the utilization of these tools for the hospitality organizations. The objectives of this study are (i) to describe the major cost management tools for and (ii) utilization of the cost management tools for the hospitality industry. The conclusions of this study provide both theoretical and practical implications for the hotel management literature.

Key Words: Cost Management; Cost Accounting; Hospitality Industry



ONLINE DISTRIBUTION CHANNEL MANAGEMENT AND TECHNOLOGIES IN HOTEL ENTERPRISES

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ABSTRACT

Online travel reservations have started to be a very important subject for hotel enterprises, since the spread of internet into all areas of daily life. Because today, a majority of travel bookings are booked through online distribution channels (ODC). This indicates that, it should be managed in a proper online distribution channel for hotel enterprises. Managing ODC properly with the aid of contemporary technology, will provide a number of advantages for hotel enterprises. However, the technologies used in the management of ODC is quite new and not known exactly by hoteliers. The aim of this study is to find out the technologies used to improve the management of online distribution channels. This paper relies on a case study which happened in a technology consulting company in Istanbul. The researchers joined as a participant observer to 9-day training program offered by the technology consulting company. Research questions used in in-depth interview based on the notes that kept in this observations. In-depth interview were practiced with company's director of business development and the company's demo software were examined. The data obtained from interviews was conducted content analysis with MaxQDA 12 qualitative data analysis program. According to the result, the technologies used for managing ODC are channel manager, rate shopper, STR Global reports, online reputation management tool, revenue management systems and business intelligence applications. Using these technologies provide time savings in ODC management and opportunity to focus on strategies for revenue managers and department of reservations.

Key Words: online distribution channels, technologies, internet, revenue management



**THE EFFECTS OF ADVERTISING VALUE AND BRAND ATTITUDE ON
CONSUMER PURCHASE INTENTION- BRAND FAMILIARITY AS A MODERATOR**

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ABSTRACT

The Consumer has differenced revolutionary ways of receiving product information because the development of e-commerce and wireless, and generating new types of information. Thus, investigate advertising value and brand attitude impact on consumer purchase intention. Moreover, it takes the brand familiarity as a moderating variable.

Research results show that informativeness, entertainment, and irritation tend to have a positive effect on advertising value, whereas brand attitude proves to be a positive influence on purchase intention. Brand familiarity has a moderating effect on advertising value and brand attitude. The proposed suggestions based on research results.

Keywords: Advertising value, Brand attitude, Purchase intention, Brand familiarity



TOURISTS' BELIEF ON TOURISM AND HEALTH: A CASE STUDY OF SANYA CITY

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ABSTRACT

Health tourism has become a new trend for travel in recent decades worldwide. Health is a cultural constructive concept, and people's belief on health plays a significant role in health tourism. Through a qualitative approach, this study explores Sanya's health tourism from tourists' perspective in Chinese cultural context. Specially, this paper aims to explore how tourists interpret health, the relationship between health and tourism, and the relationship between health tourism destination and health. The research shows that from tourists' view, tourism was beneficial to health in general. They perceived Sanya as a health tourism destination due to its good environment, which is closely related to Chinese health belief that human should be harmony with the nature (Tian Ren He Yi). The traditional health belief, whose core is harmony between human and nature or balance between physical and psychological, plays a very significant role in Sanya's health tourism. As far as Chinese tourists concerned, health tourism means recuperation without any artificial intervention in a good environment, adapting to the nature. Based on these findings, this paper provides some guiding suggestions for the practice of the domestic health tourism development. The primitive and backward places are proposed to develop health tourism based on good environment, while well-developed and modern cities should promote medical tourism instead of health tourism.

KEY WORDS : Chinese culture; Health; Health tourism; Sanya



HOTEL BIG DATA ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK FROM CUSTOMER'S PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

The hotel service industry is receiving millions of customers every day, while every customer has a different expectation when they move in. Meeting these expectations is the key to making the guest a repeat customer. With the development of Internet, traditional hotels are being launched by online booking platforms and the "price war". In addition, a large amount of travelers prefers putting money into food and entertainment projects rather than in booking hotel. Therefore, how to use travelers' cognitive and appraisal information to lock up the most valuable repeat customers has become a priority for the hotel service industry.

In recent years, with the rapid development of Internet+, big data and social network in China, a large amount of user data has been accumulated, which brings great opportunities for deep data mining and big data analysis of massive heterogeneous social networks. Big data is defined as structured, semi-structured and unstructured data. The content of data analysis has also changed from the original simple quantity processing to analyzing each stage of customers' journeys and the corresponding behaviors. Data collecting patterns has been no longer limited by the internal system log collection. Based on the appearance of big data storage techniques (such as NoSQL) and the development of important tools which performs data mining algorithms (such as MapReduce), the storage of data becomes more scalable and of high availability, while the processing of data becomes more effective with the emergence of Spark and other iterative computing and interactive analyzing tools. For the traditional hotel service industry, collecting, storing and analyzing the "related" big data will not only be able to help themselves to support the complex customer needs, but also can adjust the marketing strategy, ensure the best price per room and maximize the benefits based on historical data. In this study, research method of case study will be involved. After explaining the big data marketing cases of Red Roof Inn, Marriott and Starwood, and explaining the processes of production and development of hotel big data, the most popular tools in the field of computer science such as buzz monitoring system and MapReduce will be demonstrated. Through the method of key-word-based statistical analysis, this research will sum up the channels of big data acquisition and the framework of data analysis suiting for the present hotel industry. This will provide a new way for the transformation and upgrading of hotel industry, and make hotels to be the beneficiaries under the wave of Internet big data.

At present, China's basic research, accumulations and team building about computational sociology, network science, data mining, database and machine learning have provided a good foundation for the social big data analysis and managerial practices.

In the future, the hotel service industry will not only build more high-qualified services, but also draw proper judgement and marketing decisions adapting to self-development based on the evaluations of customers' unstructured comments. The direct consumption data and the effective follow-up feedbacks can help hotels define the product supply portfolio, as well as put proper products meeting consumers' tastes into the corresponding regional market at the right time. Hotels will also be able bring guests the feeling of "home" from the second stay based on the preferences and habits collected at the first time. After living in standard suites for many times, a journey with a "home" can make consumers remember the hotel, as well as the brand after all.

KEY WORDS

Hotel big data, data analysis framework, hospitality marketing, tourism management



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EXPLORING HOST-GUEST RELATIONSHIPS IN AIRBNB COMMERCIAL HOMES

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ABSTRACT

Commercial homes— accommodations where guests pay to stay in private homes and share space with the hosts (Lynch, 2005), serve both business and private home functions (Di Domenico & Lynch, 2007). The emergence of commercial homes has blurred the boundaries of the social, private and commercial hospitality domains (Lashley, 2000). Traditionally, the three domains share the concept of hospitableness but feature distinct interpersonal relationships. As a hybrid of hospitality in private and commercial domains, commercial home could presumably create a new host-guest relationship — one different from that in home reception and employee-guest interactions in traditional commercial hotels.

Airbnb, an online community for commercial home hosts and guests, has experienced surprisingly rapid growth since its foundation in 2008. It is reported that the New York City lodging market and economy suffered a \$2.1 billion (rounded) loss between September 2014 and August 2015, due to the emergence of Airbnb (HVS Consulting & Valuation, 2015). Unignorably, commercial home has played an ever-important role in hospitality industry, which makes it necessary to understand the host-guest relationships associated with commercial homes.

The growth of Airbnb has gained increasing attention among researchers. However, to the authors' knowledge, no prior research has focused on the host-guest relationships associated with Airbnb commercial homes. Some research has examined host-guest experience in commercial home, including hosts' relationships with commercial home (Sweeney & Lynch, 2007), hosts' homestay hosting experience (McIntosh, Lynch, & Sweeney, 2010), and spatial interactions between hosts and guests (Di Domenico & Lynch, 2007). Although these studies have shed some light on the host-guest interactions, they did not necessarily provide sound theoretical foundation to understand the host-guest relationships. In addition, Airbnb, as a mediator between hosts and guests, actively exerts its influence on host-guest relationships in commercial homes. Research is warranted to recognize the role of mediators like Airbnb in host-guest relationships.

This study, following a qualitative approach, attempts to provide theoretical insights into the unexplored host-guest relationships with Airbnb as a mediator. The focus of this study is the underlying mechanism of host-guest interactions in commercial homes, and the role that Airbnb plays in shaping the



host-guest relationships. Specifically, narratives posted online by both hosts and guests will be collected via theoretical sampling, and at least 30 users of Airbnb (both hosts and guests) will be interviewed. With multiple coding processes, how hosts and guests interact in commercial homes and the role and duties of a mediator will be analyzed. Theoretical explanations will be proposed to understand the host-guest relationships.

Theoretical significance of this study lies in the conceptual locus to facilitate understanding of host-guest relationships in commercial home settings and the role of mediators in the host-guest relationships, which echoes the increasingly recognized notion of sharing in people's daily lives (John, 2013). Practically, findings of this study will benefit commercial home hosts and guests in their communication and interactions, and help third party mediators to improve hosts' and guests' experience. Moreover, the host-guest relationships can be generalized to relationships between host communities and tourists.

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RESPONSIBLE TOURISM: A CASE OF SANDALS RESORTS INTERNATIONAL

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ABSTRACT

The concept of responsible tourism is believed to be a manifestation of corporate social responsibility by the tourism sector. This case study provides a review of the principles of responsible tourism and an overview of its practice by Sandals Resorts International, a hotel company which operates in the Caribbean region. The case indicates that Sandals Resorts International through the Sandals Foundation has been practicing responsible tourism from its mandate to educate, build and protect the Caribbean under the three pillars of community, education and environment. The case study presents a successful delivery and implementation of responsible tourism. The findings of the case study are explained by the normative approach aspect of the stakeholder theory which relates to the moral and philosophical guidelines of an organization. A summary of the study along with academic and policy contributions are included in the conclusion.



STUDY OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND FAMILY-WORK CONFLICT IN CHINESE TOURISM INDUSTRY: DOES GENDER DIFFERENCE MATTER?

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ABSTRACT

The rapid development of service industry has made big contribution to improving employment rate in China, but more and more employees in service industry suffer from work-family conflict due to its long and unfixed working time. Based on data obtained from 332 tourism enterprises employees via self-administered questionnaires in heritage destination ZhangJiajie, this study aimed at finding the possible gender differences in employee's work-family conflict and family-work conflict grounded in the gender role expectations perspective, and examines the relationships between both directions of conflict and job satisfaction and turnover intention. With the effect of Chinese work-oriented culture, the results demonstrated that tourism enterprise employees receive higher work-family conflict than family-work family, and married employees suffer higher work-family conflict than single employees, but there are no differences between male and female employees. The findings further revealed that higher work-family conflict lead to lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention, and job satisfaction has significant partial mediating effect on the relationship between work-family conflict and turnover intention. Moreover, it also indicated that family-work conflict was significantly and positively related to turnover intention but not to job satisfaction. Implications for managers and future research directions are presented.

Key Words: Work-family conflict; Family- work conflict; Job outcomes; Gender difference; Tourism industry.



CULTURE CONFLICTS AND CHALLENGES IN LOCALIZATION OF SENIOR EXECUTIVES OF INTERNATIONAL LUXURY HOTELS IN CHINA

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EXTENDED ABSTRACT

With the rapid development of global economy and education, human resources have turned into core competitiveness for multinational enterprises to acquire competitive advantages in the global market (Holjevac, 2003). Talent localization, which refers to the extent to which jobs originally held by expatriates are filled by local employees who are competent to perform the job (Selmer, 2010), can ensure sustainable development of the enterprises. Localizing management, by replacing expatriates with locals, further reduces operating costs, which could be important to successful strategy implementation and expansion in an emerging and developing market (Fryxell, Butler, & Choi, 2004). Therefore the localization of top management and technical staff is an important objective for many transnational corporations (TNCs), and localization is now a major concern for many foreign firms operating in China (Wong & Law, 1999).

Although multinational organizations continue to establish businesses in China, many of them have not achieved the success they expected due to language barriers, cultural differences, cultural prejudices and stereotyping (Yuan, 2010). Chinese society is greatly influenced by Confucian principles and Chinese people have different values and attitudes in business and everyday practice. Such cultural difference is deeply rooted in collective consciousness of the people, in the form of tacit knowledge difficult to understand and change (Wang & Hu, 2009). It has a great impact on multinational business activities. The importance of cultural factors has also been widely recognized in current literature (Chen & Sun, 2007).

International hotel brands, luxury brands in particular, usually originated in Western countries, output their business ways and management technologies to Chinese market. Its localization has raised a great concern and is regarded as an inevitable trend. As Liu (2011) argued, “the localization of top managers of international hotel groups has been an overwhelming trend”. However, the current actual situation of international hotels’ localization in China remains unknown, and there is a lack of empirical study conducted to explore the localization of senior executives so far.

This paper explores current situation of talent localization of international luxury hotels in China and its influencing factors from a cultural perspective, through in-depth interviews with senior executives of hotel associations, luxury hotels and hotel owners. 17 personal interviews were accomplished, including three executives (two men and one woman) of hotel associations in various areas, two senior executives (one man and one woman) of owners’ representative, and 12 senior executives (eight men and four women) of main international luxury hotel brands in mainland China. The hotel brands include White



Swan Hotel Group, Grand Hyatt, Garden Hotel Guangzhou, Ritz-Carlton, Four Seasons Hotel, Wyndham, Kempinski, Jumeirah Hotel Guangzhou and Galaxy Entertainment Group, and the 12 hotel senior executives consist of six general managers, one ex-president, one ex-vice president, one operations director, one hotel manager, one administrative director, and one human resource director. Another three focus group interviews were conducted. Two of them were made up of eleven department director/associate director and department manager/associate manager of a luxury hotel in Guangzhou, and one was consisted of four human resource directors of different luxury hotel brands.

The findings indicate that the localization process of top and executive managers of luxury international hotels is still slow, even though the needs for talent localization are well recognized by respondents. Cultural challenges have significant influences on luxury hotels' talent localization, which can be demonstrated through social, organizational and individual levels. In social level, interpersonal relationships (*Guanxi*), bureaucracy and flexible behaviors (*Zhongyong*, the golden mean of the Confucian) are the areas where main cultural conflicts happen in Chinese market, which lead to their concerns and distrust about local talents. In organization level, luxury hotel brands' insistence on their corporation culture and brand standard leads to their tendency of selecting expatriates with corporation experience. In individual level, local talents' cross-cultural competence fail to meet the requirements of a luxury hotel general manager because of their deficiencies in global vision, international working experience and educational background, as well as their communication skills and ability to think strategically. All these factors result in the current situation where local top managers find it difficult to replace leadership positions vacated by the expatriates - especially that of the general manager. The uniqueness of international hotel industry and the Chinese context is further discussed, and practical implications are indicated.

Key Words: localization, cultural conflicts, international luxury hotels, senior executives, China

New trend Latest vision Creative idea



FULL PAPERS



THE CONSTRUCTION OF A VOCATIONAL COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK FOR HOTEL TRAINING MANAGERS IN CHINA

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INTRODUCTION

In hospitality industry, proper training can lead to many benefits such as commitment and job satisfaction, intention to remain in the organization, superior service quality and employee performance (Kusluvan et al., 2010). The training manager is the planner, organizer, and implementer of the training programs in hotels. Their vocational competency is likely to have a major influence on the effectiveness of the training work. However, little attention has been paid to the training manager and their competency by both researchers and practitioners. The empirical study on the framework of training manager's vocational competency is particularly lacking. In view of the aforementioned research gap, this study mainly aims to construct a weighted vocational competency framework for training managers in the hotel industry in China. The findings can fill the previous research gap, and give directions for the practitioners to enhance effectiveness of training work by recruiting, selecting, training, promoting, and retaining the capable training manager in hotel.

RESEARCH DESIGN

A competency framework has been used for various types of organizations (Koenigsfeld et al., 2012), which should be analyzed by at least two different methods (Marrelli et al., 2005). Therefore, we adopted multiple methods to construct the vocational competency for hotel training managers. Firstly, to define the concept of vocational competency and identify the dimensions of vocational competency for hotel training managers, the literature review and relevant text data collecting and analyzing were done. Secondly, to establish the indicators of vocational competency in each dimensions, in-depth interviews were held with six academic experts from universities and two hotel training managers to provide their professional opinions. Thirdly, to confirm the construction of a vocational competency framework, two rounds of Delphi expert surveys were held with five academic experts from universities and five hotel training managers. Finally, with the use of the AHP questionnaire, this study selected five academic experts from universities and five hotel training managers to assess the relative weight of the competency dimensions and indicators.

RESULTS

In reference to the literature review and in-depth interview, this study first developed 3 competency dimensions and 18 competency indicators. Then, the study proceeded with two rounds of the Delphi expert surveys. Six experts suggested adding one competency indicator. Eventually, the vocational competency of training manager included generic competency, professional competency and proactive competency dimensions, and 19 competency indicators. In the system-building process of vocational competency related to training manager, this study applied the AHP to calculate the relative weight of the competency dimensions and indicators. The results revealed that the relative weight for the generic competency is 0.5121, exceeding the 0.3473 value of the professional competency and the 0.1406 value of the proactive competency.

LIMITATIONS

Although this study has obtained some conclusions, due to the limitation of research conditions such as time and cost, there are some limitations and problems to be continued to explore. The results of this study come from a small sample of academic experts from universities and hotel training managers. Future studies should use larger sample to collect data and test the results of this study repetitively before the findings can be generalized.



THE CHINESE ‘SLOW TRAVELERS’: A NETNOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF TRAVEL BLOGS OF CYCLING TO TIBET

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ABSTRACT

Slow travel is a widely discussed but contested concept in literature. What has been generalised in common is the emphasis of slow/low carbon mobility and self-enriching experience. But the concept of slow travel has additional meanings in the context of China. This research aims to compare similarities and differences in meanings of slow travel between West and East, while exploring motivational typologies of slow travellers to Tibet. The study provides an example of slow travel across China, to contrast European centrism in tourism research and develop important novel perspectives, especially to the context of emerging countries and tourism concepts.

Key Words: slow travel; netnographic analysis; travel blog

INTRODUCTION

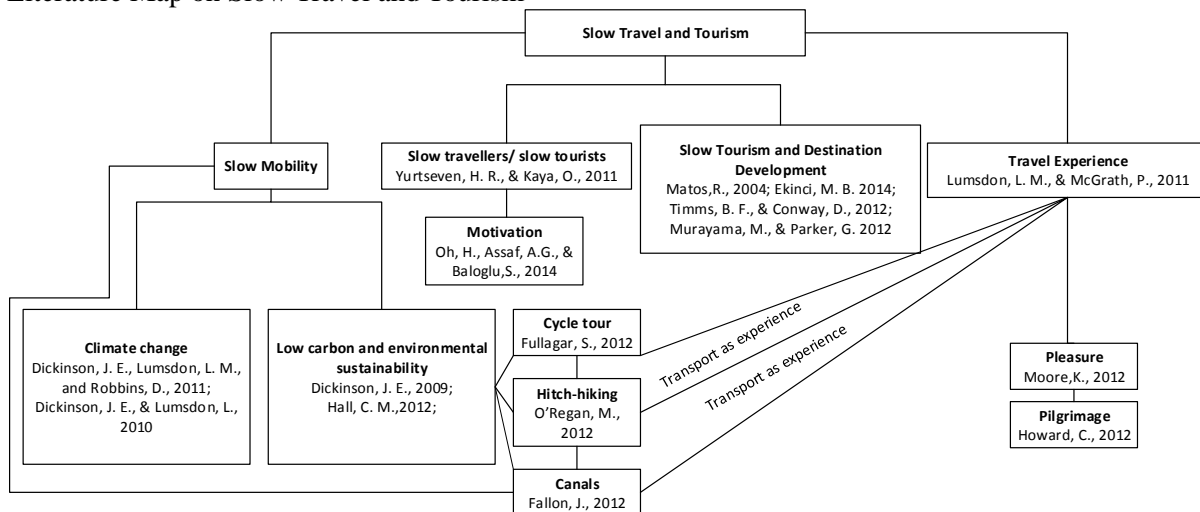
In Europe, the history of slow travel could date back to the 1980s and 1990s when slow food and slow cities started in Italy (Fullagar, Markwell, & Wilson, 2012). Matos (2004) points out that slow travel asks for changing travel pace, taking time to experience nature and live in harmony with places, local residents and culture. However, beyond Eurocentrism in tourism studies, a ‘paradigm shift’ is needed in response to the unique phenomenon of rapid tourism development from emerging countries (Cohen & Cohen, 2015). The Chinese ‘slow travelers’ to Tibet are on track with those criteria mentioned by several researchers (Dickinson, Lumsdon, & Robbins, 2011; Yurtseven & Kaya, 2011); however, they have different profiles and typologies in the context of Chinese culture. Therefore, this study aims at examining the profiles and typologies of Chinese ‘slow travelers’ and explore common characteristics of slow travelers in the Eastern context.

Studies related to slow travel can be categorized into four streams: slow travel, environment and climate change, slow travelers and tourists, slow tourism and destination development, and experience induced by slowness (see Figure 1). Firstly, slow travel is tightly linked with slow or soft mobility (like cycling and trekking) (Dickinson & Lumsdon, 2010), thus researchers argue the potential of slow travel to reduce carbon dioxide emissions in response to climate change (Dickinson et al., 2010; Scott & Becken, 2010). Secondly, several researchers have tried to define slow travelers and explore slow travelers’ types and motivations (Oh, Assaf, & Baloglu, 2014). Dickinson, Lumsdon, and Robbins (2011) consider slow travelers as ‘those who are driven by travel experience, spending time enjoying the journey, engaging



with people (for good and bad), sharing a journey/destination, and exploring a destination in a less superficial way'. They also note that slow travelers form a sequence from 'hard' to 'soft' or 'heavy' to 'light'. Likewise, based on Cittaslow's principles, Yurtseven and Kaya (2011) took the first Cittaslow-Seferihisar in Turkey as an example, categorizing slow tourists into three types: dedicated slow tourists, interested slow tourists and accidental slow tourists. Dedicated slow tourists are independent travelers with high expectations of the place they are visiting, the local culture they are experiencing, and are generally educated, with knowledge of slow philosophy. Interested slow tourists are sequenced between dedicated slow tourists and accidental tourists. Their knowledge and experience of slow travel is moderate. In contrast, accidental slow tourists normally consider slowness as a tourist attraction. Thirdly, slow tourism is used as a marketing strategy for destination development (Matos, 2004). Timms and Conway (2012) indicate that slow tourism has been considered to be a viable soft growth model. It is an upscale marketing strategy of alternative tourism for the Caribbean's geographical margins which are short of the requisite resources and social and economic advantages required for the development of mass tourism. Finally, transportation has been considered to be a special tourist experience (Page & Connell, 2014) and slow mobility like walking and cycling has high intrinsic value (Lumsdon, et al., 2010). In addition, slow or soft mobility is perceived to be a form of transportation for slow tourism that can offer much more than cars and airplanes in terms of feeling the environment in far greater detail (Speakman, 2005).

Figure 1
Literature Map on Slow Travel and Tourism



RESEARCH METHOD

With the increasing number of online diaries and travel blogs, they are not only taken as a means of destination marketing, but also regarded as a source of research data collected by several studies (Banyai & Glover, 2012; Enoch & Grossman, 2010; Mkono & Markwell, 2014; Mkono, Ruhanen, & Markwell, 2015; Wu & Pearce, 2014). The Chinese cyclists to Tibet have a tendency to post their traveling photos and texts online through which they share their impressions, perceptions, thoughts and feelings of the trip. In addition, they provide useful suggestions for their friends and other potential cyclists through blogs as well (Banyai & Glover, 2012). Netnography is an innovative adaptation of traditional ethnography using the internet as a virtual fieldwork site (Kozinets, 2002), which has been recently used in tourism studies (Mkono & Markwell, 2014). This study used an interpretive method to collect qualitative data based on 25 rich and detailed Chinese blogs. The collection period ranged between March and May, 2015 and one of the most popular Chinese cycling websites (www.qixingquan.com) was chosen as the source of



research data in this study. *Qixingquan* (骑行圈) means ‘the circle of cycling’ in English. The dataset consisted of 96 pages of Mandarin texts and images. Following the five steps proposed by Kozinets (2002, 2010), the data of entrée, data collection, data analysis, data interpretation and member checks were coded by conducting an open coding technique and then inputted into NVivo 10 to identify the core constructs of profiles and typologies for Chinese ‘slow travelers’.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The collected 25 blogs provided basic demographic information on Chinese slow travelers (see Table 1). The results showed that male Chinese ‘slow travelers’ (72%) were more than female ones (28%). Most of informants aged between 20 and 30. In addition to retirees, a university student played an important role. The analysis of these informants’ blogs suggested that the popular season of cycling to Tibet ranged between June and August. The Sichuan-Tibet Road (also known as National Road 318) from Chengdu to Lhasa was regarded as the most popular travel road for cycling to Tibet. In terms of traveling days, 68% of informants spent 21 to 26 days traveling from Chengdu to Lhasa. Four informants indicated that their feelings traveled across the Sichuan-Tibet Road. A typical statement is, “National Road 318 is regarded as the most dangerous and difficult cycling road in China, but it has the most beautiful scenery along the road. You need to climb at least 10 mountains that are more than 4,000 meters above sea level during the journey to Lhasa. However, you will pass numerous snow-capped mountains, lakes, grasslands, forests, hot springs, rivers and original villages, which are far richer than the Alps and the mountains in Switzerland (informant 3).”

Table 1
The Demographic Factors of the Research Samples

Demographic characteristics	Options	Frequencies (<i>N</i> = 25)	Percentage
Gender	Female	7	28%
	Male	18	72%
Age	In their 20s or younger	11	44%
	In their 30s	4	16%
	In their 40s	3	12%
	above 40s	7	28%
Travel route	Chuanzang	21	84%
	Dianzang	4	16%
Travel day	Less than 16 days	1	4%
	16-20 days	3	12%
	21-26 days	17	68%

In terms of travel companions, the traditional ways were traveling with friends, family and one’s partner, but there were some other popular travel groups. Five bloggers described themselves as independent travelers and started their travel alone. However, on the road to Lhasa they encountered some other cyclists and became ‘donkey friends’. Besides, ten bloggers represented that they called for riding friends through some platforms of social media like Twitter, WeChat, blogs and other online forums. Then they became spontaneously and temporarily organized into loose club-like cycling companions.

Based on the analysis of key concepts, three types of slow travelers were formed. The first group was named as ‘low budget slow travelers’, who were much concerned about their travel cost, stressing the experience induced by slow mobility. They regarded their travel pattern as *Qiongyou* (穷游), meaning ‘cheap travel’ in English. In addition, they often joked about themselves as ‘*diaosi* (屌丝)’, who were usually university students in their 20s during their gap year of studying (O’Reilly, 2006). Informant 10 was a university student, providing some useful suggestions in his blog to others through the analysis of his discourses. He suggests that the minimum spending for cyclists to Tibet should be around 100 yuan per day if he/she has a low budget. However, people may have different economic conditions and consumption habits which determine their spending. A typical statement is,



“I do part-time to earn some money for preparing my trip and try to reduce travel cost as much as I can. I, however, still need to spend at least 100 yuan per day, including 30-50 yuan for accommodation and 20-50 yuan for food, beverage and snacks per day. Although the high price of an airline ticket to Lhasa is one of the reasons to avoid air travel, it is not the most important thing. By air, you can never gaze beautiful nature and landscape which you can easily see by cycling. Likewise, you cannot experience local culture in details if you take an airplane (informant 10).”

The second type is called dedicated slow travelers (Yurtseven & Kaya, 2011). They are interested in pursuing the experience induced by slow mobility and have closer engagement with nature, culture and communities (Fullagar, Markwell, & Wilson, 2012). They are concerned about both personal and planetary well-being and try to deeply attach with the place they visit. The blogs of informants 8 and 15 are taken as examples. Informant 8 described that he decided to settle down in Tibet and then to volunteer to work as a Mandarin teacher after taking a cycling trip to Tibet while informant 15 illustrated that he and his friends cycling to Tibet in a group very slowly were named as “snail riders”. He depicted the meaning of ‘snail riders’ in his blog as a way to express deep interest in slow travel. More details can be seen below.

“This trip enables me to make a decision to voluntarily teach in Tibet. I never regret making my decision. I have been robbed by Tibetans during the trip. However, when I see the backward condition, I want to do my best to contribute my knowledge to making a few changes for locals (informant 8).”

“We name our group as ‘snail riders’. The symbol of snails means slowing down and enjoying the beautiful scenery along the Chuanzang Road. Therefore, we spend 29 days arriving in Lhasa. This slow cycling trip to Tibet enables me to know more about the nature, culture, human and life (informant 15).”

The third type of visitors are called accidental slow travelers (Yurtseven & Kaya, 2011). The travelers have two sub-types: cycling enthusiasts and social capital seekers. The cycling enthusiasts are cyclists who want to cycle as longer distances as they can in order to seek adventure and authenticity through the trip. As for cycling enthusiasts, cycling to Tibet across the whole of China is the thing they must do on their trip list. Cycling has high intrinsic value (Lumsdon & McGrath, 2011) and enthusiasts enjoy the pleasure and experience induced by cycling. In contrast, ‘the Chinese social capital seekers’ are concerned about their figurative self-identity shown to others; this is named as “face” culture or the Chinese notion of the near-synonymous “lian”(脸) and “mianzi”(面子) (Holmes, Balnaves, & Wang, 2015). They consider cycling to Tibet as a way of improving their self-identity and are inclined to take numerous photos and share them on social media (e.g. blogs, Twitter and WeChat) every minute they have. Thus, the social comparison induced by social media and photography (Lo & McKercher, 2015) has a high influence on accidental slow travelers’ decisions of cycling to Tibet. The descriptions made by informant 11 illustrated his enthusiasm for cycling while informant 13 expressed invisible pressure from his friends.

“You can learn more by traveling a thousand miles than reading a thousand of books. I have numerous cycling experiences prior to my trip to Tibet. I would like to cycle to China and Tibet where I have looked forward to traveling for many years. I have been expecting to cycle to Tibet since I was young. I have achieved my dream today. It was awesome (informant 11).”

“In the beginning, I never think that I can cycle to Tibet. However, a lot of my friends share their photos using blogs, Twitter and WeChat. You cannot imagine that I sometimes think that I am the only one who has not cycled or traveled to Tibet among them and I then make up my mind to do it. Otherwise, I would be looked down by them (informant 13).”

CONCLUSIONS



This study indicates the ‘slow travel’ phenomenon in China by taking the 25 rich and detailed Chinese blogs as the data sources. Three typologies of slow travelers to compare with slow travelers in Europe, three things are shared in common. First of all, slow travelers are time rich, which is different from mass tourism under which tourists travel in a hurry because of time poverty. Secondly, in both contexts, the experience of slow travelers is a practice of self-examination, relaxation, reflection and observation. Thirdly, slow mobility and avoidance of air travel are common essences of slow travel in both Western and Eastern contexts. Several researchers consider the potential of slow travel as a strategy for a lower carbon future (Dickinson, 2009; Hall, 2013) and further stress that behavioral changes in the context of ‘slow travel’ to help reduce tourism related to carbon dioxide emissions are just starting to be examined by tourism studies (Scott & Becken, 2010). Therefore, this can be one of the directions for future research.

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UNDERSTANDING AND IMPROVING CUSTOMER ONLINE SEARCH EXPERIENCE: A LATENT CLASS MODELING APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

In this study, we propose a simultaneous model to examine the relationships between search engine providers and customers within the hospitality industry. We capture customer heterogeneity using a latent class model format. The empirical results show insights into the diverse customer click-through behaviors in sponsored search advertising domain, and the model proposed in this paper provide search engine providers with actionable methodology in better understanding customer's various online search and click behaviors (e.g. customer segmentation) and determining ranking strategies to satisfy customer search demand as well as achieve its profit maximization goal.

Keywords: sponsored search advertising; customer online search; simultaneous model; latent class modeling; service providers; hospitality industry

INTRODUCTION

Sponsored search advertising, or paid search, is a dominant online advertising tool and has been widely adopted by a tremendous amount of companies in the contemporary global marketplace. The proliferation of this online advertising scheme is mostly driven by the unique value provided by search engine providers, which act to intermediate between c and companies (or advertisers). On one hand, search engines reduce information asymmetries, and thereby become one of the major information retrieval tools for a massive population of internet users (Xiang et al. 2008). Each month, 19 billion customer searches are being processed by the top online search engine providers in the US – a statement which is characterized in the 2013 search engine utilization report provided by Statista. On the other hand, by promptly and appropriately responding to each explicit consumer query, search engines provide advertisers with a powerful mechanism to connect targeted consumer segments in the marketplace.

Three entities are involved in the sponsored search process: customers, search engine providers and advertisers. Generally, each search is initiated when a customer typed a series of text strings, defined as “search query”, in the search box located in the middle of a search engine's front page. Paid ads displayed in response to customer's specific query are shown either on the right side or on the left side of the screen right above the organic search results section. Each paid ad is tied to a specific advertiser, considered as a participant in the sponsored search advertising process designing and customizing search engine campaigns in order for its paid ads to be shown in the search results. To do that, each advertiser needs to develop a unique set of keywords. Each can be a single word, a combination of words or a short phrase, and is tied to a specific landing page and is pre-set into one of the three major keyword match types (e.g. accurate, phrase or broad type).



Advertisers make bids on each individual keyword and then enter into a so-called “generalized second-price auction mechanism” bidding process – an auction mechanism developed by search engine providers. The winners’ ads will be displayed in the search results webpage and advertisers only pay fees to search engines when their displayed paid ads are clicked by customers – a payment mechanism called “pay per click”.

Search engine providers employ complex algorithms to optimize the paid ads selection process, such as choosing the number and type of paid ads that will be displayed in the search results and rank -ordering all selected ads. Under the circumstance in which search engines’ revenues are heavily dependent upon customer click-throughs (“pay per click” mechanism), it is crucial for search engine providers to rank order the selected paid ad set in a way that could satisfy customer’s information needs, ease customer’s online search process and generate search engine profit through completed clicks. From search engine’s standpoint, bids, ads quality, and the level of “match” between keywords and consumer queries are the three major concerns while making rank-order decisions.

Paid ads returned by search engine providers will be reviewed by customers, who decide which displayed paid ads to click. In the customer click-through stage, customers may generate significant heterogeneous click- through patterns based upon their experience with the online searching and the level of pertinence of displayed ads and their diverse search demand. Literature has shown a majority of empirical research focusing on investigating the relationships between customer click-through rate and conversion rate from one single advertiser’s perspective (e.g. a national-wide retailer, a major lodging chain). The analyses are conducted through the lens of an advertiser and the empirical insights are usually generated to assist advertisers in better operating its own search engine campaigns (Ghose and Yang 2009; Rutz and Bucklin 2011; Rutz et al. 2012). However, there is a handful of empirical research which focuses on investigating the relationships between the search engine providers and customers, and providing search engines with actionable methodology and insights to better understand customers’ diverse search and click-through behaviors. The importance of conducting this type of research also lies in the area where traditional customer information search literature suggested understanding customer search behaviors may eventually benefit the product or service providers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The existing literature on paid search advertising can be classified into two main streams. In the empirical field, several studies have been developed to examine the paid ads performance in terms of the click-through rate, conversion rate and search engine performance using aggregate-level or keyword-level data collected from one advertiser (Agarwal et al. 2011; Ghose and Yang 2009; Rutz et al. 2012). In addition, several research have explored advertiser keyword strategies, such as analyzing the spillover effect from generic to branded paid search (Rutz and Bucklin 2011), zooming into the composition and design attributes of paid search ads (Rutz and Trusov 2011), and uncovering the role of keyword popularity (Jerath et al. 2012). There are also several studies conducted to investigate inter-relationships between paid search and organic search (Yang and Ghose 2010), and a specific type of search engine’s (e.g. travel aggregator) ranking systems design issue by aligning different disciplines (Ghose et al. 2012; Ghose et al. 2014).

In the analytical field, a variety of research has been conducted to study the position-based auction, the bidding mechanism and equilibrium (Aggarwal et al. 2006; Athey and Ellison 2008; Chen and He 2011; Edelman et al. 2007; Katona and Sarvary 2010; Varian 2007; Weber and Zheng 2007). There is another group of researchers focus on examining the impact of click fraud on search engine’s revenue (Wilbur and Yi 2009), search engine advertising price competition (Xu et al. 2011), and vertical differentiated firms advertising strategies for gaining online customers (Yalcin and Ofek 2011). Moreover, there is an



emerging literature stream to bridge the theoretical field and analytical field exemplified by Jerath et al. (2011) and Song and Mela (2011).

Despite of the growth of the literature in both empirical and analytical fields, there is only limited research focusing on the relationships between search engine providers and customers for the purpose of providing search engines with executable approach in segmenting customers based upon their diverse clicking behaviors. Moreover, the number of studies which use individual customer query-level data to examine the patterns existed in the sponsored search advertising area is quite limited. As Abhishek et al. (2012) pointed out, the risk of using aggregate-level data to analyze customer click-through rate is that it may introduce systematically biased estimates which may provide misleading and inaccurate strategies to the practitioners. Moreover, even using customer query-level datasets, some research are examining consumer behavior from only one advertiser's perspective, whereas the ideal situation should incorporate all alternatives displayed in the search results (Rutz and Trusov 2011).

From advertiser's standpoint, it is understandable that a single advertiser may overlook its competitors' tactics when optimizing its own sponsored ads campaigns. After all, the lack of transparency of the strategies undertaken by its competitors (e.g. bids, ads quality) may create some sort of barriers in preventing an advertiser from taking actions in the most effective way. However, given the nature of search engine providers, which act as intermediaries between customers and advertisers and stored information from both sides, it is important and necessary for search engines to consider all available displayed ads while estimating customers' click-through rates. Thus far, there are a limited number of studies which aimed to empirically examine customer click-through behaviors while taking into consideration of all displayed ads' characteristics. In this research, we aim to fill this theoretical gap and our paper is different from extant sponsored search engine advertising literature in several ways: First of all, we combine all available ads displayed in the search results while analyzing consumer click-through rates. Especially, we incorporate variables that not only delineate paid ads' own characteristics, but also capture the surrounding paid ads' features. Second, aside from considering the general covariates being examined in the previous literature, such as ad bids, and quality, we include keyword branded characters and keyword match as the covariates. Finally, in the consumer's click-through rate estimation process, we take into account the unobservable heterogeneous customer clicking propensities when developing the simultaneous model.

RESEARCH QUESTION, METHOD & DATA

We conduct this research which is focusing on investigating the relationships between search engine providers and customers. We ask the following research questions: When customers making click decisions across a variety of displayed ads, do they perform in the similar pattern? If not, is there an approach that search engines could employ to segment the customers based upon their diverse search and click-through behaviors, other than traditional data mining approach (e.g. clustering analysis)? Can the segmentation methodology also provide search engines with empirical insights to further assist the rank order decision which might satisfy customer's search demand and facilitate more customer click-through?

Our dataset contains consumer click-stream data and advertiser sponsored search engine performance in the hospitality industry for two-month period beginning at January 2012. The dataset is collected from one of the leading Chinese search engine companies. Two types of advertisers are included: 1) hotel companies, defined as a combination of individual hotels, hotel management companies, brands and ownership groups, and 2) online travel aggregators, such as trevelocity.com or expedia.com, which provide aggregate travel information (e.g. airline tickets, car rental, or hotel reservation) from multiple online sources. In this study, we create a sample dataset by randomly selecting 5,000 customers and constructing their search paths within a one-day period. In total, there are 6,254 clicks made by the selected 5,000 customers in one day and 29,560 impressions generated by 7,407 keywords from 559



online advertisers. The average click-through rate, which is defined as the ratio of total number of clicks to total number of impressions is 21.16%.

We develop a two-stage simultaneous model to examine the relationships between search engine providers and customers in the area of sponsored search advertising. In the first stage, we model the search engine's rank order decision using a ranked ordered logit model format. Conditional on search engine's ranking, we then model the customer's click-through behaviors. Finally, we construct the simultaneous equation by multiplying these two segments and we use maximum likelihood estimation methodology to compute the parameter estimates included in the model. To capture the customer heterogeneity in the clicking process, we integrate a latent class model format into the simultaneous model framework. We specifically examine the relationships between search engine and customers in the hospitality industry, considering that travel is oftentimes appeared to be one of the most popular topics that people searched for using online sources. The empirical results show insights into the diverse customer click-through behaviors in sponsored search advertising domain, and the model proposed in this paper provide search engine providers with actionable methodology in better understanding customer's various online search and click behaviors (e.g. customer segmentation) and determining ranking strategies to satisfy customer search demand as well as achieve its profit maximization goal.

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

We apply the proposed model to the dataset and segment customers into three categories. In the first segment, customers are much more sensitive to ads' ranking positions whereby the click-through rate on prominent ranked ads are much higher, compare with it is in two other segments. Customers within segment two tend to click on "accurate keyword" ads – a specific keyword match type where customer's search query completely matches with advertiser's keyword (the highlighted words as part of the displayed ads in the search results). Customers within segment 3 show their preference of clicking on online travel aggregator's paid ads.

Interestingly, these three segments also represent customers' three distinct search stages. Segment 1's customers are early stage searchers who really are not sure what they are looking for in their hotel stay therefore they just simply focus on what's on top. Segment 2's customers are searchers who are at late search stage whereby they know exactly what they want and are looking to find the hotel directly, which is supported by significantly positive association with "accurate keyword" and the coefficient estimate of OTA is negative. Segment 3's customers are in their mid period searches, which can be characterized as someone who has some ideas about what they want but also interested in other properties. Segment 3 customers' indecision makes travel aggregators' paid ads become more intriguing as they server all different hotel partners. Three segments generated from our simultaneous model also reveal customers' various search stages further highlight the importance and necessity of modeling customer heterogeneity in the search function. From the standpoint of the search engine, it may show a different ad assortment given the makeup of the search terms and the implied consumer segment, similarly an advertiser may stress different keyword strategies depending upon what sort of business it needs – i.e. if it needs reservations today it focuses on Segment 2 searches whereas if it is trying to build business further in advance it may target Segment 1 behaviors.

CONTRIBUTION

Our research contributes to the search engine marketing body of knowledge in the following aspects: First, we explore the relationship between search engine providers and customers and provide solutions and empirical insights to search engine providers in better understand customers' click-through behaviors. Second, we take into consideration the endogeneity issue generated from search engine's rank-order



decision and employ a two-stage modeling approach to simultaneously estimate the covariates. Taking into account the customer heterogeneous clicking propensities, we also integrate a latent class model to capture this effect. Finally, the model proposed in this study can be employed by search engines in determining how to segment customers based upon their diverse click patterns and also provide insights to improve their future rank decisions in order to cope with customer's information search needs.

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HOTEL MANAGERS' BRAND LOVE AND HEALTH

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ABSTRACT

This study firstly proposes the direct effect of managers' brand love on their health. For the indirect paths, this study proposes managers' brand love could enhance their work engagement and positive affect, while the work engagement could improve positive affect. Then, positive affect could exert positive influence to health. A total of 104 valid responses are collected from hotel managers in the United States and Taiwan. Results of this study prove that hotel managers' brand love significantly improve positive affect, while positive affect is also improved by work engagement. Additionally, hotel managers' positive affect significantly enhance their health.

Keywords: hotel manager, brand love, health, positive affect, work engagement, internal branding

INTRODUCTION

Brand love has been considered by marketing scholars as the strongest aspect of customer-brand relationship (Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012). Because of the importance of maintaining customers' emotional connections, hospitality scholars recently started to examine the role of brand love in hospitality brands (Kwon & Mattila, 2015). To manage brands in the service industry, internal branding should be just as important as external branding because customers' service brand experiences are mainly influenced by employees' service behavior and attitude (Löhdorf & Diamantopoulos, 2014). Hence, it becomes valuable to examine brand love from the internal side. Hotel organizations are comprised of several departments guided by department managers. Department managers' brand love is important to study due to their position, and power, in guiding service teams. Even with love feelings toward the brand, burnout and stress are common problems in hotel organizations (Kim, Im, & Hwang, 2015); therefore, it is meaningful to clarify the interactions between managers' brand love and their health.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: Hotel managers' brand love is positively related to health

Hypothesis 2: Hotel managers' brand love is positively related to work engagement

Hypothesis 3: Hotel managers' brand love is positively related to positive affect

Hypothesis 4: Hotel managers' work engagement is positively related to positive affect

Hypothesis 5: Hotel managers' positive affect is positively related to health

METHOD

Through convenience sampling, this study selected hotel department managers as participants to complete the survey. Hotel managers' brand love was measured by 5 items extracted from the work of Carroll and Ahuvia (2006). The manager's work engagement was measured with 4 items from Britt, Adler, and Bartone (2001). Positive affect was measured by 6 items adopted from Watson, Clark, and Tellegen



(1988). Health was measured based on 3 items developed by Ware, Davies-Avery, and Donald (1978). For cross-cultural validation, this study collected data in both the United States and Taiwan, using English and Chinese versions of the survey. Finally, this study collected 28 responses from 7 hotels in the United States and 76 responses from 11 hotels in Taiwan, for a total of 104 valid responses and a usable response rate of 86.67%. Among these 104 participants, 53.80% were female, 49.00% were married, 60.60% earned a bachelors' degree, and had an average age of 37.21 years. The average work tenure in their current department was 5.33 years, tenure in their current hotel property was 5.10 years, and at they were with their current hotel brand for 5.58 years.

RESULTS

This study utilized structural equation modeling (SEM) by Mplus 7 to examine the proposed model. Results of SEM revealed that hotel managers' brand love significantly improved their positive affect, while positive affect was also improved by work engagement. Positive affect significantly enhanced health. Interestingly, the direct effect of managers' brand love on their health was not supported, showing the importance of the indirect paths. These findings contribute valuable theoretical and practical implications. Limitations and suggestions for future research are also included in this study.

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MODERATING EFFECTS OF CUSTOMER INVOLVEMENT ON DUAL-PATH EFFECTS OF HOTEL SUB-BRAND LOVE

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to examine the moderating role of customer involvement to strengthen the dual-path outcomes of hotel sub-brand love. This study proposes dual-path outcomes of hotel sub-brand love as: (1) brand love for the corporate brand, and (2) loyalty for the sub-brand, including revisit intention, positive word-of-mouth, and willingness to pay price premium. A total of 425 usable responses were collected from U.S. frequent travelers. Results prove the dual dual-path outcomes of hotel sub-brand love. For moderating effects of customer involvement, findings reveal its effectiveness on enhancing corporate brand love and willingness to pay price premium for the sub-brand.

Keywords: brand love, customer involvement, loyalty, brand portfolio, sub-brand, corporate brand

INTRODUCTION

Customer involvement supports customer brand relation and enhances customer loyalty (Baker, Cronin Jr, & Hopkins, 2009; Hochgraeffe, Faulk, & Vieregge, 2012). Hotel firms have practiced diverse approaches, such as social media (Kim, Lim, & Brymer, 2015) and loyalty programs (Xie & Chen, 2014) to encourage customer involvement. This study focused on customer involvement on the hotel sub-brand level, and examined how it positively moderates the relationship between hotel sub-brand and hotel corporate brand. Specifically, the study investigated two effects of hotel sub-brand love: whether a hotel sub-brand love extends towards its corporate hotel brand through spillover effect (Lei, Dawar, & Lemmink, 2008), and how customer loyal intention, including revisit intention, positive word-of-mouth (WOM), and willingness to pay price premium, are affected by hotel sub-brand love (Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012). Taken together, the purpose of this study is to examine the moderating role of customer involvement to strengthen the dual-path outcomes of hotel sub-brand love.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: Brand love for a sub-brand is positively related to brand love for the corporate brand

Hypothesis 2: Brand love for a sub-brand is positively related to revisit intention for the sub-brand

Hypothesis 3: Brand love for a sub-brand is positively related to positive WOM for the sub-brand

Hypothesis 4: Brand love for a sub-brand is positively related to willingness to pay price premium for the sub-brand

Hypothesis 5: Customer involvement of the sub-brand moderates the positive relationship between brand love for the sub-brand and brand love for the corporate brand. The positive relationship becomes stronger when customer involvement of the sub-brand is high than when customer involvement of the sub-brand is low.



Hypothesis 6: Customer involvement of the sub-brand moderates the positive relationship between brand love for the sub-brand and revisit intention for the sub-brand. The positive relationship becomes stronger when customer involvement of the sub-brand is high than when customer involvement of the sub-brand is low.

Hypothesis 7: Customer involvement of the sub-brand moderates the positive relationship between brand love for the sub-brand and positive WOM for the sub-brand. The positive relationship becomes stronger when customer involvement of the sub-brand is high than when customer involvement of the sub-brand is low.

Hypothesis 8: Customer involvement of the sub-brand moderates the positive relationship between brand love for the sub-brand and willingness to pay price premium for the sub-brand. The positive relationship becomes stronger when customer involvement of the sub-brand is high than when customer involvement of the sub-brand is low.

METHOD

A self-administrated online questionnaire survey was distributed to U.S. frequent travelers stayed at the sub-brands of selected five hotel firms (Marriott International Inc, Hilton Worldwide, InterContinental Hotels Group, Starwood Hotels & Resorts Worldwide Inc, and Hyatt Hotels Corp). There were six constructs in this study: brand love for a sub-brand, brand love for the corporate brand, customer involvement for the sub-brand, revisit intention for the sub-brand, positive WOM for the sub-brand, and willingness to pay price premium for the sub-brand. All measurement items and scales were derived from extant literature (Baker, Cronin Jr, & Hopkins, 2009; Buil, Martínez, & de Chernatony, 2013; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). A total of 425 usable responses were collected.

RESULTS

The hierarchical multiple regression was applied. Results of this study mostly supported the dual-path effects of hotel sub-brand love. Firstly, the moderating effect of customer involvement was significant; the spillover effect of sub-brand love was shown to promote its corporate brand love. Secondly, customer involvement significantly moderated sub-brand love on willingness to pay price premium for the sub-brand, but not on revisit intention or the positive WOM for the sub-brand. The partially insignificant effects may be explained by the nature of satiation in that customers' satiation levels are likely to dwindle due to repeated visits (Park & Jang, 2014).

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**GENTRIFICATION URBAN POLICIES OF AS A TOOL FOR URBAN
TRANSFORMATION**



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ABSTRACT

The concept of urban renewal being discussed frequently since the beginning of the year two thousand mainly in Turkey began to gain on the agenda of our country after the 1980s. In 2004, the concept has gained legal ground numbered 6306 issued by the Disaster Risk Areas Under the Draft Law on the Regulation. Have deteriorated over time in urban centers in the settlements has become a depressed area as a result of the conversion performed by urban renewal applications become valuable these regions, brings the well like a class change in the urban centers. Because it the wealth of low-income in the form of luxury housing and shopping malls results revealed the transformation to the displaced people can be involved. This is called gentrification situation, causes and more around the city in different regions experiencing a true migration. This situation naturally requires suggests that may lead to a gentrification of urban regeneration policies.

Keywords: Urban Transformation, Urban Gentrification, Urban Economy, Local Government

INTRODUCTION

The concept of urban transformation began to be discussed frequently since the beginning of the year two thousand mainly in Turkey began to find a place on the agenda of our country during the 1980s. In 2004, the concept has gained legal ground numbered 6306 issued by the Disaster Risk Areas Under the Draft Law on the Regulation.

In the depressed area of settlements it has become over time a result of the conversion made in urban centers with urban transformation projects, become valuable in these regions, as well as bring about change like a class in urban centers. Because it the wealth of low-income results in the form of luxury housing and shopping centers revealed by the transformation of the site may be the person in question. This is called gentrification situation causes in different parts of the city and around to experience more of a towards migration.

URBAN REGENERATION

There are many definitions of urban transformation urban transformation in the literature. Firstly it is stated that pass through our English language concept of urban transformation. In this concept, in some Turkish sources "Urban Renewal" translated into English as "Urban Regeneration" and "Urban Renewal" concept is being used as the offers a Turkish translation. However, urbanology terminology of "Urban Renewal" debuted as (İnce, 2006: 6). Turkish dictionary meaning of the concept of Regeneration "to give revive, revamp" is. The concept of Urban Renewal; "Physical space partially or completely restructure to include the act of destruction practices" as had been



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stated. Furthermore "Urban Metamorphosis" words are translated into Turkish as the concept of urban transformation (Eren,2006: 20).

Cities are in a continuous changing and motion. Throughout history, physical, social, environmental and economic processes, have played an important role in the conversion of the city. Of this change can be seen in the other assets on the meaning and conversion can be easily be felt in the city. Urban transformation as it is accepted in the West, providing solutions to urban problems and changes suffered a locality or region's social, physical, is defined as a comprehensive vision and action to ensure a lasting solution to the economic and environmental conditions (Thomas, 2003: 13).

Glossary of Terms zoning concept of urban transformation, it is defined as *public initiatives or help, cleaning of poor neighborhoods, buildings, improving protection, better housing, working and recreation conditions, in order to provide public buildings, according to local design and syllabuses are, all or a portion of the city, the day a position to provide better environment to changing conditions bring* (Ünal vd., 1998: 103).

Economic problems of the city, social and spatial sense solved in order performed interventions including process common name is defined as urban transformation (Roberts, 2005: 17) as well as the local economy has entered the dynamics of the collapse process of passing the physical and social aspects of life in urban areas, relieved, turning it into living areas also to give back to the city intends. In that sense is a term used to describe renewal of urban slum community of leaks with worn sections (Keleş, 2010: 374).

Turok has addressed the in terms of participation in the urban transformation. According to him, the urban transformation; public, private and predicting public participation, the improvement of the poor and worn zone and building-environment-equip employees to improve the trio, the people living alongside the economy's progress through trade and industry also aims to be more livable it together to have the quality to adapt to urban centers present conditions is the sum of a planning improved terms (Turok, 2004: 63).

The person who living in urban areas; urban space, urban culture and urban life together with the restructuring of the and revitalization of the urban economy with the environment are among the objectives of urban transformation. In this situation certain parts of the city and its changing nature and is undergoing structural change (Tekeli, 2003: 7). Thus the urban transformation not only re-organized physical space, but also ensuring the participation of people in a globalizing world, aims to bring a new space for the city. Because the globalized world, economic, political, social and cultural transformation is accelerated. Undoubtedly the city in the global restructuring centrally located. Increased competition between the cities, as well as physical space conversion in other different areas, brings to innovation (Köktürk ve Köktürk, 2007: 1).

Urban transformation is not just for older urban built-up areas as expanded reproduction, as well as yet unbuilt and is a concept put forward for urban areas considered structuring (Gündoğan, 2006: 43). In other words, the loss of redevelopment of an economic activity and revitalization, to make the work of dysfunctional social function, promoting social integration in the field of social exclusion, environmental quality, or in areas where ecological balance is lost is restored to balance (Roberts, 2005: 17-18).

According to Roberts urban transformation aims to carry out four main criteria. These;

To stop physical collapse in the city and ensure the sustainability of historic texture To reviving economic life

Architectural and improve the quality of urban life and culture based on dynamic to mobilize To ensure the participation of all actors involved in urban transformation



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In short; A city in which to solve problems and intervene in a positive way to the cities for urban sustainability in the future can already by foreseeing to gain is probable adverse conditions are called urban transformation. Unhealthy, unplanned and result in many problems caused by extreme urbanization has emerged urban problems. Urban transformation as a result of various factors be threatened the introduction of cities and urban life, it was put forward as a solution.

URBAN GENTRIFICATION

Gentrification; physical, social and culturally degraded urban areas historic areas with the revision and restructuring of social structure is defined as (Andersen, 2004: 189-192). To our language, although often translated as gentrification, the content is exactly as expressed by academic circles in to the gentrification grounds, is reported to be expressed in different names such as the bourgeoisification (Özden, 2008: 169).

The concept of gentrification; especially where low-income people and the upper class residential areas in the city which is deteriorated is defined as the name of the process that began to settle (Ciravoğlu ve İslam, 2006: 37). The renewal of the result of the city to areas inhabited by low-income people, middle, and the first time the concept of gentrification containing sit the areas seized push them to the city's other areas of previously low-income citizens through the people in the upper class sociologists are set to be used by Ruth Glass. Instead of buying middle and upper class housing in working-class neighborhood in London it is reported to be used on luxury and changing the social character of the area by expensive housing (Ergün, 2006: 15).

Gentrification, deprived of urban equipment, pollution, safety, unlike escaping the difficulties the city center when such traffic is the middle and upper classes easily could meet the cultural and social needs, and historical and cultural texture forefront rose defined as the settlement process for new urban centers (Bailey and Robertson, 1997: 1-3).

In urban areas, on the basis of gentrification process is seen as the ownership change, urban areas inhabited by taking low-income people are at the center of high-income people or to place them in (Andersen, 2005: 156). The process of this place as it is stated Smith; "Is it a start, there's the class of the residents live all or to those of the vast majority of the place and the neighborhood continues to rapidly change the entire social fabric" (Smith, 2006: 20).

In short gentrification town's social, physical, if economic and plus the wealth of urban equipment by providing the cultural development in, urban areas, policies capitalism and the cause of class inequality and injustice by the market economy is stated that reflect powerfully.

Urban gentrification concept brings to mind the filtering concept. Here is a process that works in conversely. Filtering concept, as a result of letting go of some of their dwellings kinds of reasons, family, housing, be shared by families in lower income brackets and in the process is the theory, which assumes that the constant change of hand housing in urban areas (Keleş, 1998: 112). The opposite of the concept of gentrification condition expressing drain, leaving some urban centers due to unfavorable conditions from which the middle and upper income groups in empty of people belonging to lower income group refers to the settlement.

GENTRIFICATION AS A TOOL OF URBAN TRANSFORMATION

Urban renewal policies, physical seen in the city's debris field, in responding to the social and economic problems, but also a new phenomenon, it may lead to the emergence of the phenomenon of gentrification. Gentrification can be seen in two different ways in urban transformation policies.



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The first one; gentrification is used as a tool both by urban transformation policies and purpose. The second is the emergence of urban transformation application as a side effect (Erbey, 2006: 75).

According to both tool and gentrification urban transformation policy approach that serves as purpose, living in urban centers by way of transformation of urban centers and more low-income families removed from these places, their location and settlement of upper middle-income families are provided. Physically improved urban centers are gaining social and economic vitality and transformation policy. Subtracting the families living there because of lower income groups, the establishment of upper-middle class who are better off economically add vitality to the city center (Budak, 2007: 81).

According to the approach adopted by a kind of gentrification as urban transformation policy tool, a kind of gentrification in the city's economy is referred to as the urban transformation named differently. The best example of this situation is reported to be seen in the urban transformation policies in the UK (Erbey, 2003: 25).

The approach serves as a side effect of urban transformation policies gentrification, physical and economic improvements in the central city of the opinion that necessarily have an impact. These influences will naturally have consequences that affect the lives of residents in the city center. Hence it applications might lead to a change in the social structure in urban centers. Because the physical and economic interventions to improve the urban areas will have absolutely positive and negative results and this will inevitably lead to social change. Urban regeneration policy, which is a tool of gentrification, revitalization of urban centers, in order to maintain the cultural and historical value is assisted by many people living in the city is important. Although not among the main goals and objectives of these applications may lead to a change in ownership of urban centers over time.

Urban transformation tool or side effects resulting gentrification appears as if the urban regeneration of tissues and cultural heritage of support to be passed on to future generations g also be displaced around the living quarters, an economically better position in the social equality on the grounds that lead to social disintegration will cause the arrival of people who the conflict is expressed.

RESULT

Although the definition of the concept of diversity as well as the concept of urban transformation and gentrification concepts are intertwined with each other. Two concepts common in the context of the renewal of urban areas, is to reverse the process of reviving dilapidated areas experiencing depression process. Besides the transfer to future generations so that will be saved from extinction, the value of imparting attractiveness is increased. Because of the upper-middle class moved into these new areas is also increasing economic activity and brings economic vitality in the region inevitably the case.

Urban transformation and gentrification applications are also welcomed by the local authorities. Because of the increasing value with increasing property taxes renewal process and increasing income of the municipality. Therefore municipalities to provide better services and will enter into pursuits that provide opportunities for new activities.

Urban centers in terms of protection and to preserve the core of the process of gentrification possible welcomed "displacement" is also a negative as well. As a result of that period with the arrival of high-income group of people so that low-income tenants with many people being displaced. The poorest individuals will be moved to the city where in worse condition or in different regions or remain able to pay higher rents. Such case the housing problem due to give birth next to it to be a serious problem in addition to people forced to leave their habitat could

result in socio-psychological problems. Because people would lose their sense of belonging to the place where city and housing.

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ANTECEDENTS OF DESTINATION SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF SARDINIA, ITALY

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ABSTRACT

Drawing on symbolic consumption theory and the time sequential logic of traveling, this study examines the relationships among involvement, destination personality, self-congruity, destination satisfaction and loyalty. A total of 1,266 usable questionnaires were collected via an on-site survey in Sardinia, Italy. A structural equation modeling approach was used to test the proposed theoretical model. Results reveal that involvement has a positive effect on destination personality, which in turn affects self-congruity and destination satisfaction; self-congruity and destination satisfaction affect attitudinal and behavioral destination loyalty. In addition, attitudinal loyalty also significantly influences behavioral loyalty.

Key Words: Involvement; Destination personality; Self-congruity; Destination satisfaction; Destination loyalty

INTRODUCTION

Given the fierce competition among tourism destinations, destination personality is acknowledged as a highly influential element of branding management that attempts to develop a symbolic uniqueness and build emotional bond with tourists. Previous research indicates that utilization of destination personality is a viable approach to craft a unique brand identity (Ekinici & Hosany, 2006). It could boost tourist experience and post-visit behavioral intentions (Apostolopoulou & Papadimitriou, 2014). However, few studies examine the individual factors that can influence tourists' perception of destination personality. Since destination choice is attributed with important goals, values, and even symbolic consumption characteristics, it is strongly supported that involvement significantly affects information processing and tourism decision makings (Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003). Tourists' involvement in the information search stage is likely to impact their perception of a destination's personality (Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005). Hence, this study posits involvement as an important antecedent of destination personality, examines the influence of destination personality on self-congruity and destination satisfaction, and tests the relationship among self-congruity, destination satisfaction and loyalty.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

A destination is usually chosen and visited after intensive information gathering and processing (i.e., high levels of involvement) because destination choice is of direct relevance or importance to create, confirm and communicate with tourists' self-image and social identity (Bhat & Reddy, 1998). Besides, destination choice is a form of symbolic consumption, (Aho, 2001), and charged

with meaning (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), Therefore, tourism consumption not only satisfies tourists' needs by matching the self-concept and destination personality (i.e., self-congruity), but implies tourists' social status, prestige, and lifestyle, which directly leads to destination satisfaction and loyalty (Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk, & Preciado, 2013). After consumption is completed, tourists' evaluations are formed. Thus, there is a clear time sequence from choosing a destination based on relevant information processing, experiencing the travel products onsite and evaluating after travel. Based on the symbolic consumption theory and the time sequence of traveling, a conceptual model is developed (see Fig.1).

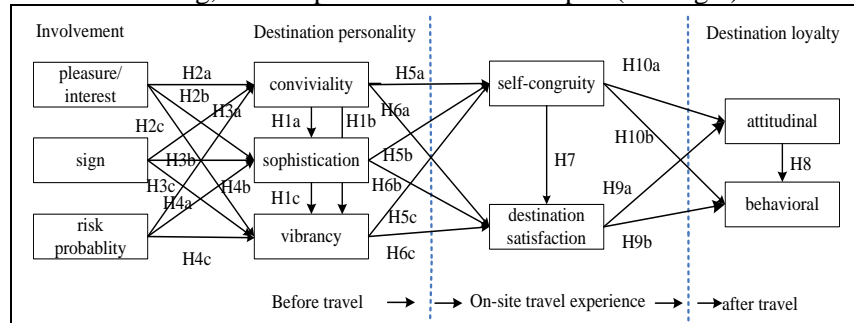


Fig. 1 A proposed conceptual model

Destination personality

Destination personality is referred as a set of human characteristics associated with a destination perceived by tourists (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Aaker (1997) develops a brand personality scale including five dimensions: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness. Since then, Aaker's BPS is also used to measure the personality of destinations, such as countries, cities, regions, and landscapes (Baloglu, Henthorne, & Sahin, 2014; Ferrandi, Valette-Florence, & Fine-Falcy, 2015; Kim & Lehto, 2012; Xie & Lee, 2013). Results show inconsistent brand personalities across destinations, which may be mainly due to the fact that tourism destinations offer intangible, experiential, and symbolic benefits (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, & Kaplanidou, 2013).

In this study, based on the focus group and empirical analysis results, destination personality has three dimensions: conviviality, sophistication and vibrancy. To be specific, conviviality describes the hedonic nature of the island destination, especially the jolly and humorous atmosphere tourists feel. Sophistication mainly exhibits such qualities as glamorous and emotional. Vibrancy focuses on the alive and adventurous outdoor activities that tourists could experience.

A recent meta-analysis has proved that the five dimensions of brand personality are not fully orthogonal but dependent on one another (Van der Linden, te Nijenhuis, & Bakker, 2010). More specifically, exciting brands are usually perceived rugged; sincere brands are also depicted as competent (Yang, Cutright, Chartrand, & Fitzsimons, 2014). Since the concept of destination personality derives from brand personality, it is reasonable to hypothesize that:

H1. The three dimensions of destination personality are related to one another, specifically, *conviviality* is positively related to *sophistication* (**H1a**) and *vibrancy* (**H1b**); and *sophistication* is positively related to *vibrancy* (**H1c**).

Involvement

Previous research indicates that certain type of tourists have stronger perception of destination personality than others (Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007). The perception difference of destination personality among tourists can be explained by involvement. This study focuses on tourist involvement at the stage of traveling information search and conceptualizes it with three dimensions: pleasure/interest, sign and risk probability. Specifically, Sign refers to the symbolic value manifested by the destination. The risk probability dimension refers to the perceived probability if tourists make a poor traveling decision.

A destination choice is perceived not only with symbolic consumption characteristics, but assumed to be a high risk since most tourism products are intangible, inseparable, and consumed in unusual home communities (Huang, Gursoy, & Xu, 2014). Tourists will pay more attention to destination information searching and analyzing, and the more tourists get involved in a travel decision, the more elaborately they will evaluate a destination's personality (Murphy, Moscardo, & Benckendorff, 2007). Thus, we propose that the three dimensions of involvement have positive

impacts on destination personality:

H2. *Pleasure/interest* is positively associated with the three dimensions of destination personality, such as *conviviality* (H2a), *sophistication* (H2b) and *vibrancy* (H2c).

H3. *Sign* is positively associated with the three dimensions of destination personality, such as *conviviality* (H3a), *sophistication* (H3b) and *vibrancy* (H3c).

H4. *Risk* is positively associated with the three dimensions of destination personality, such as *conviviality* (H4a), *sophistication* (H4b) and *vibrancy* (H4c).

Self-congruity

Sirgy (1985) developed the self-congruity theory to describe a matching process: the greater the match between a consumer's self-concept and his/her image of a particular product/brand, the more likely the consumer has a favorable attitude toward the product/brand. As a canonical correlation analysis proves, destination personality could be mostly accounted for by effective destination image (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006). Since the concept of self-congruity connects tourist self-concept and destination image, destination personality would be a potential factor of self-congruity. Empirically, Murphy et al. (2007) connect the perception of destination personality with self-congruity level. Accordingly, we propose:

H5. Self-congruity is positively influenced by the three dimensions of destination personality, i.e. *conviviality* (H5a), *sophistication* (H5b) and *vibrancy* (H5c).

Destination satisfaction

Destination satisfaction refers to an overall evaluation of the extent to which a specific destination is able to meet tourists' travel needs and expectations (Chen & Phou, 2013). When tourists try to attribute positive personalities to destinations (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2006), they are evoked by strong emotions which are fundamental determinant of destination satisfaction (Gnoth, 1997).

High likely, tourists will form a favorable attitude (Kumar & Nayak, 2014) and preference (D'Astous & Boujbel, 2007), resulting in greater destination satisfaction (Chen & Phou, 2013). Drawing on preceding arguments, it is expected that:

H6. The *conviviality* (H6a), *sophistication* (H6b) and *vibrancy* (H6c) dimensions of destination personality positively influence destination satisfaction.

Self-congruity also helps tourists create a preferable attitude towards specific destinations. According to Sirgy and Su (2000), different facets of self-congruity could influence travel behavior by satisfying different motives, such as self-consistency, self-esteem, social consistency and approval, all of which would help tourists build a high level of destination satisfaction. Therefore, it is postulated:

H7. Self-congruity has a positive effect on destination satisfaction.

Destination loyalty

Destination loyalty is an extension of brand loyalty in tourism setting (Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu, 2014). This study follows mainstreaming studies and divides destination loyalty into two dimensions: attitudinal and behavioral. Attitudinal loyalty is measured by tourists' recommendation intention to others; while behavioral loyalty by visit and revisit intention (Zhang, Fu, Cai & Lu, 2014). It is expected that the two dimensions of loyalty would form in sequence, indicating that attitudinal loyalty will directly influence behavioral loyalty (Blut, Evanschitzky, Vogel, & Ahlert, 2007), hence:

H8. *Attitudinal* loyalty has a positive influence on *behavioral* destination loyalty.

As for the antecedents of destination loyalty, studies suggest that destination satisfaction is a significant determinant (Chi & Qu, 2008; Picón, Castro, & Roldán, 2014). Various empirical studies under different tourism contexts have supported the antecedent role of satisfaction on tourist loyalty, hence:

H9. Destination satisfaction positively affects *attitudinal* (H9a) and *behavioral* loyalty (H9b).

When tourists perceive high level of self-congruity towards a specific destination, it implies that this destination has satisfied tourists' self-consistency or self-enhancement need, thus prompting their positive attitude and evaluation toward the destination (Kressmann, Sirgy, Herrmann, Huber, Huber, & Lee, 2006). Consequently, tourists will be emotionally attached to the destination (Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006) and possibly choose to revisit in the future. Therefore, self-congruity could influence destination loyalty.

H10. Self-congruity positively affects *attitudinal* (H10a) and *behavioral* (H10b) destination loyalty.



METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire was designed to measure all the constructs in the proposed conceptual model including involvement, destination personality, self-congruity, destination satisfaction and loyalty. All items were measured on a five-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). The questionnaire was available in two languages, English and Italian. Back translation was used to ensure the consistency of the two versions. The questionnaire was pilot-tested on 20 travellers (equally split among Italians and international travellers) to verify the content validity and comprehensibility of the questions. No concerns were reported in the pilot tests.

The research site is the island of Sardinia, the second largest island in the Mediterranean Sea with an economy highly dependent on sun and sand tourism. Because of its unique history, environment and culture (Pulina, Meleddu, & Del Chiappa, 2013), the region has a great potential for heritage tourism, food and wine tourism, ecotourism, and sport and outdoor tourism. Data were collected by a team of 10 interviewers in Olbia international airport and port areas. Only visitors who had completed their vacation were selected for interviews. In total, 4,000 respondents were approached to join in the survey and 1,266 valid questionnaires were obtained (convenience sample), resulting in 31.65% response rate.

The fit of the measurement model and the structural model was tested using the LISREL 8.7. The maximum likelihood (ML) method of estimation in combination with the two-stage process was utilized to analyze the data (Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, & Gursoy, 2013). Two indices measuring the model parsimony were reported: parsimony goodness of fit index and parsimony normed fit index.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Profile of the Respondents

As shown in Table 1, female respondents were slightly more than male ones (52.2% vs. 47.8%). Over half of the respondents (57.6%) were in the 25–54 age group, with the remaining split about equally into two age groups: 16–24 (21.6%) and 55 and above (20.8%). The majority of the respondents (63.1%) received secondary or high school education, with 34.5% achieving college or graduate degree. An overwhelming majority of the respondents travel for leisure (95.1%), and thus do not travel alone (92.8%) and stay for three days or more (96.7%). Over half of the respondents (56%) were repeat visitors to Sardinia, and most respondents were Italian (80.8%).

Table 1 Socio-demographic profile of the sample

Variables	%	Variables	%	Variables	%	Variables	%
Gender		Level of education		Occupation		Reason of the stay	
Male	47.8	None	0.7	Full time Employee	25.9	Leisure	95.1
Female	52.2	Primary school	1.7	Executive/manager	9.7	Business	4.9
Age		Secondary school	8.5	Self-employed	17.5	Nationality	
16-18	5.6	High school	14.6	Retired	11.1	Italian	80.8
18-24	16	University degree	8.8	Part time worker	5.2	International	19.2
25-34	19.1	Master/ PhD	5.7	Unemployed	3.8	Travel party	
35-44	21	Time of visit		Student	17.4	Alone	7.2
45-54	17.5	First time	44	Other	9.4	Couple	34.2
55-64	14.2	Revisit	56			Family	41.4
≥ 65	6.6					Friends	17.2

Measurement Model

The overall fit indices of the measurement model were as follows: $\chi^2(584) = 2,352.72$; goodness-of-fit index=0.89; the normed-fit index=0.96; the non-normed-fit index=0.97; the comparative fit

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index=0.97; the incremental fit index=0.97; the relative fit index=0.95; the parsimony goodness-of-fit index=0.74; and the parsimony normed-fit index= 0.84. Further, the values of the three residuals-based indices: root mean square residual (RMR), standardized root mean square residual (standardized RMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) were 0.046, 0.043, and 0.055 respectively. The values of the above indices met the cutoff criteria (Hu & Bentler, 1995) and pointed to an adequate model fit.

For the convergent validity test, the completely standardized factor loadings for each indicator were found to be significant, confirming the posited relationship between the indicators and their corresponding constructs. The CR values for all constructs were above .70, indicating the internal consistency of the ten sets of construct indicators. The estimate for AVE for each construct was higher than 0.50 except for the vibrancy dimension of destination personality, suggesting the representativeness of the indicators of the latent constructs. Discriminant validity was tested by comparing the inter-correlations of each latent construct with the square root of the AVE values for each construct (Hatcher, 1994). The AVE scores of all constructs exceeded any of the inter-correlations between the constructs. Therefore, discriminant validity of the measurement model was established (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Structural Model

Most of the goodness-of-fit statistics of the proposed theoretical model were found to be above the recommended threshold values. The χ^2 value with 602 degrees of freedom was 2,613.35 ($p = 0.0$), lower than the acceptable level. However, all other fit indices indicated that the proposed hypothesized structural model fits well to the data: GFI=0.88; NFI=0.96; NNFI=0.96; CFI=0.97; IFI=0.97; RFI=0.95; PGFI=0.53; PNFI=0.86; RMR=0.061; standardized RMR=0.060; and RMSEA=0.057.

Most of the hypotheses were supported by the results (see table 2), except the relationship between the ‘pleasure/interest’ dimension of involvement and the ‘vibrancy’ dimension of destination personality (H2c), between the ‘risk probability’ dimension of involvement and the ‘sophistication’ dimension of destination personality (H4b) ,

Table 2 Estimated standardized coefficients for the hypothesized model (N =1266)

	Destination personality			Self- Congruity	Destination Satisfaction	Destination Loyalty	
	DP1	DP2	DP3			Attitudinal	Behavioral
Inv1:Pleasure/Interest	0.10 (2.59)	0.26 (6.95)	0.02 (0.45)				
Inv2:Sign	0.08 (1.99)	0.08 (2.22)	0.14 (3.84)				
Inv3:Risk Probability	0.16 (4.18)	-0.05 (-1.42)	-0.08 (-2.29)				
DP 1: Conviviality		0.37 (10.21)	0.49 (11.52)	0.20 (4.31)	0.12 (2.70)		
DP 2: Sophistication			0.37 (8.62)	0.16 (4.08)	0.46 (10.20)		
DP 3: Vibrancy				0.25 (4.08)	0.21 (3.60)		
Self- Congruity					0.15 (4.21)	0.07 (2.30)	0.29 (8.00)
Destination Satisfaction						0.70 (17.92)	0.14 (2.55)
Attitudinal Loyalty							0.41 (7.91)

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Based on the symbolic consumption theory and time-sequential perspective of information

processing, in-situ travelling experience and post-trip evaluations, the present study systematically examines the antecedents and outcomes of destination personality by utilizing the data collected from Sardinia (Italy). Overall, findings of the study clearly support that tourists' involvement in traveling information search stage is an important antecedent that influences their perception of destination personality. Except for the insignificant relationship between the 'pleasure/interest' dimension of involvement and the 'vibrancy' dimension of destination personality, as well as the 'risk probability' dimension of involvement and the 'sophistication' dimension of destination personality, the relationships between all other dimensions of involvement and destination personality are found significantly positive.

Theoretical and managerial implications

This study directly analyzes whether involvement would affect how tourists attribute personality traits to a specific destination. Therefore, it represents a refreshing step toward sensitizing destination marketing organizations to the importance of stimulating potential tourists' involvement. Another contribution is to identify the three dimensions of destination personality exhibited by Sardinia. The results demonstrate that a destination is described by unique personality traits; hence, a destination-specific and culturally applicable scale for assessing destination personality needs to be developed for each individual destination.

The study's findings are helpful for the destination marketers and policy makers in Sardinia. Knowing how tourists perceive Sardinia's personality, the destination marketers can develop a unique identity for the island and design marketing campaign to improve the attractiveness and competitiveness of the destination. In order to aggrandize marketing effort, destination marketers may need to cooperate with online advertising agencies and tour operators to promote the destination personalities continually. In addition, the important role of involving in relevant traveling information searching in influencing tourists' destination personality perception necessitates destination marketing managers to strive to stimulate potential visitors' involvement by offering multiple information sources.

Limitations and future research

Since self-congruity is related to self-image and self-identity issue, individuals may adjust upward or downward to gain a social desirable response (Fisher & Katz, 2000), the response bias would be one of the limitations in this study. Another limitation may be caused by the research site, we are cautious that the results may not be generalized to other categories of tourist destinations besides the island. It has been proved that consumers' brand loyalty toward some tangible product categories could decline over time as the number of brands available has considerably grown and repetitive promotions have led consumers to widen their brand repertoires (Dawes, Meyer-Waarden, & Driesener, 2015). For the future research, a longitudinal analysis of destination loyalty to detect and monitor evolutions and variations of domestic and international tourists in Sardinia would also make unique contribution for local tourism managers.

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**INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTEER TOURISM: THE MORAL EXPERIENCE OF
TAIWANESE TOURISTS**

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ABSTRACT

In recent years international volunteer tourism has been rising and turning into an important niche market. This paper applies the empathy and moral development theory to understand the change of moral attitude and behavior of Taiwanese international volunteer tourists. Qualitative research methods such as interviews, participation and observation are adopted. This study found that the empathic emotion can encourage those Taiwanese volunteer tourists to help communities which they may just meet for once in their whole life time. Moreover, interactions among the volunteer tourists facilitate and reinforce the change of attitude and behaviors.

KEY WORDS:

International volunteer tourism; Empathy; Travel experience; Moral behaviors

Introduction

Nongovernment organizations (NGOs) developed the international volunteer tourism is now the fastest growing niche tourism market worldwide (Lyons and Wearing, 2008). Volunteer tourism mainly originated from Europe, after the government of United States and Australia encouraged their citizens to participate the mission trips about helping the communities of developing countries. Recent years, the phenomenon is growing rapidly to Asian and African as well (Wearing & McGehee 2013). In accordance with the report of United Nations Volunteers (UNV 2015) that more than 1 billion volunteers work globally, the member of the UNV work both in their own country and overseas. The research is now estimated 3.3 million volunteer tourists to attend the service camp annually (Mostafanezhad 2014). The majority of volunteer tourists are working on the issues of women, youths, poverty groups and environmental protection. .

Volunteer tourism has been described as a moral tourism; it applies to “those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment” (Wearing, 2001: p1). Volunteering abroad should be the best way to experience different cultures as parts of communities. Moreover, the volunteers are able to offer their time, money and efforts contributing to the projects of social and natural environments. The volunteers gain the benefits of social understanding, knowledge and skills, on the other hand, the hosts improve their living conditions and financial support. However, volunteer tourism also produces negative impacts. For example, volunteer tourism today is emphasized on making differences to the world, but the host is often forced to satisfy the tourists’ desires. It is sometimes deemed as a post-colonial societies or neo-colonialism. In addition, the volunteer tourists provide free labor that might reduce the job opportunities of locals. Then, the volunteers may be lack of ability to perform jobs, which may cause the problem for locals. (Wearing 2001; Butcher 2011; Guttentag 2011).Many studies consider the Volunteer tourism as a western perspective, and only few Asian volunteers are noticed. From the different social background, what they have learned from the moral experience, and its effects on life.

Materials and Methods

The study aims to explore moral experience for Taiwanese tourists to volunteer overseas and to examine the experience which might have a significant impact on their moral behaviors during the trip and after returned home. To achieve this aim, it will analyze the volunteer tourism experience



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by using the empathy and moral development theory to examine empathic emotions which can encourage the volunteer tourists to help communities which they might just meet for one time in their whole life time. Qualitative research methods can understand the experience and impact of volunteer tourists in-depth. Due to the author had two years volunteering experience in Sao Tome and Principe and participated in a 7-day (2015/10/31-2015/11/6) international volunteer work camp in Cambodia held by Vision Youth Action Foundation. All the respondents of this research through referrals made among volunteer tourists who know each other has participated in organizing long term or short-term international volunteer activities in a developing country. (Lofland & Lofland 1984:25; Biernacki & Waldorf 1981). Furthermore, 47 interviews were conducted face to face lasting between 47 and 103 minutes. The data collection were recorded and transcribed for analysis.

Discussion and conclusion

Even though people think for their own at first, they may help others in some other ways. In other words, people caring for others and humans must have genes about helping, while we feel empathy for others in need (Hoffman 2000). The theoretical framework for the empathy and moral development, which volunteering abroad mainly visits the communities where need help. In the site, volunteer tourists are more appropriate to feel others' condition during the service activities. When those volunteer tourists observe the locals are in such difficult environment, they may feel unfair, guilt, or sympathy for someone. The certain match of empathic arousal, therefore, volunteers try to help by doing something good for them.

Most comments were found in examples such as before the trip: most of the participants would like to combine travelling abroad and experience something different by participating in volunteer tour programs (Sin 2009). During the trip, the participants perceived the actual condition of communities and also the team members encourage each other to do good things together. They become more generous or compassionate on acting moral behaviors (Pan 2012). For example, they are willing to pay higher price to purchase the local products made by social enterprises, money donation to NGOs for sustainable support, or having strong responsibilities for the local communities where they service. Furthermore, after the trip, many of them continue to attend the volunteer trip, to share the updated news of the host organization and host community on the web-site, or to raise money and goods as charity giving. As a result, empathy-affected responses reflect one's own moral emotion, motivation, and behavior (Hoffman 2000). This research is found in that in volunteer tourists that are capable of caring when we feel empathy for others in need.

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**MEMORABLE EXPERIENCES AT BOAT SHOW AND EFFECTS ON
PERCEIVED VALUE AND INTENTION**

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ABSTRACT

Based on former literature, this study extracted exhibition activity, exhibition management, quality of service, and psysiography as four constructs in memorable experiences at exhibitions. This study proposes memorable experiences at exhibitions lead to perceived hedonic value and utilitarian value, which then influence behavioral intention. A total of 204 usable samples are collected from the China (Xiamen) International Boat Show in November, 2015. Results of this study reveal that both exhibition activity and psysiography significantly improve perceived hedonic value, while exhibition activity and quality of service significantly enhance perceived utilitarian value. Additionally, hedonic value significantly exerted positive influence to behavioral intention.

Keywords: memorable experience, exhibition, hedonic value, utilitarian value, exhibition activity, psysiography

INTRODUCTION

Former hospitality scholars study the MICE (meetings, incentives, conferences, and exhibitions) industry mainly with indoor cases (Kay, 2005; Lin & Lin, 2013). However, for special industrial features and product demonstration, some trade exhibitions are taken place at outdoor spaces. The outdoor spaces provide event organizers more factors to utilize for enhancing delegates' memorable experiences. Memorable tourism experiences have been cross-culturally proved with strong linkage with behavioral intention (Kim & Ritchie, 2014). Through memorable experiences, delegates could perceive value of a trade show, and then own the intention to revisit. Current knowledge gap exists in extending the empirical understanding of memorable experiences from tourism destinations to trade exhibitions, and the mechanism from memorable experiences, perceived value, to intention at outdoor exhibitions. Therefore, this study aims to examine the effects of memorable experiences on perceived value and intention at outdoor trade exhibitions.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: Exhibition activity is positively related to hedonic value

Hypothesis 2: Exhibition activity is positively related to utilitarian value

Hypothesis 3: Exhibition management is positively related to hedonic value

Hypothesis 4: Exhibition management is positively related to utilitarian value

Hypothesis 5: Quality of service is positively related to hedonic value

Hypothesis 6: Quality of service is positively related to utilitarian value

Hypothesis 7: Psysiography is positively related to hedonic value

Hypothesis 8: Psysiography is positively related to utilitarian value

Hypothesis 9: Hedonic value is positively related to behavioral intention

Hypothesis 10: Utilitarian value is positively related to behavioral intention

METHOD

The China (Xiamen) International Boat Show which annually held at Wuyuan Bay was selected as the research setting. With seven years of its history, this boat show has attracted more than 10,000 foreign and domestic visitors from over 40 countries. Data collected was conducted during the show period from November 6th to November 9th in 2015. The memorable experiences were measured with a total of 13 items based on four dimensions extracted from Kim (2014), including exhibition activity (three items), exhibition management (four items), quality of service (three items), and psysiography (three items). Following Ryu, Han, and Jang (2010), perceived value was further separated into hedonic value and utilitarian value. Both hedonic value and utilitarian value were each measured by four items based on the work of Overby and Lee (2006). Behavioral intention was measured with five items developed by Overby and Lee (2006) to understand delegates' intention to continuously attend the boat show in the future. A pilot study with 30 participants was conducted before official data collection to check reliability and validity of the survey. Finally, this study collected a total of 204 valid responses with usable response rate of 89.08%.

RESULTS

This study used structural equation modeling by Mplus 7 to examine the proposed research model. Results of the study revealed that exhibition activity and psysiography significantly improved perceived hedonic value, while exhibition activity and quality of service significantly enhanced perceived utilitarian value. Moreover, hedonic value significantly exerted positive influence to behavioral intention. Based on the findings, this study contributes important theoretical and practical implications. For theoretical implications, this study proved exhibition activity, psysiography, and quality of service are the three key constructs of memorable experiences which improved perceived value. Furthermore, the perceived hedonic value could be enhanced through exhibition activity and psysiography, and then strengthen behavioral intention. For practical implications, the findings revealed the need to focus on exhibition activity and psysiography for outdoor trade exhibitions. Exhibition organizers should plan well on exhibition activity and psysiography for creating a memorable visiting experience, making the memorable experience to engender perceived hedonic value toward the exhibition, and then delegates would own behavioral intention for the exhibition.

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SERVICE INTERACTIONS AT HIGH-CONTACT EXHIBITION BOOTHS



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ABSTRACT

This study proposes service manner, service responsiveness, service expertise, and service recommendation as four major constructs in service interactions at high-contact exhibition booths. This study further proposes service interactions at a booth influence interaction comfort, which then leads to booth satisfaction and anticipation of future interaction. The China Xiamen International Tea Industry Fair is selected as the research setting and 308 valid samples are collected. Results of this study show that both service manner and service recommendation significantly exert positive influences to interaction comfort, which then enhances booth satisfaction. Booth satisfaction then improves anticipation of future interaction.

Keywords: service interaction, exhibition booth, service manner, service responsiveness, service expertise, service recommendation

INTRODUCTION

Service scholars have pointed the importance to explore high-contact service settings (Lin & Hsieh, 2011; Robert, Melissa, & Michael, 2005). In the MICE industry, some exhibitions may emphasize high-contact service settings which require service interactions at high-contact exhibition booths. Through reviewing previous literature (Lin & Hsieh, 2011; Lloyd & Luk, 2011; Michel, Tews, & Kavanagh, 2014), this study proposed four constructs as service interactions at high-contact exhibition booths, including service manner, service responsiveness, service expertise, and service recommendation. In a visitor-to-booth relationship, the aim of this study is to examine the flow of influences from service interactions to interaction comfort, booth satisfaction, and anticipation of future interaction.

HYPOTHESES

- Hypothesis 1: Service manner is positively related to interaction comfort
- Hypothesis 2: Service responsiveness is positively related to interaction comfort
- Hypothesis 3: Service expertise is positively related to interaction comfort
- Hypothesis 4: Service recommendation is positively related to interaction comfort
- Hypothesis 5: Interaction comfort is positively related to booth satisfaction
- Hypothesis 6: Booth satisfaction is positively related to anticipation of future interaction

METHOD

This study selected the China Xiamen International Tea Industry Fair as the research setting. In Asian tea tradition, tea sales requires high-contact service encounters for guests to try tea products and experience feelings aroused by different tea products. This tradition is also reflected on booth staffs' service interactions with visitors at the case exhibition. Therefore, this exhibition is an ideal research setting for this study. Data was collected at the case exhibition from October 15 to



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October 19 in 2015. Participants of the study are required to complete the survey based on one booth which they stayed for the longest time with. Service manner, defined as visitor observed staff behaviors, was measured with four items extracted from Lloyd and Luk (2011). Service responsiveness, implying booth staffs' timely and pleasant ways in providing services, was measured by four items from Michel et al. (2014). Service expertise, meaning booth staffs' knowledge and skill at service encounters, was measured by three items adopted from Lin and Hsieh (2011). Service recommendation, which defined as booth staffs' ability to offer ideal substitutes and make suggestions to visitors, was measured by three items based on Michel et al. (2014). Interaction comfort was measured by three items based on Sharma, Tam, and Kim (2015) to capture visitors' comfort feelings in service interaction at the selected booth. Booth satisfaction was visitors' satisfaction toward the selected booth, which was measured with three items revised from Wu and Liang (2009). Anticipation of future interaction was measured with four items based on the work of Lin and Hsieh (2011) to understand visitors' anticipation to enjoy service interaction with the selected booth firm in the future. Finally, 308 valid responses were collected for analysis.

RESULTS

This study applied structural equation modeling (SEM) through Mplus 7 to examine the proposed hypotheses. Results of SEM revealed that service manner and service recommendation significantly exerted positive influences to interaction comfort, and interaction comfort further enhanced booth satisfaction. Booth satisfaction then improved anticipation of future interaction. The findings contribute valuable theoretical and practical implications. For theoretical implications, this study clarified that service manner and service recommendation are two key aspects of service interactions to form interaction comfort. For practical implications, this study pointed the importance of firms to emphasize training booth staffs' service manner and service recommendation for high-contact exhibitions.

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**TOURIST DESTINATION POLICES WITH PEOPLE AFFECTED WITH
HIV/AIDS IN SMALL ISLANDS DEVELOPING STATES IN THE INDIAN
OCEAN -THE MAURITIAN AWARENESS POLICY CASE STUDY-**

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ABSTRACT

Small Island Developing States (SIDS) in the Indian States (Mauritius, Rodrigues, Seychelles or Madagascar) received a serious legal blow with an influx of tourists affected with HIV/AIDS in recent times. And the situation is becoming alarming both among local residents and tourists. No proper survey has been done and there are no official results in order not to affect this emerging sector in the Indian Ocean.

In addition it has many inhabitants which are already contaminated with the disease. In the absence of any national policy to combat this scourge, especially at a time when these States are relying on the tourism sector, as an emerging sector, to enhance their socio-economic development, it is ripe time to investigate in this sensitive issue in Mauritius. Currently, the sugar industry and the textile sector are continually showing signs of weaknesses, because of stringent competition with other emerging economies in the region, though they have been pillars of the economic development in SIDS in the past decade.

Focusing on millions of tourists who visit Mauritius annually and how they may affect or be affected by its local inhabitants, this paper examined to what extent national policies may combat HIV/AIDSs, and to what extent have they been efficient. It would be demonstrated that there is also a link between politics and process and they cannot be separated from policy (Walt, 1996). Social justice can be assessed as a prerequisite of health would government to improve health (Ottawa Charter 1998 and Alma Ata Declaration 1978). In a nutshell, governmental policies involve social, economic, cultural, legal and political systems (Burris, 2001). In the overall, public health laws, rules and legislations empower women, protect their fundamental rights and eventually reduce their vulnerability to contamination with people living with the HIV/AIDSs (UN, Doc, 2000).

Indeed, most human rights legal instruments on health provide that all individuals irrespective they are tourist or local inhabitants are entitled to protection following a range of rights because they are all human beings (Post, 2004) and anyone may be affected even by accident. Relying upon a traditional contextualized paper the paper opens with an Introduction, the Problem Statement of our study, a Literature Survey of our study, a Research Methodology with some Facts and Findings, a Conclusion and some Recommendations and the paper will close up with some References. Overall, this research paper would encourage policy makers in their options, decisions and passing of new and efficient legislations to secure both its citizens and foreigners against the pandemic disease.

KEY WORDS HIV AIDSs, Tourism, National policies



INTRODUCTION

Linked with legislations and regulations borrowed and inspired from abroad Mauritius has no proper legislations of its own. Mauritius has inherited both French (1715-1810) and UK (1810-1968) law since its colonisation which went back to 1715. Since its independence in 1968, and without any bloodshed, the Mauritian legislator has since then continued to borrow and inspire from UK legislations and common law coupled with French law in certain areas of the law such as Civil Law. Therefore, since 1715; the French Code Napoléon, Commercial Code and Criminal Code have been domesticated in our law and are still applicable on the small island of Mauritius but UK procedures have eclipsed French procedures because of celerity.

Therefore, it is important to study how these two countries have influenced our municipal law on disaster management with decisions of UK Courts and the French *Cour de cassation*, which are very often quoted by the local Supreme Court in its *stare decisis*, at a time where Mauritius has signed and ratified most of ILO conventions. Thus, there are UK legislations and various sources of law which have been implemented in our statutory books but how they work in harmony in the interest of the tourist industry has always been an issue.

This paper is focused on these foreign legislations and how are they influencing Mauritian law with respect to health and safety laws and regulations to protect workers on the workplace but how to proceed? In a contextualised paper, the author explained the impact of Anglo-Saxon inspired legislations coupled with Romano-Germanic laws in this area of the law, and what shall come out of this paper would probably enlighten the 'mixed system' in Mauritius and how Western legislations are so adapted to perform efficiently and without cohabitation in foreign countries. In his demonstration, the author would reflect on cited legislations and precedents from these countries to settle the right and best legal and regulatory framework to promote health and safety regulations to reduce risks and disasters otherwise workers would pay in a costly way. What shall come out of this paper would probably help the government and national authorities to come up with national policy to protect the social and political which prevail so far in Mauritius as a tourist destination

THE PROBLEM STUDY

Despite Mauritius is a tourist destination, there is not yet a proper legislation on medical tourists and/or there is no reliable data or surveys, in contrast to UK, about how many medical tourists come to Mauritius annually or how much money tourists spend in Mauritius prior to their departure? Over and above, how many are contaminated remains a live issue but latent so far. The sensitive issue of this survey accounts for this the Mauritian government being reluctant to reveal official figures that might have a disastrous impact on the Mauritian economy. However, if some tourists have been victims of criminal offences and despite that there are strong and reliable precedents of the Supreme Court there is still no reliable research in this area on how many medical tourists have been subject to medical negligence under civil law and torts in Mauritius, who would pay for damages if any and there is still no local decision or judicial precedent on this pertinent and live issue *per se*.

However, compared to other countries and where the main obstacle lies, is that Mauritian law has inherited a mixed system or *droit mixte* and since our Courts are following French civil cases on this issue and on this area of the law the aim of this paper is to identify some national policies demonstrating to what extent they might enlighten our own local decisions to come up with the proper *ratio decidendi* and right and reliable *stare decisis*. What shall come out of this paper would inevitably be of *d'origine prétorienne* motivating the legislator to come up with a legislation to cater for medical tourist and medical negligence in Mauritius.

LITTERATURE REVIEW

In an empirical research and following recent surveys, the authors would rely on a Human Rights Impact Assessment Model (HRIA) as a systematic exercise to dissimulate human rights (Green, Human Development Report, UNDP, UN, 2000) and the Human Rights and Public Health Optimisation (HRPHO) Model will be examined to show its relevance to the research (Mann et al., 1999) coupled with primary data (with questionnaires on sexual transmissions and their outcome)



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and secondary data (FAO and WHO, Ottawa Charter, Declaration of Paris, 1998; Alma Ata Declaration, 1978, Copenhagen Declaration and Programme of Action and Social Summit United Nations, 1995 and other relevant human rights legal instruments) to reflect to what extent these policies may at least reduce the progression of HIV/AIDS epidemic among tourists in Mauritius because health neither provides a framework for policy nor does it operationalized health (Hancock, 1987). Health policy is a national, societal and public phenomenon to protect public health (Gray, 1993) but it is trite law that societal pressure and both structural and political system influence decision-making and policy options and choices (Appello, 1997).

OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this survey is to evaluate whether HIV/AIDS policy strikes the balance between public health benefits and human rights burden. Is government under its obligations to protect, promote and fulfill the rights to health of PLWHA, or is it violating other fundamental rights?

METHODOLOGY

Assuming that policy-makers have no grounded means of knowing policy outcome, data was collected through quantitative and qualitative methods. Two focus groups discussions allowed for sophisticated quantification. For the quantitative survey a sample of 40 respondents represented the population under study. The statistical software (SPSS) was used to ensure relevancy and consistency of the findings.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

In Mauritius the HIV prevalence rate is 1.8 percent and it is rising exponentially. The 85 % hard hit population is Injection Drug Users (IDUs). Over an estimated 12,000 HIV positive person, only 3,000 have been detected and followed-up. Since 1987 Government has formulated successive National Strategic Plans but they failed because once more there is no specific legislation on HIV/AIDS apart from the *HIV/AIDS Act 2006*, second any survey may affect the tourism sector and third conclusive and conducive results may affect the population and its peaceful inhabitants. It is assumed that they are conceived without considering whether health benefits would outweigh human rights burden which could be detrimental and harmful. The researcher has used Human Rights Impact Assessment (HRIA) Model to evaluate HIV/AIDS policy (2001-2005). HRIA integrates human rights perspectives in decision-making throughout policy process.

Public health and human rights goals are synergistic. Government while protecting the right to health, infringes upon other fundamental rights of people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA). The argument is that, there is a better approach to lessen other human rights violations through a human rights-sensitive policy. Can government care for health, while protecting 'other human rights' as much as the right to health? Research findings showed that HIV/AIDS policy failed to serve its intended purpose. The policy was both under- and over-inclusive and not well-targeted to achieve projected goals. Under-and over inclusiveness masked discrimination, created classification that disproportionately impacted on certain groups which is impermissible. Being too coercive, the policy restricted the rights of some vulnerable groups.

Human rights burden created by the policy was measured from 4 perspectives: 1) nature if human rights violation, 2) the invasiveness of interventions, 3) the frequency and scope of intervention, and, 4) its duration. Research showed, if a coercive policy was the most effective, least restrictive alternative, then it had to be based on significant-risk standard, nature of risk and the severity of harm. The policy deprived fundamental rights of PLWHA to avert the significant risk of others and it has no procedural safeguards to ensure fact-finding process to individuals who suffered from violations of rights. *The Public Health Act* had no provision for criminalisation of HIV/AIDS. HIV/AIDS policy has no system of accountability, monitoring and assessment. In Mauritius the HIV prevalence rate is 1.8 percent and it is rising exponentially. The 85 % hard hit population is Intravenous Drug Users (IDUs) as explained.

Of an estimated HIV prevalence rate of 0.97% in 2012, representing a population of 8,000, only 5,508 have been detected cumulatively and treated. A Human Rights Impact Assessment (HRIA) Model is used to evaluate HIV/AIDS policies. HRIA integrates human rights perspectives in



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decision-making throughout policy process. Public health and human rights goals are therefore synergistic. Government while protecting the right to health, infringes upon other fundamental rights of people living with HIV/AIDS (PLWHA). Most probably, there is a better approach to lessen other human rights violations through a human rights-sensitive policy.

Research findings showed that consecutive HIV/AIDS policies failed to serve its intended purpose as the goals were not clearly defined and articulated. The impact of policy on prevention, treatment and care is weak which is explicit in poor drug compliance and high rate of drop-outs. It is found that policy outcomes influence health, gender, and economic environment. A gender-sensitive policy can prevent gender discrimination, victimization, vulnerability and stigma. The effectiveness of the policy is not evaluated by impartial examination of fact and expert opinion. As HIV testing is not yielding new reaction, a better approach would show real rise in prevalence. Unfortunately, in Mauritius there is still no structural mechanism to evaluate policy related to prevention, treatment and care. The policies are found to be both under- and over-inclusive and not well-targeted to achieve projected goals. Being too coercive, the policies restrict the rights of sex workers, intravenous drug users and foreign workers. Restrictive policy that affects fundamental rights create significant burden on human rights and harm public health.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Integration of human rights perspective in HIV/AIDS policy
- Integration of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in Mauritian Constitution
- State's compliance to its obligation to respect, promote and protect human rights
- Moral obligations from the local government that reflect political commitment to moral principles (D.Fidler, 2000)

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**STAKEHOLDER COLLABORATION IN TOURISM DISASTER
MANAGEMENT: THE CASE OF CYCLONE MARCIA IN CENTRAL
QUEENSLAND, AUSTRALIA**

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The increasing numbers of natural disasters worldwide have brought great loss of human life and property damage. The tourism industry, with the fragile nature of its product and experiences (Richter, 1999) and high reliance on interrelated businesses (Porttorff & Neal, 1994), is more vulnerable to natural disasters compared to other industries (Sönmez, et al., 1999; Henderson, 2002). Despite the importance of stakeholder collaboration in tourism disaster management (Faulkner, 2001; Ritchie, 2004; Pennington-Gray et al., 2014), our understanding of collaboration is limited. Some working structures for non-profit stakeholder collaboration are noted in the general management field (Proulx, Hager & Klein, 2014) with limited application in a tourism disaster management context. Further, collaboration fits across all stages of a disaster: reduction, readiness, response and recovery (Pennington-Gray et al., 2014), thus an understanding of specific actions of stakeholders across all stages is needed (Hystad & Keller, 2008, p. 159).

This empirical research aims to discover how stakeholders collaborate for effective disaster recovery by using the case of Cyclone Marcia which hit Central Queensland, Australian in 2015. Two main components were studied regarding (i) the structure of stakeholder collaboration in tourism disaster management, and (ii) key actions taken within the collaborative management system at different management stages. Due to the lack of literature in this research context, this study is exploratory in nature and aims to collect in-depth information from key stakeholders. Collaboration-related information were collected from semi-structured interviews with 15 key stakeholders who were directly involved in disaster management. The respondents were identified from both public and private sectors and various management levels (state, regional and local) by snowball sampling. Secondary data such as media and government reports were also collected to address the research questions.

The findings reveal that collaborative management occurred through setting up an affiliated program at both local (Local Disaster Management Centre) and state level (State Disaster Management Group) in the case of Cyclone Marcia (Figure 1). Stakeholders located in a regional/district level played an important role in bridging and communicating amongst local and state stakeholders (red arrow). This research also developed a 'Management Circle of Tourism Disaster Recovery' based on participants' responses of their actions in different stages of tourism disaster management (Figure 2).

It is found that major actions for the tourism industry happened in the response (short-term

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after the disaster) and recovery (long-term after disaster) stages of disaster management, which supports the idea that tourism organisations and businesses play a primary role in post-disaster management (Hystad & Keller, 2008). Major collaborative actions are found to be communication and information sharing (all stages), planning (before and after), funding (post disaster), advocating and marketing (post disaster). Communication stands out as the most critical action throughout management stages, as stakeholders (i) communicate potential threats before the disaster –for further planning; (ii) keep regular communication on situation update during the disaster – for active response; and (iii) coordinate communication and information-sharing across management levels and within management groups after the disaster – for effective marketing and recovery. The practical implications of the results are outlined along with future research avenues. The findings will be of interest in the field of ‘Crisis and Tourism’ for this conference and can extend the current understanding of stakeholder collaboration in tourism disaster management.

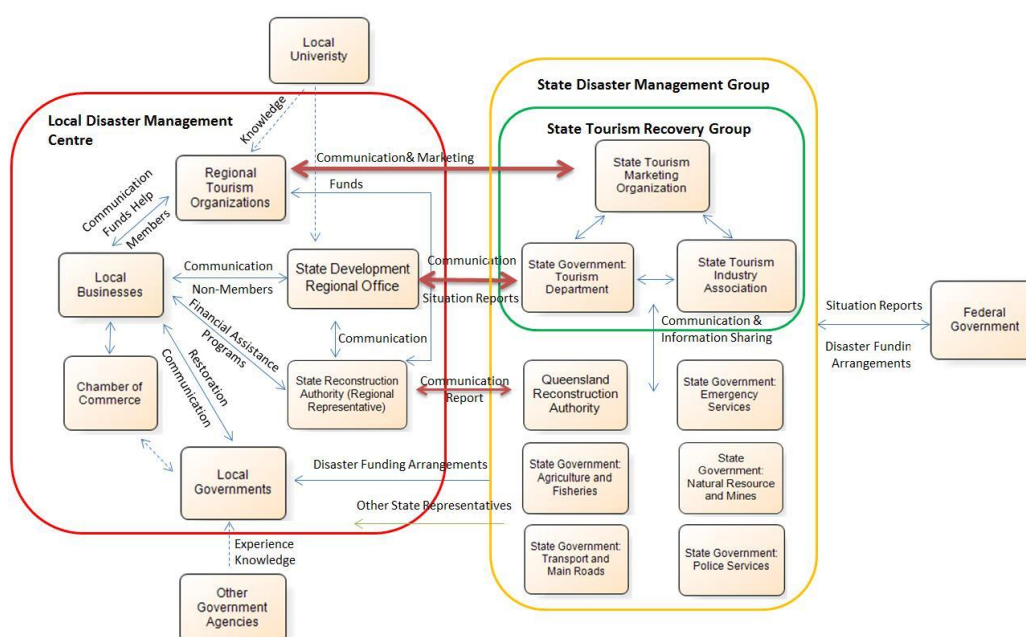


Figure 1 Collaborative Structures and Relationship for Tourism Disaster Management

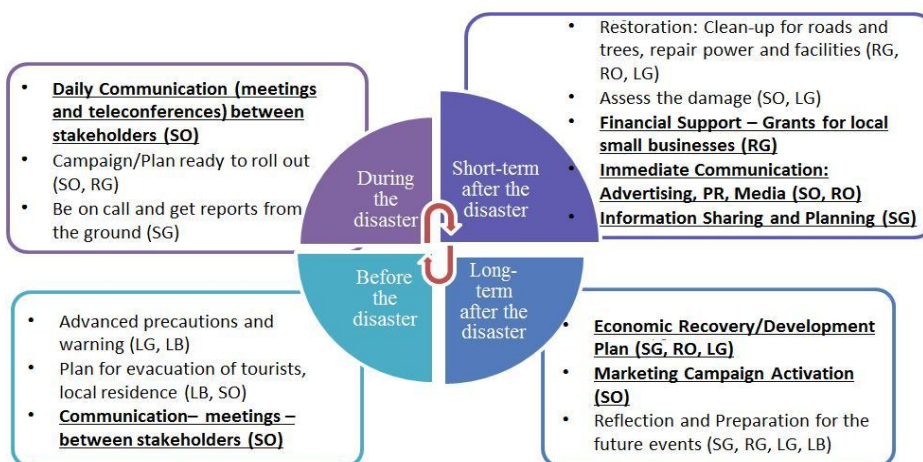


Figure 2 Management Circle of Tourism Disaster Recovery



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A MULTI-SCALE DECOMPOSITION-BASED APPROACH FOR REAL-TIME TOURISM FORECASTING

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ABSTRACT

We propose a multi-scale decomposition-based framework to conduct real-time forecasts with the collected search engine queries in tourism. Findings suggest that the proposed method can identify three components of the search engine data sets. The results also reveal that the forecasting accuracy of tourist volumes is greatly improved. The proposed approach and the findings of this study can provide insightful suggestions to practitioners and researchers for monitoring and forecasting tourist volumes more accurately and timely.

Key Words: Real-time forecasting, tourism forecasting, search engine data, multi-scale decomposition

INTRODUCTION

With the penetration of Internet technology, it has become increasingly significant to understand and monitor the tourists' activities with Internet platforms, but posing great challenges for the task of tourism forecasting. In particular, government sectors and industries need to timely update the forecasts of tourist volumes in order to make the right decisions, especially during peak tourist seasons. Some accidents can be avoided if the peaks were timely predicted and corresponding measures were taken. Tourism forecasting generally uses the officially released data such as business surveys and Tourism Satellite Account (TSA). Existing studies predicted tourist demand with state-of-the-art econometric models and artificial intelligence based approaches (e.g., Wong et al., 2006; Song and Li, 2008; Chu 2009; Gunter & Önder, 2015; Guizzardi & Stacchini, 2015; Akin, 2015). These modeling techniques can improve the forecasting accuracy of tourist demand, however, it is difficult to update the data timely at a high frequency. As a result, the traditional data sources cannot satisfy the need of real time tourism forecasts.

A key challenge to bridge the gap is to incorporate real-time data sources, and then model these high-frequent data with proper approaches. In recent years, Internet-based data sources have become increasingly significant because of their unique advantages. First, these data are generated by Internet users real time, so the data can be updated timely (Da, Engelberg, & Gao, 2011; Chen, Chiang Roger, & Storey, 2012). Second, the Internet-based data sources are at the higher frequency in general. In particular, search engine data that can be collected at the daily or weekly frequency, have been widely used in tourism forecasting. Related studies have demonstrated that search queries can help improve the forecasting accuracy of tourism demand. For example, Choi and Varian (2012) used relevant Google search engine data to forecast the tourist arrivals from United States, Canada, Great Britain, Germany, and other countries. The researchers argued that these data are favorable sources for accurate tourism forecasting. Yang, Pan, and Song (2013) proved that the hotel occupancy in the tourist destination can be greatly improved by adopting web volumes, which are modeled with traditional econometric models. Yang, Pan, Evans, & Lv (2015) used Baidu and Google search engine data to predict Chinese tourist arrivals and demonstrated the performances of the data of the two search queries in more accurate tourism forecasting.

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Even previous studies argued that search engine data are alternative and favorable choices in hospitality and tourism forecasting, they cannot illustrate the unique generation process of the search engine data. Search engine data represent that Internet users show concerns on the specific topics such as *travel destination*. It is not yet clear what information these search engine data exactly contains about tourist. During the period of tourist peak, the tourist flows are significantly greater than those during the period of tourist valley. This fact indicates that tourist cycles exist, which reflect the fluctuation of tourist arrivals in different seasons. Similar to business cycles, tourist cycles also contain long-term and short-term cycles (Kitchin, 1923; Hamilton, 1989; Diebold, & Rudebusch, 1996; Banerji & Hiris, 2001; Harding & Pagan, 2002). These cycles indicate that tourist arrivals are affected by different seasons. Thence, it is necessary to propose whether the search engine data contain these related information that can reflect when tourist chose tourist destinations. Accordingly, our study aims to investigate the intrinsic components of search engine data in order to depict how the search engine data correlate with tourist arrivals. In particular, we attempt to identify the patterns of search engine data, and argue that the patterns are useful to understand tourists' activities, and then improve the efficiency of forecasting tasks.

To be specific, this research proposes a multi-scale decomposition-based framework to conduct real-time forecasts in tourism. Following this framework, we first collect daily large-scale search engines data sets, and then adopt a multivariate empirical mode decomposition method to analyze these data. Second, these search engines data are decomposed into short-run oscillatory modes and long-run trend modes. Afterwards, we re-aggregate these modes following some rules to three components: trend, major cycle, and minor cycle. Third, each component is modeled with appropriate statistical models. Fourth, we further validate our framework through an empirical study about the real-time forecasting of tourist volumes in Chinese cities. Findings suggest that the proposed method can identify three components of the search engine data sets. The results also reveal that the forecasting accuracy of tourist volumes is greatly improved. The proposed approach and the findings of this study can provide insightful suggestions for practitioners and researchers to monitor and forecast tourist volumes in a more accurate and timely manner. Our study also contributes to existing literature that applies Internet-based data to various forecasting tasks in social, economic, travel and hospitality fields.

METHODS

A multi-scale based decomposition method is the core technique to process the search engine data and conduct real time forecasts. In order to identify different patterns of the search engine data, a multivariate empirical mode decomposition approach is introduced.

Empirical mode decomposition (EMD) is a powerful method to decompose the time series into multi-scale oscillatory modes (Huang et al., 1998; Huang et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2008). The original time series are assumed to consist different oscillations that are named as intrinsic mode functions. EMD is employed to extract these different parts according to their frequency from the original time series. Then, the oscillation with the highest frequency in the signal is extracted, and lower frequency information residue remains, which is further decomposed until a trend remained. For the multivariate time series, Rehman and Mandic (2010) modified the EMD to identify the common modes among large time series. Consider a sequence of n-dimensional vectors $\{\mathbf{v}(t)\}_{t=1}^T = \{v_1(t), v_2(t), \dots, v_n(t)\}$, the detailed algorithm is presented as following:

- (1). Select equally distributed k points on an $(n-1)$ sphere, and the points determine k direction vectors X^{θ_k} .
- (2). Calculate the projection of the input signal $\{v(t)\}_{t=1}^T$ along those k vectors, giving $\{p^{\theta_k}(t)\}_{k=1}^K$ as the set of projections.
- (3). Find the maxima of projected signals $\{p^{\theta_k}(t)\}_{k=1}^K$ and the corresponding time points $\{t_i^{\theta_k}\}$.
- (4). Interpolate $[t_i^{\theta_k}, v(t_i^{\theta_k})]$ to obtain the envelope curves $\{e^{\theta_k}(t)\}_{k=1}^K$.
- (5). Use these k envelopes to calculate the local mean $m(t) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K e^{\theta_k}(t)$ of the original signal.
- (6). Extract the oscillation mode $d(t)$ by calculating $d(t) = v(t) - m(t)$. If $d(t)$ meets the stopping criterion,



define $d(t)$ as an IMF; otherwise, repeat the above procedure for $d(t)$.

Accordingly, the algorithm repeats step 1 to 6 until all the intrinsic mode functions are extracted. This approach is extremely powerful to analyze multiple time series compared with classic EMD.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The empirical study explores the intrinsic components of search engine data of different tourist cities in China: Beijing, Haikou, and Haierbin. By using our proposed approach, we identify all the modes, and then re-aggregate these modes in order to have a better understanding of the data sources. Following divide and conquer algorithm, three components-trend, major cycle and minor cycle are obtained. In general, major cycle indicates that the related long-term cycles such as the national holiday in one year. Minor cycle shows that short holidays and weekends. The trend reflects the linear changes during the specific period.

However, these tourist cities show different peaks and valleys during the same period. For example, the winter holiday is the peak of Haikou tourist, but is the valley of Haerbin. This result is consistent with the fact, which tourists usually travel to warm cities in the winter, and to cold cities in the summer. Beijing, one of the most popular tourist cities in China, also presents obvious cycles. The major peak periods include summer holiday and National day; the major valley periods are around Spring Festive. As shown from the results, we can clear compare the characteristics of the tourists' attention during the peak and low seasons.

After identifying these components, we then model these with appropriate statistical models. Our results show that the major cycles of search engine data lead the actual tourist arrivals by 3 weeks in average. And the correlation index between these two time series is about 0.82. Accordingly, we use these components to predict the near future tourist arrivals of the cities with econometric models. The forecasting accuracy is improved and the timeliness is also improved to some extent.

CONCLUSION

This research proposes a multi-scale decomposition-based framework to conduct real-time forecasts in tourism. We adopt a multivariate empirical mode decomposition method to analyze the search engine data, and identify their intrinsic modes to explore the cycles of these data. Findings suggest that the proposed method can identify three components of the search engine data sets.

This study provides insightful suggestions for practitioners and researchers to monitor and forecast tourist volumes in a more accurate and timely manner. First, we argue that the components of search engine data are useful for the real-time tourism forecasting. Tourists show interests and concerns on the cities, and they are affected by peak and low seasons. Some period such as summer holiday, National Day, and Spring Festival have different impacts on the tourist arrivals, which can be depicted from the search engines. Second, our empirical study indicates that the search engine data lead the actual tourist arrivals after extracting the components. By decomposing the search engine data series, we demonstrate the stronger correlation between the data and the actual tourist arrivals.

Our study has implications for government and enterprises. The identification of peak and valley seasons can provide support for the related government sectors. The appropriate decisions can be timely made in the hot seasons in order to take prompt actions. Enterprises can also employ the forecasts to adjust their marketing strategies. Our study also contributes to existing literature that applies Internet-based data to various forecasting tasks in social, economic, travel and hospitality fields.

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MARKET SEGMENTATION BY MOTIVATION: A STUDY ON GERMAN TOURISTS VISITING SIDE, ANTALYA-TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the author used Iso-Ahola's 'optimal arousal theory' for segmenting German tourists visiting Side, Antalya -Turkey. Three market segments were identified and named as '*Highly excited*', '*Self-focused*', and '*Incurious*' based on motivation levels. Following, demographic and trip related characteristics of market segments were clarified. In addition, tourist perceptions about destination service quality were measured by a 21 item-scale. 'Health & hygiene', 'shopping', 'information', 'transportation', and 'accommodation' were identified as the main destination service quality dimensions by using exploratory factor analysis. Then, perception differences amongst three segments on destination service quality were investigated by variance analyses. Although, there were no significant differences amongst the groups about 'accommodation' dimension, considerable differences were found in other destination dimensions. For example, the perception of '*Highly excited*' segment about 'health & hygiene', 'shopping', 'information', and 'transportation' were more positive than '*Incurious*' segment.

Key Words: Tourist motivation, Destination attributes, Segmentation

Introduction

Providing high service quality to the customers is crucial, since it is an important antecedent of customer satisfaction which in turn affects customer profitability. Thus, businesses and also destination authorities have to measure the customers' service quality perceptions based on destination attributes for identifying the inadequate service encounters. However, in an increasingly competitive and fragmented marketplace, it is not enough to measure overall service quality perception of the customers. Destination authorities have to measure service quality perceptions of the various market segments, separately. Nowadays, apart from demographic characteristics, psychographic variables like motivation are widely used for market segmentation purpose.

Thus, the aim of this research is to compare destination service quality perceptions of the different market segments. The study focuses on German tourists who visit Antalya, Turkey; since they are the top market for Antalya destination according tourist arrival numbers. More specifically, the objectives of this study are: (1) to determine German market segments who visit Antalya, Turkey by using their motivations; (2) to identify market segments by their main characteristics; (3) to compare destination service quality perceptions of the different market segments. The remainder of the paper is configured as follows: after literature review about tourist motivations, research methodology is explained. Methodology section is followed by the results of the analyses. Lastly, conclusion of the findings and managerial implications are presented.

Tourist Motivations

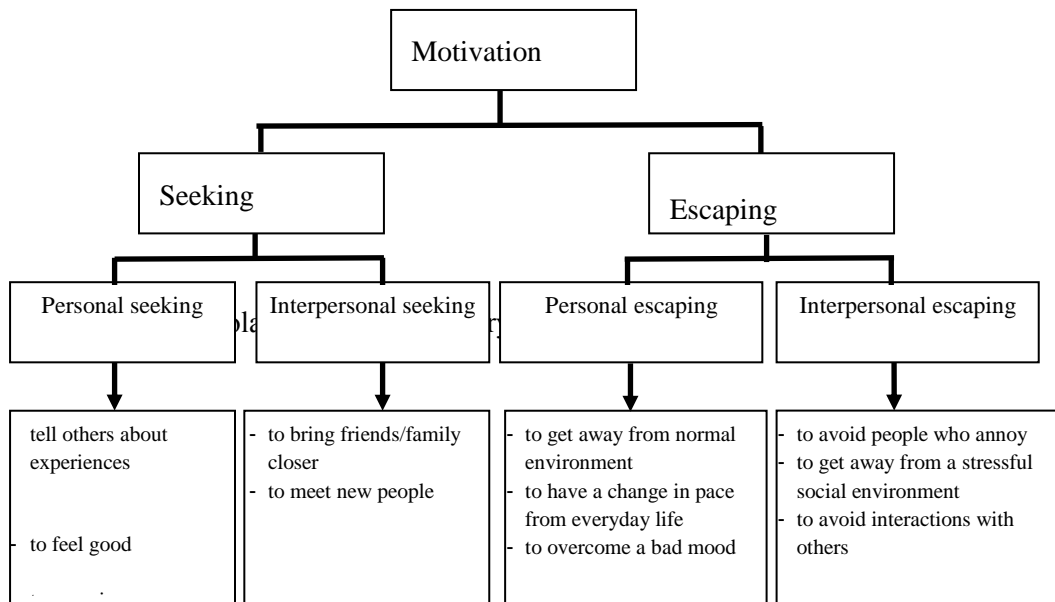
Tourist motivations have been investigated for many years by the academics, since identifying motivations is the starting point of understanding tourist behaviour. Dann (1981, p.211) defines tourist motivation as "a meaningful state of mind which adequately disposes an actor or group of actors to travel, and which is subsequently interpretable by others as a valid explanation for such decision." Starting from the Crompton (1979)'s first attempt, the academics offered many theories which aim to explain tourist motivation such as Pearce (1991)'s Travel Career Ladder approach, Dann (1981)'s Push and Pull Factor Theory, Iso Ahola (1982)'s Optimal Arousal Theory. Among these, Push and Pull Factor Theory and Optimal Arousal Theory are the mostly adapted approaches by the



academics.

According to Push and Pull Factor Theory, motivation can be subdivided into two components. Push factors are the motivational needs that arise because of the disequilibrium or tension in the motivational system. Thus, they explain why tourists want a trip and what type of experience or destination they prefer. In contrast, pull factors are destination attributes such as beaches, historic resources that attract tourists (Kim, Lee and Klenosky, 2003).

Optimal Arousal Theory consists of two main motivation dimensions which are escaping (e.g. ‘escaping routine environments’) and seeking (e.g. ‘seeking intrinsic rewards’). In addition, both dimensions have a personal (psychological) and interpersonal (social) components (Figure 1). By inspiring from Push and Pull Factor Theory, Iso-Ahola (1982) proposed that personal seeking, personal escaping, interpersonal seeking, and interpersonal escaping are the motives that push people for doing a specific behaviour (i.e. travel motivation).



Since tourists have many different motivation factors, this construct is widely used by the academics with market segmentation purposes as well. For example, Lee, Lee and Wicks (2004), by using visitors’ motivations of the 2000 World Culture Expo, Korea, identified four clusters which were named as ‘culture and family seekers’, ‘multi-purpose seekers’, ‘escape seekers’, and ‘event seekers’. They found considerable differences among the clusters. In another study, which was conducted by Park and Yoon (2009) in rural tourism context, four clusters were identified. They showed that the socio-economic characteristics, holiday behaviour, and activity preferences of these market segments significantly different from each other. To conclude, as Lee and Lee (2001) stated, segmenting market by motivations enable both the academics and managers to better determine visitors’ needs and desires, and therefore, improve visitor satisfaction.

Methodology

The first section of the questionnaire is comprised of six demographic and three trip-related questions to determine vacation behaviour of the tourists. In the second section, respondents’ destination service quality perceptions were measured by using a scale (25 items) generated from previous studies regarding destination evaluations (Kau and Lim 2005; Tosun et al. 2007; Troung and Foster 2006). The third section consists of 12 items which measure respondents’ motivations. All items were measured by a 5-point Likert scale (as 1 ‘totally disagree’; and 5 ‘totally agree’). The questionnaire which was prepared in Turkish, then translated into German language by a professional translator.

The survey was conducted by the collaboration of Side-Manavgat Hoteliers Association (Side-TUDER). The data obtained from 41 accommodation facilities in the Side-Manavgat area of Antalya. Voluntarily completed



questionnaires, which were put each of the hotel rooms, were given to the receptionists. At the end of four months period, 878 questionnaires were collected from German tourists.

Results

Results section starts by giving the demographic profile of the respondents. Following, motivations of the participants were identified, that was one of the objectives of this study. Market segments were identified by taking into account of participants’ motivations. Afterwards, the main characteristics of market segments were summarized. Lastly, destination service quality perceptions of different market segments were compared.

Table 1. Profile of the Respondents

Attributes		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	450	51.5
	Female	424	48.5
Age group	20 and below	69	7.9
	Between 20-30	190	21.7
	Between 31-40	198	22.6
	Between 41-50	262	29.9
	Between 51-60	98	11.2
	61 and above	58	6.6
Travel companion	Friends and relatives	157	18.5
	Colleagues	14	1.6
	Couple (with child/ren)	322	37.9
	Couple (without child/ren)	317	37.3
	Alone	39	4.6
Type of purchase	Travel agency	696	79.3
	Internet	150	17.1
	TV channel	15	1.7
	Direct hotel reservation	2	0.2
	Other	11	1.3
Average length of stay	1-7 days	239	28.0
	8-10 days	178	20.8
	11-14 days	405	47.4
	15 days and more	32	3.7
Number of visits to Turkey	First time	218	27.0
	Second time	196	24.3
	Third time	104	12.9
	Fourth time and more	288	35.7

As seen in Table 1, more than half of the respondents were male (51.5%). Approximately 30% of the respondents were aged between 41 and 50. Three fourth of respondents were couple with or without child/ren. 11-14 Days of stay was the most preferred duration of holiday. Almost 80% of respondents purchased their holiday via travel agency. Interestingly, 35.7% of the respondents visited Turkey for the fourth time or more.

Table 2. Motivation Dimensions

	Personal Escaping	Interpersonal Escaping	Personal Seeking	Interpersonal Seeking
To get away from my normal environment	0.893			
To have a change in pace from my everyday life	0.873			
To avoid people who annoy me		.861		



To get away from a stressful social environment		.707		
To avoid interactions with others		.795		
To feel good about myself			.843	
To experience new things by myself			.620	
To be with people of similar interests				.824
To bring friends/family closer				.687
To meet new people				.806
Variance Explained (%)	17.248	20.475	12.923	22.582
Reliability	0.801	0.754	0.479	0.750
Mean	3.75	2.60	3.97	3.14

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted for obtaining the underlying dimensions of respondents' motivations (Table 2). Two items were eliminated due to cross loading. Remaining items were grouped under four dimensions which explained 73.22% of the variance. Factor loadings were between 0.620 and 0.893. The dimensions were named in accordance with Iso Ahola's theory as 'personal escaping', 'interpersonal escaping', 'personal seeking', and 'interpersonal seeking'. Reliabilities of the dimensions were above than recommended value of 0.70 except personal seeking (0.479). Personal seeking (M = 3.97) was the most important motivation for participants, followed by personal escaping (M = 3.75).

For determining market segments by using their motivations, a hierarchical clustering analysis (Ward Method) was conducted by using four motivation dimensions' means. Three clusters solution was found as the most appropriate result. These clusters were named as; '*Highly excited*', '*Self-focused*' and '*Incurious*' according to the motivation items they consist. The motivation levels of each cluster were shown in Table 3. As seen in Table 3, 'Personal escaping' and 'Personal seeking' motivations of *Self-focused* cluster were higher than their 'Interpersonal escaping' and 'Interpersonal seeking' motivations. All levels of motivation dimensions in *Highly excited* cluster were higher than other clusters'. Compared to other clusters, all motivation levels of *Incurious* cluster were lower.

Table 3. Cluster Analysis Results

	<i>Highly excited</i> (N = 186)	<i>Self-focused</i> (N = 377)	<i>Incurious</i> (N = 172)
Personal Escaping	4.20	4.08	2.54
Interpersonal Escaping	4.09	2.19	1.82
Personal Seeking	4.30	4.09	3.34
Interpersonal Seeking	3.93	3.16	2.32

Demographic and trip related characteristics of the identified clusters were shown in Table 4. The majority (53.2%) of *Self-focused* participants were male. In the *Highly excited* cluster, this ratio was 46.8%. Of the *Self-focused* respondents, only 4.0% was 61 years and above, while this ratio was 7.0% for *Highly excited* cluster and 9.3% for *Incurious* cluster. Couple with child/ren respondents comprised 46.4% of the *Highly excited* participants. However, the share of couple with child/ren participants was 36.3% for *Self-focused* and just 34.1% for *Incurious* participants. Although the share of the respondents who prefer 1-7 days of holiday was 30.4% for *Highly excited* cluster, only 21.2% of the *Incurious* respondents preferred 1-7 days of holiday. *Highly excited* participants, who had been 4 or more times to Turkey, were 38.6%. However, in the *Self-focused* and *Incurious* clusters, this ratio was 35.5% and 29.5%, respectively.

Table 4. Characteristics of the Clusters



		<i>Highly excited</i> (N = 186) %	<i>Self-focused</i> (N = 377) %	<i>Incurious</i> (N = 172) %
Gender	Male	46.8	53.2	49.7
	Female	53.2	46.8	50.3
Age group	20 and below	9.7	8.0	7.6
	Between 20-30	21.5	22.7	26.7
	Between 31-40	23.7	24.0	15.7
	Between 41-50	28.0	32.0	32.6
	Between 51-60	10.2	9.3	8.1
	61 and above	7.0	4.0	9.3
Travel companion	Friends and relatives	17.1	20.1	15.0
	Colleagues	1.1	1.6	1.2
	Couple (with child/ren)	46.4	36.3	34.1
	Couple (without child/ren)	31.5	37.4	44.9
	Alone	3.9	4.7	4.8
Type of purchase	Travel agency	76.9	78.0	84.3
	Internet	21.5	18.0	12.8
	TV channel	1.1	2.1	1.2
	Direct hotel reservation	0	0	1.2
	Other	0.5	1.9	0.6
Average length of stay	1-7 days	30.4	29.1	21.2
	8-10 days	19.9	20.9	21.2
	11-14 days	44.8	47.6	52.4
	15 days and more	5.0	2.4	5.3
Number of visits to Turkey	First time	26.3	26.3	27.1
	Second time	22.8	24.9	27.1
	Third time	12.3	13.3	16.3
	Fourth time and more	38.6	35.5	29.5

For obtaining destination service quality dimensions; exploratory factor analysis was performed by using 25 items which measure destination' service quality. After eliminating 3 items for cross loading and 2 items due to low communality reasons, 5 factors were extracted which explained 65% of the total variance. Extracted factors were named as the; 'Health & Hygiene', 'Shopping', 'Information', 'Local Transportation', and 'Accommodation'. Factor loadings, explained variances, reliabilities, and means of the factors were shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Factor Analysis Results

	Health & Hygiene	Shopping	Information	Local Transportation	Accommodation
General environmental cleaning	.685				
Cleanliness of the food and beverage facilities	.776				
Food quality at the bars and restaurants	.593				
Cleanliness of the public toilets	.690				
Methods of the shopkeepers to attract customers		.738			
Attitudes of the shopkeepers towards to tourists		.767			
Honesty of the shopkeepers		.825			
General price level of the products		.617			



Price stickers or labels on products	.618				
Currency exchange facilities		.724			
Tourism information bureau services		.693			
Opportunities to get maps, brochures, about Region		.774			
Informative signs and symbols		.664			
Finding authorities to complain or to get information		.510			
Comfort of the local vehicles			.808		
Frequency of the transport services			.796		
Generality of the transportation system			.830		
Attitudes of the local drivers			.770		
General cleanliness of the hotel				.810	
Food and beverage quality at the hotel				.860	
Attitudes of the hotel staff				.835	
Variance Explained (%)	12.24	14.76	13.10	14.44	12.14
Reliability	.773	.835	.812	.882	.906
Mean	3.55	3.20	3.58	3.63	4.03

Variance analyses were used to identify clusters' service quality perception differences. Analyses results showed that clusters' destination service quality perceptions considerably differed (Table 6). In general, service quality perceptions of *Highly excited* cluster' members were higher than others, except for 'Accommodation' dimension. *Incurious* cluster members' perceptions were lower than *Self-focused* and *Highly excited* clusters.

Table 6. Destination Service Quality Perceptions' Differences of Clusters

	Highly excited (N = 186)	Self-focused (N = 377)	Incurious (N = 172)	p
Health & Hygiene	3.82 (.78)	3.47 (.70)	3.36 (.69)	0.000
Shopping	3.53 (.99)	3.11 (.75)	2.84 (.83)	0.000
Information	3.86 (.71)	3.50 (.62)	3.29 (.64)	0.000
Local Transportation	3.89 (.89)	3.55 (.78)	3.49 (.79)	0.000
Accommodation	4.13 (1.06)	3.96 (1.12)	4.04 (1.01)	0.215

Discussion and Conclusion

The study was focused on German tourists who visit Side, Antalya, since they constitute top market according to tourist arrival numbers. For better understanding this markets' needs and desires, the study was further clustered the tourists according to their motivations.

Three clusters were obtained by cluster analysis which were named as the; '*Highly excited*', '*Self-focused*', and '*Incurious*' based on motivation levels. The majority of the German tourists fell into '*Self-focused*' cluster which personal motivations were higher than interpersonal motivations. Motivational differences across the clusters showed that motivation was an appropriate variable for market segmentation as used in previous studies (e.g. Park and Yoon, 2009). Differences among the characteristics of the clusters confirmed this conclusion. For example, *Highly excited* German tourists were couple with child/ren and approximately two third of them had been to Turkey for the fourth time and more. In addition, 21.5% of them used internet for purchasing their holidays. In contrast, most of the '*Incurious*' respondents were couple without children and only 29.5% of them had been to Turkey for the fourth time and more. Moreover, just 12.8% of them preferred to buy their holiday via internet.

Considerable differences in destination service quality perceptions amongst the clusters were also identified. For example, while 'Shopping' was the least satisfying dimension for all participants, the perception of '*Highly*



excited cluster was higher than *'Self-focused'*, and *'Incurious'* clusters. Interestingly, the perception of *'Accommodation'* which was most satisfying dimension for all participants did not differ amongst the clusters.

To conclude, the results of this research showed that it was not enough to segment market only by using nationality variable. Because, the visitors coming from the same country, may have very different motivations, and therefore, their likes and desires may be different as well. Destination authorities in Side, Antalya should deal with market segments by giving consideration to each segments' characteristics and generate different marketing strategies for satisfying them.

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THE PACKAGE TOUR EXPERIENCES

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ABSTRACT

Organized tours account for a significant share in tourism volume. Despite their importance however these services are neglected in tourism literature. Customer experiences have also been discussed as important to create positive customer behaviors such as recommendation. Positive word-of-mouth from customers is a sought after desire for any organization. Inter-consumer influence is directly related to company image, customer satisfaction, retention and acquisition, overall costs and profits. The aim of this study is to present the relationships between experiential characteristics of organized tours and recommendation behaviors. The study also explores the impact of various experiential attributes on recommendation. Data were collected from 120 respondents in Istanbul between Nov.- Dec. 2014. The results indicate that there is a strong relationship between tourist experience and recommendation. Travelers' recommendation is particularly affected by positive, memorable and enjoyable experiences.

Key Words: package tour, tourist experience, tourist satisfaction, recommendation

INTRODUCTION

Tourists seek experiences which are different from their regular environment and daily routine life (Cohen, 1979; MacCannell, 1973). Tourism product in general is an experience (Gunn, 1988); tourists do not only purchase products and services but also acquire experiences as a by-product of their travels. Experience is the main outcome after a leisure trip. Various authors also argue that experiences result in positive customer behaviors such as satisfaction. However since it is intangible, measuring a vacation experience and its relationship with recommendation are challenging tasks (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Jennings, 2010; Neal & Gursoy, 2008; Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007).

Organized tours also referred to as package tours or prepaid tours are significant part of commercial tourism industry. Customer experiences have also been deemed important to create positive customer behaviors such as recommendation. However experiential characteristics of organized travel services have so far been neglected in the literature. The aim of this study is to present the relationships between experiential attributes of package tours and tourist recommendation behavior. The study also explores the impact of various experience items on recommendation. Therefore the study aims to explore the answers of two main questions. First, what are the relationships between experiential factors and package tourist recommendation and second, what are the experiential factors that explain recommendation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The organized tour is an assembly of different products and services arranged by a tour organizer (e.g. tour operator) which provides services such as accommodation, transportation, sight-seeing, and food services. Tour organizers usually charge these services at an inclusive price (Bowie & Chang, 2005). The package tour involves tangible products and a large part of intangible service components (Westwood, Morgan, Pritchard, & Ineson, 1999). The package tour as an intangible product makes the package tour purchase a risky decision. Customers do not know what they are getting until they actually consume the services (Levitt, 1981). Therefore there is a higher



level of risk involved in tourism consumption. In order to minimize the risk and costs associated with time during the process of searching, reserving and payment of different services, some travelers prefer to rely on tour operators' packages because of the convenience it offers. Thus tour operators and travel agencies are highly dependent upon the companies' image and word of mouth for generating repeat and recommended sales (Bowie & Chang, 2005).

Tourist Experience

Traditional tourist behavior concepts are no more sufficient in explaining changing tourist needs and motivations (Mossberg, 2007). From mid-80s the tourism product has been diversified towards more experiential and informative typologies. The common characteristics of these travel types (e.g. adventure tourism, cultural tourism) are that they are more enriching, engaging, adventuresome and informative than traditional mass tourism (Zeppel & Hall, 1992). Packaged mass tourism products are increasingly supplemented by alternative tourism destinations (Butler, 1989) and many established trendy and superior quality sunlust destinations of the past are suffering today. Hence experiential offerings are becoming main determinants of destinations' long-term success. (Ritzer, 2007; Pine & Gilmore 1999). Organized tours can also be framed as amalgam of services and activities (e.g. lodging, attractions) that create an overall experience of the area visited. The experiences created by destinations can be so powerful that travellers might create an emotional attachment to destinations (Hidalgo & Hernandez, 2001) and become loyal visitors. Therefore the value of package tour lies in the quality and quantity of the experiences it offers (MacCannell, 1989).

Positive Customer Behaviors

Loyalty and recommendation are critical since these customer behaviors directly affect customer acquisition, retention, marketing costs and financial performance. Loyalty and recommendation are also related. Loyal customers also create positive-word-of-mouth, however not all customers that create WOM are loyal. WOM communication process is consumers' sharing of information, opinions and experiences on specific brands, products and services (Litvin et al., 2008) which might well be negative.

One shared characteristic of WOM is that, it is an informal and interpersonal flow of information created by people without commercial interests (Carl, 2006). Therefore mass marketing and public relations communication from companies to consumers shall not be regarded as WOM (Litvin et al., 2008). Although consumers creating WOM do not have commercial interest the process itself has commercial outcomes. Non-traditional marketing tools (buzz, experiential, WOM) are becoming more effective than traditional ones (advertising, direct sales, public relations) (Litvin, Blose, Laird, 2004; Nusair, Bilgihan, Okumus, Cobanoglu, 2013). Recently many companies also started to create informal buzz to be shared among consumers, however those can hardly be considered as WOM since although informal to an extent, the source of the message is not independent (Litvin et al., 2008).

Some authors such as Westbrook (1987) discusses that positive and negative experiences and feelings (e.g., satisfaction, sadness) after the use or purchase of product creates and inner tension that is discharged in the form of communication with others. For example Gremler, Gwinner and Brown (2001) found that positive interactions with dental patients and bank customers increased the likelihood of customers to recommend. WOM creator is actually an active opinion leader, who is interested in a particular domain, is trusted by others on the subject matter and make an effort to expose his/her thoughts to others.

The importance of recommendation is ever increasing with the development and diffusion of internet among personal users. As Internet technology became more accessible electronic interactions among customers increased (Goldsmith, 2006). The resulting term eWOM (electronic world of mouth) became large scale and very influential. Tourism is perceived as a high risk consumption and travellers appreciate almost any advice from former travellers before they make the final purchase decision (Litvin et al., 2008). Recommendation from others is ranked as the most important source of information when making high-risk purchase decisions such as tourism related services (Litvin, Goldsmith, Pan, 2007).

The mediating variables affecting WOM include variables that are related to the originator and variables that



affect the listener (Litvin et al., 2008). This study analyses those variables which characterize the originator in order to define his/her personal characteristics and some situational factors which when combined that are likely to produce eWOM. Distinguishing customers who are more likely to create positive eWOM is an important data for organizations as they would be able to focus on those customers who would share their thoughts through electronic media and facilitate additional business. Therefore once identified the experience of these customers would be enhanced to facilitate the likelihood to share their experiences (Cetin & Istanbulu, 2013). eWOM unsurprisingly increases the likelihood of purchase intentions of the receiver but also reinforces the loyalty behaviors of existing customers (Gruen, Osmonbekov & Czaplewski, 2005). This would not only facilitate positive WOM but undermine impact of negative WOM.

Despite there seems to be a close relationship between tourist experience and recommendation, no previous study explored this correlation in a package tour setting. This study attempts to advance our knowledge of the package tour experiences and tourist recommendation behaviors.

In this study experience economy concepts (four realms of experience) which are extended by Oh et al. (2007) were modified and applied on package tourists. Heoung and Chu (2000) stated that tourists choose specific package tours by paying in bulk in advance and expect a quality experience during their consumption and interaction with service providers. Individual services that make up the package tour determine whether tourists feel satisfied or dissatisfied at the end of their trip (Xu. & Chan, 2010).

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

A questionnaire was developed based on a review of prior studies on tourist experiences. Pine and Gilmore’s (1999) experience economy concepts (escape, education, entertainment and aesthetics) were adopted to define experiential factors of a package tour. These four realms of experience were also used by Oh, Fiore and Jeoung (2007) in their study of BB hotel experiences. Field research was conducted based on intercept survey procedures. The first part of the questionnaire comprised package tour experience dimensions, the second part consisted of recommendation ratings and third part included demographic and tripographic information, the data was collected through a self-administrated questionnaire and administered on 120 respondents during their vacation. Otto and Rtiche (1996) also argue that the research on consumer experience should be recent as much as possible so that the customer memories would be fresh and not yet replaced by cognitive and functional benefits.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Profile of the Respondents

Our purpose for this study was to evaluate package tour experiences and its impact on recommendation. A total of 120 respondents were chosen at Sultanahmet Square in Istanbul. Among the 120 subjects in the study, 113 (%94) valid questionnaires were used during data analysis. First descriptive statistics were obtained and frequencies were extracted. 60.2 percent of the respondents were male. The majority of the respondents (41%) were between 21 and 30 years of age. 43.4 percent had a household income between 10.000 USD and US\$50.000 per year and 75.2 percent were university graduates. They were mainly from Europe (45%), Fareast (24%), and North America (17%). Concerning tripographic characteristics, 88% travelled with friends and family. 57% percent of respondents travelled one to three times last year. 40% of respondents spent three to four nights in Turkey, 35% spent more than seven nights. 56% of the respondents stayed in a four-star hotel.

The loadings of experiential factors of the package tours are listed table 1, entertainment and esthetics dimensions scored the highest concerning the four realms.

Table 1: Experiential Factors of Package Tours

Experiential Factors	Mean
<u>Education Factors</u>	3.79



Package tour experience has made me more knowledgeable	3.93
I learned a lot during the tour	3.92
The package tour stimulated my curiosity to learn new things	3.96
The package tour experience was highly educational to me	3.73
The package tour experience really enhanced my skills	3.44
<u>Esthetics Factors</u>	3.91
I felt a real sense of harmony during the tour	3.65
It was fun to meet and interact with others during the tour	3.88
Just being here was very pleasant during the tour	4.12
The attractions were pretty exciting during the tour	4.16
The settings were very attractive during the tour	4.01
The selection of sights, the hotels and restaurants really showed attention to detail	3.69
The settings provided pleasure to my senses	3.88
<u>Entertainment Factors</u>	3.93
Activities of others and the guides were amusing to attend	3.66
I really enjoyed watching the environment during the tour	4.20
The settings were fun to stare and watch during the tour	3.96
The physical settings was boring to watch during the tour	2.12
<u>Escapist Factors</u>	3.38
I felt I played a different character during the tour	2.98
I felt like I was living in a different time or place	3.45
The experience let me imagine being someone else	3.03
I completely escaped from reality during the tour	3.19
I totally forgot about my daily routine during the tour	3.72
Time flew by during the tour	3.92
<u>Memory</u>	4.20
I will have wonderful memories during the tour	4.19
I will remember many positive things during the tour	4.17
I won't forget my experience during the tour	4.26

*Correlation is significant at $p < 0.05$ level (two tailed); **correlation is significant at $p < 0.01$ level (two tailed).

In order to analyze individual experiential factors (independent variables) and their significant impacts on recommendation (dependent variable) regression analysis was utilized. The results of the stepwise regression model showed that the most effective variable is 'Provided pleasure to senses' ($\beta=0.29$); 'won't forget my experience' ($\beta=0.26$) and 'Will remember positive things' ($\beta=0.26$) are the three items that are able to explain 61% of the variance in recommendation behavior



Table 3: Results of regression explaining the impacts of independent variables on recommendation

Independent variables	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>T</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Constant	-0,22	0.36		-0.61	0.54
‘Won’t forget my experience’	0.25	0.90	0.26	2.75	0.007**
‘Provided pleasure to senses’	0.32	0.93	0.29	3.4	0.001**
‘Will remember positive things’	0.21	0.89	0.22	2.38	0.19*

Note: *B*, coefficient; *SE*, standard error; β , standardized coefficient; *t*, t-value; *Sig.*, significance. Dependent variable: recommendation; $R = 0.61$; $R^2 = 0.373$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.355$; Standard error = 0.637. Insignificant items were excluded in this table.

*Significant at $p < 0.05$ level; **significant at $p < 0.01$ level.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine how the package tour experiences affect tourist recommendation. After analysis of dataset based on 113 responses, the mean loadings of experiential items were identified. Data analysis further revealed that three variables have a linear impact on recommendation (‘Provided pleasure to senses’ ‘won’t forget my experience’ and ‘Will remember positive things’). This also implies the importance of itinerary; the package tour should include attractions that are enjoyable to tourists. It was also revealed by findings that attention to detail is a significant factor affecting tourist recommendation. Therefore tour organizers should not underestimate small details that create experiences, choice of hotels or menu offered by restaurants in a package tour are off great importance. Importance of using local restaurants and small details that reflect locality has been highlighted in other studies (Cetin & Bilgihan, 2015). Memorability of the package tour also affects recommendation. Experiences are considered unique events and perceptions at the destination that are remembered for a while and create a desire to be shared with others. Memorability of events and perceptions in consumption environment is a basic characteristic of customer experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Creating memorable experiences might trigger positive word of mouth for extended periods of time. To conclude this study strengthened the idea the hypothesis that package tour recommendation is related to the quality of experiences acquired during the trip at the destination.

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IMPACT OF REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT ON TOURISM OF REGION IN SLOVAKIA

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ABSTRACT

Slovakia is characterized by significant regional differences, so this issue gets to the forefront not only at policy level. This problem cannot be solved only by mobilizing local resources. The aim of this work is based on the available empirical data and secondary research outline view of regional identity and regional development. The objective is based on theoretical and practical knowledge recommend further development opportunities of the region, summarize all factors, that are active in the process of regional development, specifically the determining of regional marketing objectives, which can only be achieved by using marketing tools.

Key Words: Regional development, tourism, region, marketing communication

INTRODUCTION

Successful growth of each national economy in today's world is significantly affected by the degree of its participation in the development of the world economy. No economy cannot currently figure with no link to foreign trade, foreign economic or financial relations, or markets. This has an impact on the stabilization and development of territorial parts of the country, thus regions. It is certainly in the interest of every country, to degree of development of its regions reached high level. Social and economic stability of the domestic economy in same time requires to develop different territorial units proportionally, though in them, can dominate various sectors (various forms) of economic activity.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The issue of regional development at the country level in the globalization process is extremely important. Regional integration overcoming national borders, the state is absorbed into transnational group, but at the same



time creates a space for collective recovery some of his globalization repressed functions (Šikula, 2008). This concerns not only economic indicators. In this way we can talk about sociological and psychological influence of regionalization on residents. While the population of a particular region will not feel reflection the economic stability of the country in its neighbourhood, we can hardly talk about state social stability. We could also say that participation in positive trends of economic globalization, the population wants to feel in the immediate vicinity. The rise of the region's meaning enabled the development of a new scientific discipline, which generally we call regional science.

In the theoretical literature, it is possible to meet also with the concept of regionalization. In addition, it also appears another new term, namely social ecology (Jánošová, 2015). This term is used to name new scientific procedures, which examines the involvement of a person on reshape the landscape. In several fields has become apparent, that citizen must participate in projects in the region. This includes for example, architecture, urbanism, but also the economic development of the region. Interest in the development of the region is not entirely new. We cannot understand it as a response to the current globalization trends. Expressing spatial relationships through economical tools in some economical theories appeared in the late 18th century. So in the theory of territorial development appeared term disparity. We express by him an element of diversity specific area to another territorial unit. Specifics of individual regions we can be subdivided from various perspectives - economics, geographic, social, cultural and so on. We talk about multidisciplinary, which allows to allocate the region by a wide variety of viewpoints. From a natural point of view, may have the region other territory, than for example from agricultural point of view or industrial production. Short Dictionary of Slovak Language as codification guide defines the region as an area, county. Academic Dictionary of Foreign Words this term defines as geopolitically defined area, territory.

Also it stems from the view that the concept of regional development is very difficult to define (with regard to specific regions). In the process of globalization and European integration processes, the most urgent is the impact of transnational and cross-correlation of socio - economic processes in a particular territorial unit, which works rather on the basis of historical continuity, as based on the territorial - administrative division.

The regional dimension of these processes is clearly gaining prominence, both in national and supranational sector. It shows that the identification of problems, uncovering their causes and the search for possible solutions and effective ways of solving, must be descend below the level of official administrative - administrative (municipal) units of different levels. It allows to detect on the one hand, internal differentiation problem while on the other hand, since the problem does not control administrative division, enables the identification of the boundaries of territorial definition (Falt'an and Pašiak, 2004). For regional development is important also tourism. The World Travel Organisation (WTO) defines tourism as the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (Goledner and Richie, 2003).

For example for regional development of Trnava region is important also religion tourism, because this region is full of historical and religion monuments. Modern age and comfortable travel connections have prepared favourable conditions for a group of travellers willing to move a few thousand miles to religion actions. Currently, there are numerous tourist agencies all over the word, focusing on the specific destinations of pilgrimage or religious tourism (Svoboda, Šalgovičová, Polakovič, 2013).

2.1. Tourism in Slovakia

In recent decades, the tourism industry has significantly increased its contribution to global GDP and currently accounts 43 for 9% of the total GDP worldwide, although important differences exist between countries. Tourism is undoubtedly one of the fastest developing and most promising industries of the Slovak national economy. The position of Slovakia in the heart of Europe at the intersection of trade routes, its cultural and historical wealth and the favourable climatic conditions all create the potential for development of the tourism industry in our country. The tourism potential of Slovakia is vast, covering almost all key forms and types of tourism. According to the Regionalisation of Tourism in the Slovak Republic, northern Slovakia has features suited to mountain activities and winter hiking while southern Slovakia offers waterside holidays and the opportunity to take advantage of thermal waters. Throughout most of Slovakia there is a wealth of cultural, historical and natural attractions which may be utilised for tourism. In addition, a great deal of accommodation, catering and supplementary service capacity already exists in Slovakia. On the other hand, what is on offer does not match our possibilities and



potential. Slovakia's historic towns and numerous mountain ski resorts are its most popular tourist destinations. The demographic makeup of visitors shows that the Slovak Republic is a target country for middle class and less-demanding visitors for whom price is a critical factor. Slovakia's tourism industry has grown remarkably since the country became independent. The number of tourists has been growing steadily over the years, and there is also a higher number of overnight stays in the country. The number of tourists increased by 4.5 percent over 2005 to more than 3.5 million in 2006. The number of foreign tourists to Slovakia rose to 1,611,808, which is an increase of 6.4 percent year-on-year (Slovak investment and development agency, 2007).

2.2. Legislative understanding of term region

In order to accurately classify the term of region, it is necessary to refer to the legislative sources. The current territorial division of the Slovak Republic legally regulated by several legal rules of law:

- Act No. 221/1996 Coll. about territorial and administrative division of the Slovak Republic as amended, which provides basic division of the Slovak Republic into eight regions and 79 districts.
- Government Ordinance No. 258/1996 Coll., Issuing the list of municipalities and military districts forming individual districts, it means that the government regulation divides each cities and towns to specific districts.
- Act No. 302/2001 Coll. about self-government of higher territorial units (Act on Self-Governing Regions) as amended.
- Act No. 396/1990 Coll. on Municipalities, as amended.
- Act No. 515/2003 Coll. about the regional offices and district offices and on amendments to some legislation.
- Act No. 254/2007 about the abolition of regional offices and on amendments to Act No. 515/2003 Coll. about the regional offices and on amendments to the Act, as amended by finding the Constitutional Court of the Slovak Republic No. 263/2006.

Neither of these laws, however, specifically not define the term region, neither synonymous definition of territory. As the basic law, we can in this direction mark Act No. 503/2001 about regional development from 18th of October 2001, which defined in Section 2 (for the purposes of the Act) region as: geographically defined area, creation and implementation of regional and structural policy at the second level or third level according to the classification of statistical territorial units.

New rules of law cited definition considerably simplified, by Act No. 539/2008 about regional development, is the region considered: territorial unit defined by the classification of territorial units for statistics. Newly defined specification region adds a definition of the term agglomeration. Agglomeration is by this law explained as: continuous built-up urban area with peripheral zones not necessarily the urban character, which are associated with the centre.

In terms of research problems, was also important to define regional development: Regional development is the steady growth of economic potential and social potential of the region, what increasing its economic level, performance, competitiveness and living standards of the population. Region contributes to economic development and social development (Ovsenák , 2014).

Regional development can be viewed as economic and social growth potential of the region and its use for enhancing living standards of its citizens, contributing to social and economic development of the country. For this purpose it is usually developed system of support and guidance of regional development in territorial units - regions for their positive economic and social growth require special policy (Rajčák, 2001).

2.3. Disparities of region

Since each region is formed by certain set of elements and therefore, it may change the size and character, we need in relation to them talk about the process, so-called regionalization. Set of elements that define the region we speak regional disparities. Generally it is the sum of characters and process, which are different. The basic attributes (characteristics) of regional disparities is their occurrence, (territoriality), measurability and temporality. Regional disparities concern:

- physical geographic potential (mineral resources, climate, position, size, localization region)



- environment (air, waste, water, biodiversity, forests, land and soil)
- transport infrastructure (road, rail and air infrastructure, water transport and transport services)
- technical infrastructure (water supply, sewerage and wastewater treatment, energy supply, information and communication technologies and tourism infrastructure)

economic disparities:

- economic performance (performance, productivity, etc.).
- economic structure (branch structure, structure by ownership)
- human potential (economic capital of the population - the skills, qualifications, work experience, mobility and business capital of the population - the rate of entrepreneurial activity, length of business activity, number of employees, turnover, profit, etc.)

social disparities:

- Population
- Health Care
- Education
- Employment and unemployment
- Social protection
- Household economy
- Crime
- Culture

The indicated number of disparities not exhausts all the factors, which may be differentiated attributes of regional disparities. The individual factors can be structured, or combined (Michálek, 2013).

2.4. Regional identity as one of the starting points of regional marketing

Degree of citizen interconnection with region (a measure of solidarity) has a major impact through its participation in regional programs. Although this fact at first glance is fairly remote issue of marketing communications, closely related. In the exercise of public administration in the region, it became quickly apparent, that for large projects - especially in the fields of environment, urban planning, architecture - citizen must get space for participation in their early stages of these programmes. Otherwise, the project will be feel the will of local government authorities (Jánošová, 2015). At psychological analysis of consumer behavior it is necessary to take into account regional identity, which reflects long-term relationships created by the region's population. This identity creates historical-architectural and landscape-geographical components of the environment and socio-economic characteristics of the population. Therefore, regional identity is an important factor in creating a marketing strategy of the region. For the success of business plans in the region are necessary information. Every marketing decision requires accurate, timely and relevant information called Marketing information system (MIS) (Hasprová, 2007). It serves especially to analyzing and storing data from various sources. Includes for example marketing research, research agency and so on. It can be used with other information sources - external databases, outputs statistical offices. For the marketer, it is important that the region in which he wants to operate, to operated with good information's in spheres of geography, history, population, population, infrastructure, economic potential, regional disparities and some important aspects of the influence of the region on its inhabitants. Important role in drawing up regions marketing strategies, when examining regional disparities and research regional identity plays Slovak Archive of Social Data (SASD) (Mendelová and Zaušková, 2015). In terms of marketing communication it includes secondary data that has been used in other contexts, but can also be used for the further study of the market. When creating a communication mix we must also respond to, which parties have interest on the company marketing strategy. Every advertising campaign or other type of marketing communication follows different and specific goals, and, in particular there is a high level of dependency between the target audience and its ability to consume communicate information and decipher this information to the required extent depth. Another important factor is a type of advertising media that is employed (Nováková and Ovsenák, 2015).

It is also important to mention that the centre of the marketing strategy becomes a customer strategy, and therefore organizations must formulate its market supply and build relationships with customers and on a level, that



customers then bought products at prices that enable organizations to grow and maintain its profitability in the long term (Rajčák, 2001).

Interdependence of stakeholders is the condition for success. Each of stakeholder has its own expectations. Their non-fulfilment (even partly as a compromise) a business plan can ultimately undermine. Local government authorities in this case, although considered as secondary interested party, but in fulfilling the business plans must take into account their decision-making powers and representatives relationship of local government and residents of the territory.

Regional policy is in the broader sense particularly management activities of the state, also institutions of territorial scope, which aims at creating favourable conditions for a dynamic and versatile development of the regions with the maximum use of their geographic, human and economic potential (Rajčák, 2012).

Here we met with one of the major problems concerning the creation of regional marketing strategies.

METHODOLOGY

Recently, under the influence of new technological, political and economic changes in most developed countries gradually begin to draw attention to new factors, which may affect the competitiveness of regions (Matúš, Galera Matúšová, Findra, 2015).

Current challenges of regional development are based on the concept convergence, competitiveness, cohesion and dependency of economic development and regional dimension.

To achieve the objectives it was necessary to use several methods. Collection and processing of the data for the work was carried out in the period 2014 - 2015. Analysis of the development of Trnava Region and analysis of the tools of active policy in Trnava Region was established by method of personal interviews, personal investigations face to face, and through brainstorming with experts from the field of regional development. For the realization of market research was used a personal interview with people who deal with this topic, which is the subject of the research. Respondents' answers were recorded in a pre-prepared questionnaire. Marketing research was created based on the answers of 100 respondents, consisting of institutions and employees in positions that have an impact on regional development.

To the questionnaire were contacted the following institutions:

- Office of Labour, Social Affairs and Family in Trnava
- Municipal Office in Trnava
- District Office in Trnava
- HTU (higher territorial unit) Trnava

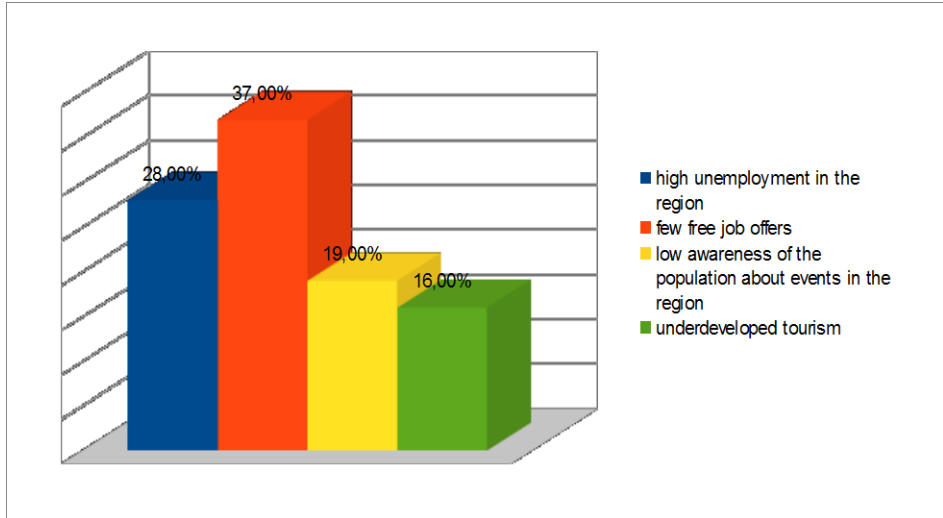
RESEARCH

What is the biggest problem of the region?

At this question was given space to the view of respondents and objective assessment of the problem. From the answers was created a list of problems in the region:

- a) high unemployment in the region - 28% of responses
- b) few free job offers - 37% of responses
- c) low awareness of the population about events in the region - 19% of responses
- d) underdeveloped tourism -16% response

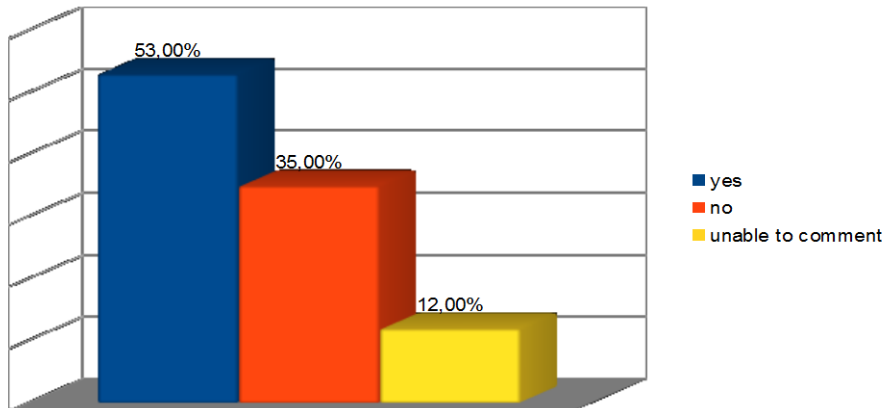
Chart 1. What is the biggest problem of the region?



Do you think that is from side of local government authorities operating in the region exerted sufficient activity concerning the regional development?

53% Of the respondents surveyed, tended to answer - yes agree that regional governments exerted sufficient activity to regional development, 35% of respondents had opposite opinion and 12% of respondents to the question were unable to answer.

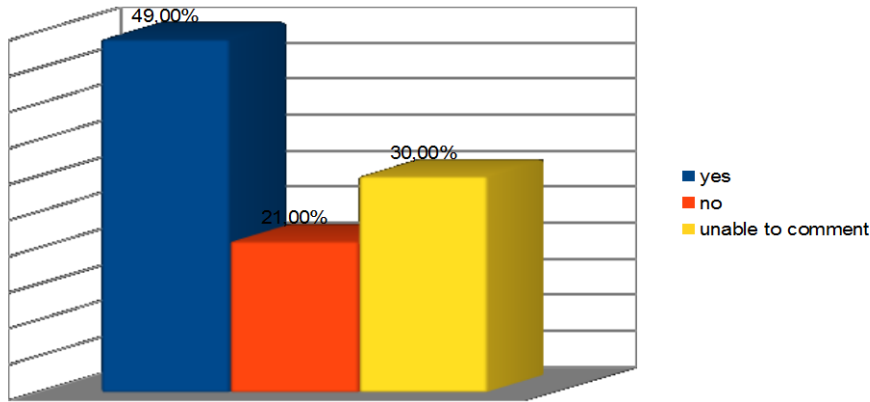
Chart 2. Do you think that is from side of local government authorities operating in the region exerted sufficient activity concerning the regional development?



Do you think, that in the region are applied all the marketing tools?

Of the 100 respondents surveyed 49% were positive to the referred question, 21% had opposite opinion and they think that they are not used all the tools of the marketing mix of the region, which would contribute to the development and 30% to this problem were unable to answer.

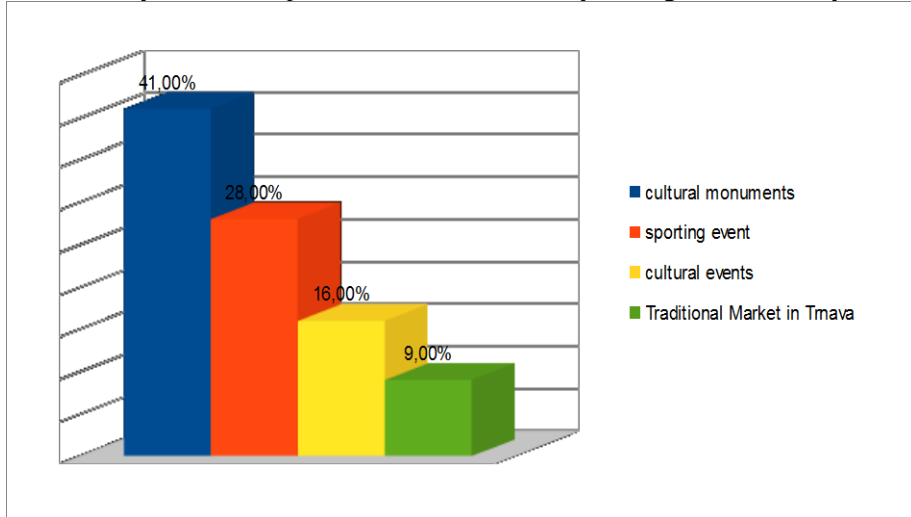
Chart 3. Do you think that in the region are applied all the marketing tools?



If you were to persuade tourists to visit your region, what do you attract them?

Out of 100 respondents was 41% to lure tourists to cultural monuments. 28% think that the tourist clientele attracted by sporting event, 16% believe the cultural events and 9% think that it will be the Traditional Market in Trnava.

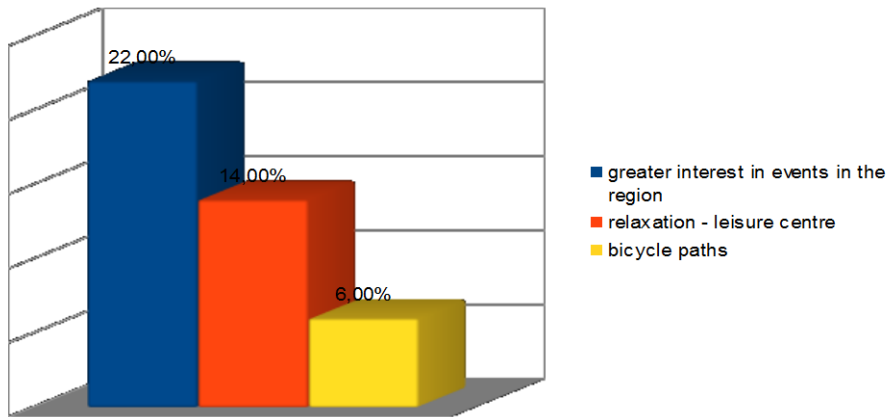
Chart 4. If you were to persuade tourists to visit your region, what do you attract them?



Do you have a personal goal you would like to do for the development of the region?

At this point was a great variety of answers. 22% of answers was - greater interest in events in the region, 14% reported relaxation - leisure centre. 6% opted for bicycle paths. Other answers vary and could not be created a similar percentage group.

Chart 5. Do you have a personal goal you would like to do for the development of the region?



4.1. Interpretation of research and recommendations

Within its own research were obtained all the information necessary for solving defined problem. The main aim was to obtain information and ideas relating to research problems. The research subject were selected institutions in Trnava Region, which directly through its activities contribute to regional development. The object of the research (final respondents) were workers in senior and middle management of these institutions. All the tools of the marketing mix of the region are applied. From the observed results it can be confirmed by the active use of marketing tools. Since that 49% of respondents opted for answer yes, thus confirming knowledge, that the region apply different marketing tools. 21% of respondents had the opposite opinion and relatively high percentage of respondents - 30% were unable to assess the problem.

The collected data were evaluated by computer technology and by appropriate software. The obtained data were collected in a transparent database. Part of the data evaluation was the detection of errors. That database of information was helpful in for the theory and the brings benefits for the practice. Research should examine the success of marketing communication of local government authorities in the region. Nevertheless, research has shown that local government authorities have in the marketing area a some little reserves.

Research has also suggested that the method of appointment of top management based on the recommendations of party central can create at senior and middle management a sense of social insecurity, which then affects the validity of respondents' answers, who may focus more in the answers what should respond, not on what they would like to answer. In order to keep institutional communication with the public under control, top management usually use the spokesperson or the press office. This can create a feeling that the staff at the first contact (and their management personnel) do not have information with long-term strategic importance.

In general, system of political nominee's appointment to the management bodies of local governments authorities raises the meaning of question about their qualifications to perform their duties. It is complicated problem and this phenomenon therefore cannot be examined through a common questionnaire.

The relative saturation of region, FDI (foreign direct investment) can be generated in the management of local government's authorities. To highlight the role of FDI in the region, in the theoretical part we tried to also point out the negative impact in the regard of creating a dual economy. The impact of FDI to the region should therefore be considered in the long term, what the management should know.

In relation to local government authorities, it would therefore be possible to formulate a recommendation about way of communication at the level of institutions, and about needs to supplement marketing communication plans of the institution and their knowledge at all managerial levels of local government authorities, not only in implementation but also the theoretical part.

The obtained knowledge can be formulated in relation to the further examination of the area, thus, the conclusions of the research team. Eliminating factor "want to hear" can be achieved through a number of control issues. In the research also revealed the need to specify more precisely the problem, for example by scaling.

CONCLUSIONS

This article does not attempt to find a universally valid criteria for the earmarking of territorial units. But certainly



this article wants to remind to marketing staff, that in the communication of region have effect numerous of factors, while part of it is connected just with terminology questions of regionalization. As well as research results show marketing activities in Trnava Region are on high level. This is confirmed by the fact that the absolute majority of respondents from institutions that have a significant influence on the development of the region believe, that the local government authorities spending sufficient funds for development. From this article is suggested, that marketing activities especially in terms of tourism, should focus on the promotion of cultural heritage, which is a significant represent in Trnava Region. Article also presents some suggestions for improving the region's attractiveness for tourists, such as build relaxation - leisure centre and bicycle paths. These proposals resulted from the research results, which were represented by respondents from key institutions and businesses in the Trnava Region. Another incentive for the creation of that text was the diversity of approaches to the specification of territorial units. However, in this regard still it needs to emphasize the fact that regional development is not just a marketing problem. To this process enters a range of other disciplines, therefore we are talking about interdisciplinary approach to region. We must realize that in addition to the socio - economic differences, are playing an increasingly more fundamental role in the cultural disparity surveyed regions.

In this article we have tried to show the need of comprehensive perception of some aspects of regional marketing especially those aspects that are characteristic of the economic and social affairs. We understand that the role of the creative worker in marketing is to build a good marketing plan. But for its implementation, which is a condition for success, effect a number of factors in these areas. When creating marketing plans is in the demarcation of the region often underestimated and also are underestimated a detailed examination of regional disparities. Although the regional government communicates with the public, is not a typical marketing communication. Regional government products includes decisions, and its customers includes residents and businesses in the region. Here, too, it is therefore necessary to make a typology of consumers.

We consider it particularly interesting phenomenon called social ecology, which deals with socio-psychological phenomena in society in the context of the restricted area. It was therefore necessary that we, in this context also opened the issue of corporate communication.

At the stage of transformation of the decisive role in developing the regions includes sufficient available funds and to region bring foreign direct investment. FDI does not brings only positive, so we tried to provide more comprehensive and complex information.

The article does not have a typical marketing, economic and social character. Our intention was to provide a broader view of issues that affect regional marketing.

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MARKETING COMMUNICATION OF SENIORS IN GOLF TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

The subject of seniors, pensioners and aging has been very often seen in recent years and has begun to create interest in the media. The demographic revolution and the aging of the population are perhaps the greatest challenge for marketers at the start of the 21st century. Thus far, not a lot of attention has been paid to this special segment, because sellers have assumed that this segment is not sufficiently attractive. However, lifespan and is continuously lengthening and with it the period of consumption. A change of values is becoming manifest to a large measure in the older generation.

Key Words: senior, golf tourism, new trends, communication

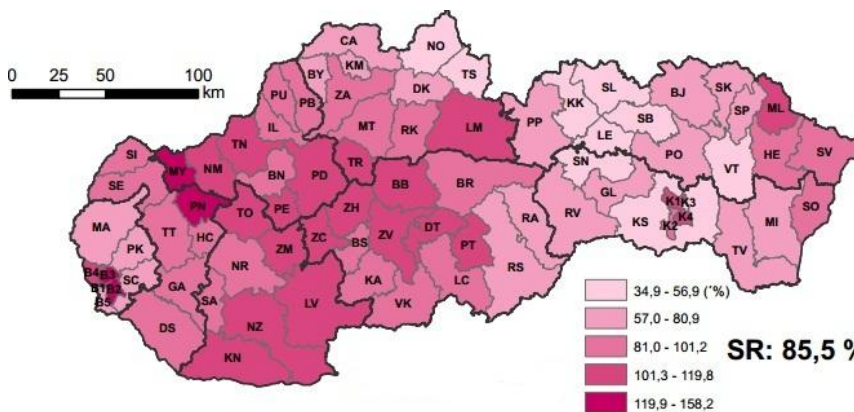
THE AGING OF POPULATION

Official Review of the United Nations from 2012 predicts an increase in world population. In July 2013 the world population amounted to 7.2 billion people (about 648 million more than in 2005). In 2050, the estimated number of people on earth is 9.6 billion. Globally, the number of people aged 60+ is to triple in 2100, the population aged 80+ is projected to increased sevenfold in the year 2100. If we compare the data from the past, in 1950 only 8% of the population was aged 60+, in 2011 it was 11%, in 2050 is expected up to 22%, what will expect 2 billion population of the world. In 2050 it is expected that only 52% of the population will be in working age, while in less developed countries, the percentage of people of working age will rise from the present 55% to 62%. (Aging Index, 2012)

Slovakia is a development similar to the global scale. While currently, on one inhabitant aged 65, are two residents under the age of 17 years, in 2050 this ratio will be reversed. In Figure 1 it can see the aging index in different districts of the SR, thereby confirming the aging population.

Picture 1

Ageing Index population in the districts of SR 2012

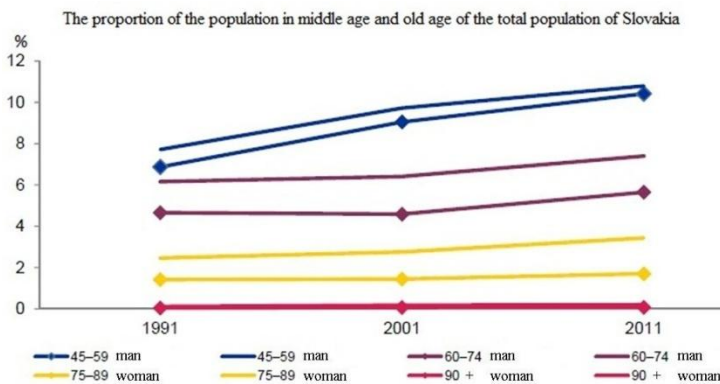


Just like for other markets, tourism is



not a homogeneous market but, nevertheless, it is a very diverse market. It takes into account different age groups: generation 50+, generation 60+ and older, or groups of persons who, due to their health status, set entirely different criteria when choosing their trips. The attitude of these customers towards information and booking accommodation is influenced by their age, physical fitness, income, family status, previous travel experience, interest in travel itself and loyalty to certain holiday sites. The period of life, and especially the consumer's life is still rising. For Slovak seniors it presents opportunities to travel, in the past they had travel restrictions and no possibilities of tourism former regime. This age segment consists about 18% of total population of Slovakia and it should be doubled in 2030. Share of population in middle age and old age increases every year, as we can see in Picture 2. The taste of travel, which represents the interest is also a trend that is unsustainable and will probably continue to increase. Economic development shows that the proportion of the population that spends holidays in domestic destinations, ensuring these areas several thousand jobs.

Picture 2: The proportion of the population in middle age and old age of the total population of Slovakia



Of course, the truth is that no two seniors are identical. Far too often older people are put into one basket. In marketing we can identify at least

two groups of older people. The first is “young old“ aged less than 70, who are fit, active, mobile and forward thinking. The second group is represented by so-called “old old“, who have already passed age 70. These people often live retired, are less mobile and are at home for most of the time. But, even within these, there are 20% of people who live by actively travelling or going on holidays.

The World Health Organization divides the period of ageing into three categories:

1. Early old age period (60-74 years)
2. True old age period (75-89 years)
3. Longevity period (90 years and above).

AGE AND BUYING BEHAVIOUR

The overall structure of expenditures of the silver generation in the Slovak Republic is mainly determined by its income level. The income level of elderly citizens in Slovakia is significantly lower when compared to income levels in older member states. This level directly influences the consumption of expenditures on food, housing and transportation and limits the expenditures on health and culture. The current development in wages and unemployment that specify limits for a generation of resources for future pensions, set the development trend that the elderly generation in Slovakia will not have sufficient space for the substantial performance of the economy. (Pauhofova & Palenik 2013)

The age structure of Slovakia is the expression of the previous population development and it is also one of its main future preconditions. One of the main issues for the future development of Slovak society is the process of population ageing. It is not just a matter of the past two decades, but it gradually progresses since the onset of the demographic revolution. However, during the past quarter, the dynamics of the population ageing is mainly the result of the sharp decrease of birth rate (ageing from the bottom) and a gradual life extension. The age structure plays a

very important role in the aging process and in particular the shift of large cohorts (from the 50s and 70s) to older



age. It is obvious that in the coming years, a dramatic increase in fertility cannot be expected, in addition to the declining birthrate is becoming more pronounced decrease in the number of women in reproductive age.

Substantially all population forecasts predict further increase in longevity which will highlight the aging process from the top. The shifts of numerous generations mentioned above will significantly contribute to it. Although, the process of migration is indeed important for the population growth, but the volume of net migration cannot significantly influence the ageing process. Population ageing will naturally take place at the regional level, where today we can see quite significant differences in the age structure. On the other hand, it should be noted that the ageing process will take place fairly dynamically in all regions in Slovakia. (Rybanský & Prajová, 2009)

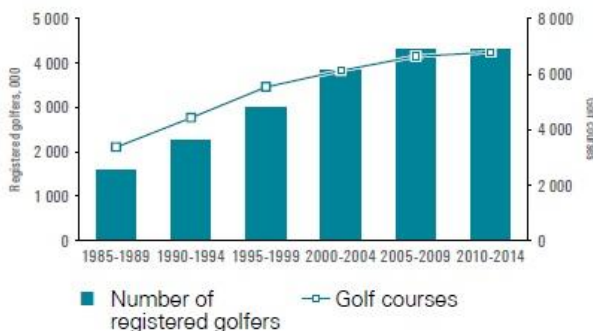
In the coming decades, the population ageing will be irreversible. It will not stop before 2060, and its intensity will crucially depend on the development of fertility. Taking into account the forecasting scenarios, the increase of mean age of population until 2060 can range from 7.7 years to 11.3 years. The intensive and irreversible population ageing is a serious challenge for society. This challenge will have a great impact on society which has to respond with sufficient time reserve. On the one hand, it is necessary to reduce the population ageing as much as possible on the other hand, it is necessary to adapt the functioning of the society to population ageing.

In Slovakia it is also a relatively new issue that has not been given due attention. In the past, the consumption of goods and services were influenced by regional customs, traditions and a narrow range of supply in the consumer market. The period after 1989 brought a reversal in supply and consumer awareness. A new wave of consumption patterns has been influencing the young and middle generations, which will be reflected in the future in the behaviour of older people.

FACTS OF EUROPEAN GOLF

During 2014 the number of registered golfers in Europe fell by 1,8% or by approximately 77,000 golfers. In over half of the European countries decreased in 2014. This includes key markets such as England, France, the Netherlands, Spain, Scotland, Ireland, Denmark, Norway, Finland, Iceland, Wales, Austria and Italy. The only country where it might be considered that golf is well established and which registered significant increases in 2014 were Belgium and Switzerland (+2,8% and +1,4%, respectively). Research by KPMG (2015) has shown the most of these increases can be attributed to newcomers to the game. Across the less developed golf markets, the biggest growth in demand in 2014 can be seen in Greece (+17,5%) and Poland (+8,2%). This amounted to 350 and 283 additional golfers respectively, reflecting the relatively small size of the golfing market in these countries compared to more mature markets. Average number of registered golfers and golf courses between 1985 and 2014 can be shown in the Picture 3.

Picture 3



Average number of registered golfers and golf courses between 1985 and 2014

The Czech Republic is considered to be Eastern Europe's most established golf market. Golf continued to grow even during the global economic crisis and the number of golfers has almost doubled since 2007. At the beginning of 2015 there were 56,438 registered golfers. In Slovak Republic was number of golfers at the beginning of 2013 there were 7644 registered golfers. Across Europe the golfing population continues to be dominated by male golfers, who in 2014 represented approximately 66% of all golfers (and increase from 63% in 2012). In 2014 female and junior golfers represented approximately 25% and 9% of all registered golfers respectively.



The Czech Republic and Poland are the largest markets in the emerging golf markets of Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) and although these markets are still experiencing growth this has decelerated significantly in recent years. As with all CEE markets there is a recognition that the problems faced in Western Europe, i.e. ageing golf population, less interest in the game, closures of golf facilities, need of the game to “renew” itself, are becoming also relevant in CEE and need to be addressed. The majority of golf courses and registered golfers in Europe are primarily concentrated in the most established golf markets. 85% of all registered golfers and 82% of all golf courses are located in the top ten golf markets. England has the highest number of golfers and courses in Europe, with 16% and 27% of European golf demand and supply respectively – followed by Germany where there are approximately 15% of all golfers and 11% of all courses in Europe.

On the maps below we present the relative maturity of European golf markets based on population per golf course, the proportion of the population who play golf, and the average number of golfers per golf course. Slovakia is in growing segment as we can see in the Picture 4 and Picture 5.

Picture 4

Golfers per golf course



Picture 5

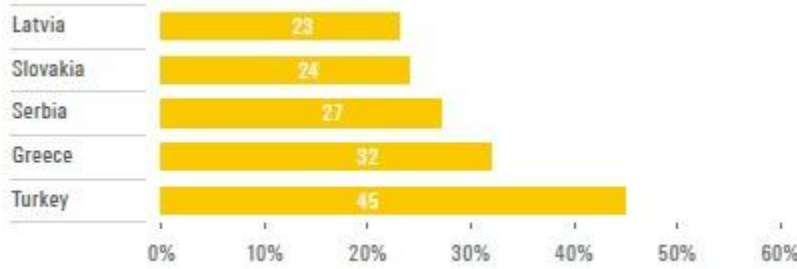
Population per golf course



As in previous years, it is in golf’s emerging markets that the highest proportion of junior golfers can be seen. In 2014 in Turkey, for example, 45% of all golfers are juniors. Greece, Serbia and Slovakia have also been relatively successful in attracting juniors to the sport, as we can see in the Picture 6. This we believe reflects the efforts made in such countries to concentrate on introducing juniors to the game.

Picture 6

Top five markets in terms of proportion of junior golfers (compared to all golfers in the country)



THE GROWTH OF GOLF & ECONOMY VALUE

Much of the cause of the downturn has been attributed to the global economic crisis; however there is an awareness that in addition to financial constraints there are aspects of the game which are players not well suited to the consumer of today. Limited personal free-time and the nature of the game, and the wide range of competing activities can make attracting newcomers difficult. As Europe comes out of economic recession, the real position of golf as a leisure pastime will become apparent. As in Picture 7, the number of regsitred golfers and their growth. The various initiatives that have been introduced to make golf attractive and appealing to a wider audience must continue and will hopefully bring more robust results. However whilst it is important that golf fully embraces new technology that, for example, can help to track performances and greater emphasis be put on the potential impact of social media, the core elements of golf that have endured over the years – companionship and competition (measured against oneself and others) in an outdoor environment – must further emphasised.

Picture 7

Registered golfers 2015

	Registered golfers	% Change from prev. year	Change in the number of golfers vs. prev. year	Participation rate	Golf courses	% Change from prev. year	Change in the number of golf courses vs. prev. year	Population per golf course
Slovakia	7,644	2.1%	154	0.14%	20	0.0%	0	270,542

In 2006, the golf industry generated EUR 19.6 billion of direct revenues in the European economy, driven primarily by three industry segments of activity: golf facility operations, real estate and tourism. : golf tourism in Europe earned a total of EUR 2.2 billion in direct revenue in 2006. 63% was accrued in Western Europe alone, even though this region has only 17.5% of the supply of Europe’s golf courses. Overall, golf tourism supports the employment of approximately 50,000 people throughout Europe. Golf accounts for 1–1.5% of all leisure trips in Europe, and our research suggests golf tourists spend an average of EUR 250 per day on a week-long golf holiday, only 26% of which is spent directly on golf (the rest on travel, accommodation, food, etc.).

COUNTRY OF ORIGIN AND SATISFACTION

The golf tourism market is highly competitive, with several Southern European and Mediterranean countries striving to attract this lucrative market. In this competitive environment, the objective of any tourist destination should be to make sure as many tourists as possible find their experience highly satisfying. However, even the most competitive destinations are unlikely to highly satisfy all tourists. In this case understanding the reasons behind differential levels of satisfaction can provide destination managers with a basis for taking action aiming at improving those areas that are found to be critical. (Ovsenák, 2015) One important characteristic of tourism products is that they are invariably consumed by tourists from a myriad of countries. The examination of the extent to which country of origin influences tourist behaviour, including tourist satisfaction, has received some attention in the tourism literature. The argument behind the study of how the country of origin influences the consumption of tourism products lies in the assumption that nations have distinct cultural characteristics that result in unique expectations (Kaufman-Scarborough, 2000). In general, these studies concluded that tourist satisfaction is influenced by the country of origin to some extent (e.g. Kozak, 2001; Yu & Goulden, 2006; Tsang & Ap, 2007). In contrast, other studies found no relationship between country of origin and satisfaction (e.g.



Spreng & Chiou, 2002). No studies were found addressing the relationship between country of origin and satisfaction in the context of golf tourism.

MARKETING COMMUNICATION

The older generation expresses in travelling an increased interest in services tailored specifically to their needs and in creative approach. Great emphasis is placed on comfort, convenience and awareness. Communication is a very important element in the area of the services provided, especially in addressing older customers. It is important to realize that communication is one of the biggest issues in marketing aimed at seniors. It is necessary to consider criteria of subjective perception and the decision-making process, which is unique for seniors. Older target groups search for communication or personal conversation a lot more intensely. They have a clearly defined need for the sufficiency of quality information and security and they place great emphasis on comfort and services. In addressing this target group it is important to communicate using the words comfort, claim, maturity, vitality or quality. (Magál, 2012)

A personal conversation is primarily important mainly in the first contact with representatives of tourism (reception, sales department of travel agencies), as well as during marketing communication in promoting individual services and destinations. It is assumed that, in the future, older consumers will be more experienced in using the Internet, more interested in comfort and also will be willing to pay for comfort and services. All consumers will then be more critical.

New trends are expected in the development of online communication: more targeted addressing of customers, greater promotion of the Internet as a communication channel and more precise personification are expected in marketing for 60+ groups. In communication with this target group, the following aspects are important: trustworthy behaviour, direct and clear communication, personal contact and value-oriented communication.

MEDIA-RELATED BEHAVIOUR AND SLOVAK SENIORS

A very interesting research in this area is one conducted by Petranová (2013), who revealed that the dominant medium in seniors' lives is definitely television, which they spend almost every day with. The second most popular medium is radio and the third is newspapers or magazines. Traditional media has great inertia in seniors' lives and they are very cautious when using the Internet. More than two thirds of seniors do not use the Internet, a part uses it rarely and only a small part actively and regularly. Modern technologies are represented in their lives mainly by mobile phones, used by three quarters of seniors. They use them for traditional communication purposes and, for example, mobile Internet is used only by a minimum group and to a minimum extent.

Regarding credibility, this research showed that Slovak seniors trust mainly information from radio, followed by newspaper and television, while the Internet is in the last place. Most of them think that reliable information comes from traditional media, while they did not know how to give an opinion on the Internet.

Nowadays, seniors are the fastest growing group among those learning to use social networks mainly in order to maintain social contacts. The Internet is important for them to preserve relations with family and friends. Online contact enables them to daily interact, which was not previously possible. New media technologies can become a safety rope for those people, whose health problems or life experience separated them from direct contact with people of their primary interest.

TOURISM MARKETING

The approaches in marketing of tourism services can be split into six crucial fields:

1. Consumer behaviour as the core of tourism marketing.
2. Market segmentation, targeting and positioning as the main axe of strategic tourism marketing.
3. Brand strategy and brand management with the practical use and consequence especially for the destination marketing.
4. Strategic marketing and marketing concept focused on marketing research, market orientation and marketing strategies.
5. Communication tools incl. the traditional a contemporary e-tools
6. Sustainable tourism marketing integrated the miscellaneous forms of relationship marketing, and societal



marketing with focus on the consumers and residents.

In the field of consumer behaviour further research is needed because of significant change in demand and consumption from new developing or emerging markets. The demographic, ecological, consumption and other trends have to be examined and projected in practical activities in the public and private sector. With respect to relationship marketing the tourists' motivation and "travel styles" has to be researched more in depth. Since the consumer satisfaction correlates with the profitability more research in the tourist's loyalty in terms of economic and non-economic factors is needed in the broader context of push and pull motivations factors. (Pavlů, 2012) Sometimes it is difficult to separate the tourism strategic marketing from the tourism management and policy issue, esp. in the case of destination marketing management. (Černá, 2014) The use of models of strategy maps, balanced scorecard, benchmarking or value chain analysis and other can be seen as a really issue for strategic tourism marketing. Generally, the sources and the application of strategic marketing (management) methods in the tourism marketing is relatively scarce. Further research is required in the strategic control and measurement system depending on the SMART goals and indicators how to evaluate them.

The research of the new decision process and its usage in tourism marketing become an urgent research issue. According to Reino (2011) the need of testing and introducing of the models from other disciplines and business settings is a necessity, e.g. theory of planned behaviour, theory acceptance model or unified theory of acceptance and use of technology. The new communication tools supported by ICT, namely mobile TV, mobile internet, web 2.0 and other should become the object of in-depth research from visitor's, resident's and providers' / intermediaries' point of view. (Palatková, 2012) Future strategic issues in tourism marketing can be seen in experiential, societal or relationship marketing with emphasis on sustainability. In theory and praxis the alternative forms of tourism marketing can be identified, primarily the societal, causal, environmental, green, quality of life and sustainable marketing concepts. The substantial impulses in tourism marketing come from other non-tourist sectors, esp. in the field of consumer behaviour or communication, thus the time lag between tourism and non-tourism marketing can be evident. During the last two decades the noticeable progress has been made esp. in the marketing of tourist destination in comparison to the tourism marketing in private sector.

RELEVANT TECHNOLOGY INNOVATIONS

1. Short to medium term:

- **Customised travel itinerary** - Personalised itineraries, allowing travellers to have more control over their travel experience. For example, enabling them to book a seat with more legroom for the long-haul part of their journey and a standard seat for short-haul transfers to save money. Or to pre-purchase reading material or in-flight entertainment that helps them experience their destination in advance of arriving.

- **Dynamic visualisation** - Using virtual reality and other high quality visual imagery to allow travellers to sample the travel experience. As comfort is a key issue to older travellers, they can also be provided with dynamic imagery of seats before booking so they can choose the location and size that is right for them.

2. Long relevant:

- **Digital memories management** - storage and indexing technology will allow them to recall/show what they did and experienced in the past, giving them the choice to repeat past experiences fully.

The main consequences resulting from this trend for the tourism industry may be outlined as follows:

1. increased demand for quality, comfort and safety
2. increased demand for convenient transportation
3. increased demand for relaxation leisure facilities offering activities such as golf, health services, etc.
4. greater demand in the low season



5. commercialization, when the focus should be less on age and more on comfort
6. population ageing and increasing concerns about health lead to an increased demand for wellness and spa services in tourism
7. increased interest in cultural tourism and programs designed specifically for older travellers.

Each age segment has its own specifics and just in tourism if they decide to travel, seniors have a strong need to get enough information. Older people who are already retired have more free time, and because of that they have thoroughly searched information. Before they decide to spend their holiday in a particular place, in detail informed about the site itself, transport, services provided and the surrounding area. They want to know everything exactly. For the need to obtain informations they use: studying similar brochures and video material, visiting information seminars and info line, where the candidate can ask their questions personally. Satisfaction with holidays can be achieved by a modular. For example hotel, located in a charming and peaceful country environment where there are also young and older clients, spacious comfortable rooms, friendly and specially trained personnel who can work with older people, programs and events focused on health and culture. Innovation of communications and adapt to customers of this age brings satisfaction to the client side and thus the economic benefits to the provider.

SUMMARY

It can be concluded that, in relation to the user profile and behavior, there are groups with a range of premium needs to be a common characteristic and that is the availability to all persons who are able to use and enjoy the products of tourist infrastructure and services. The demographic profile is important and crucial for creating products in tourism. These include variables such as gender and age, as well as lifestyle as determinants of these segments. If we focus on the elements of behavior, we can accurately detect impacts and introducing a strategy for increasing demand. The main reason for traveling is relaxing, in most cases they use their own vehicle (which also depends on the destination) and the length of accommodation is usually either 3-4 or 9-10 days. Accommodation options are many, but the most common and most popular types are hotels. Word-of-mouth is the most used tool for obtaining information about the destination. Regarding to the exist market opportunities and can be developed in the future, displacement of tourism is from the main season to off-season. If it will use the out of season in some areas of tourism and there is a possibility of alterna main attractions and programs, it may be used to increase yields in the future and thus infrastructures throughout the year. For this special segment are not needed niche markets, but markets with quality and constantly improving products and services related to accessibility. Enterprises in turism can increase their market potential and improve the image, they will continually improve the quality and competitiveness of their offer in tourism.

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LOCAL RESIDENTS' LEVEL OF TRUST, EMOTIONS, ATTACHMENT, AND SUPPORT FOR THE 2014 FIFA WORLD CUP, BRAZIL

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between the level of trust the local residents have to the relevant government and non-governmental bodies, residents' level of emotions and attachment with their level of support for the FIFA World Cup 2014 held in Brazil. For collecting the data for this study, a survey was carried out from a sample of residents (n=3786) located in 12 cities in Brazil that were involved in hosting the World Cup games. The results suggest that positive emotions, attachment, and trust have a significant positive relationship with their support for the event and negative emotions have a significant negative relationships with their support.

Key Words: FIFA World Cup, trust, emotions, attachment, and support

INTRODUCTION

The FIFA World Cup, a mega-sports-event was founded in 1930 for holding the international football competition. This is the largest international sport competition in the world contested by qualifying national teams. All 208 FIFA members from 6 confederations consisting of Africa, Asia, Oceania, Europe, North and Central America and Caribbean, and South America are eligible for entering the qualifying process. The number of teams that entered into qualification has increased from 13 teams in 1930, 32 in 1934, 56 in 1962, 109 in 1982, 174 in 1998, 204 in 2014. Total number of entrants for 2018 are 204. In terms of total number of places allocated for all 6 confederations increased from 16 in 1934 to 24 in 1982 and 32 in 1998 and is still at 32. The FIFA event organised in Brazil in 2014 was the 20th event and is held every four years. The first World Cup in 1930 was hosted by Uruguay followed by Italy in 1934 and 1990, France in 1938 and 1998, Brazil in 1950 and 2014, Switzerland in 1954, Sweden in 1958, Chile in 1962, England in 1966, Mexico in 1970 and 1986, Germany in 1974 and 2006, Argentina in 1978, Spain in 1982, United States in 1994, South Korea and Japan in 2002, and South Africa in 2010 (FIFA documents). The next FIFA tournaments in 2018 and 2022 will be held in Russia and Qatar respectively. Brazil tops the list as five times World Cup winner, followed by Germany and Italy (four times each), Argentina and Uruguay (two times each), England, France and Spain (one time each).

With advancement in transport and communications and the wide coverage of sports in the media with special channels such as ESPN, sport is getting increasingly popular and has drawn the attention of people of all age



groups. International sports events such as FIFA World Cup, Olympic Games, Super Bowl etc. draw special attention of people everywhere and are widely covered in the media e.g. newspaper, TV channels and social networking sites. In hosting such events, countries and cities from around the world are taking increasing interest as evidenced by the number of bids and the efforts they put in in winning the competition as it is perceived that such events help create a global image in making the destination more attractive for international tourists (Lee et al., 2005) and also contribute to social and cultural changes to the host destination/country (Gursoy et al., 2015; Pappas, 2014). For example, the host selection for 2018 FIFA World Cup began in January 2009 and nine countries had put their bids. Of these 9 bids, Mexico withdrew from proceedings, Indonesia's bid was rejected as their bid did not include a supporting letter from the Indonesian government, and three other countries including Australia and the United States withdrew their bids and finally ended up by having four bids from England, Russia, Netherlands/Belgium and Spain/Portugal - Russia won the bid for hosting the 2018 World Cup.

Organising such events involves commitment of considerable amount of human, financial, and technical resources (Jeong and Faulkner, 1996). Events of such magnitude are expected to produce significant long-term economic benefits in terms of growth in tourism and urban infrastructure development (Getz, 2008) although they can also cause price rise and significant inconvenience to the local community during the preparation stage (Lorde et al., 2011; Km et al., 2006). As in any tourism development projects, gaining community support in mega-sporting events can be instrumental in the successful completion of such events (Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004) which could be influenced by the local residents' emotions (Chen, 2012; Kumar, 1999), attachment (Boo et al., 2011; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006) and their level of trust (Andersen & Kumar, 2006) to the event organising body and the related government institutions. For example, emotions be it positive or negative play an important role in developing business relationships and also in mediating the interpersonal interaction sensitivities (Andersen & Kumar, 2006; Kumar, 1997).

When comes the question of nations and nationalism residents' emotions have an important role to play e.g. 'the FIFA Football World Cups provide frames for nation-related rituals in which, through mass media broadcasts, millions of people take part' (Ismer, 2011: 560). It has also been argued that 'positive emotions trigger upward spirals toward enhanced emotional well-being' (Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002: 172). Trust, on the other hand, involves a high level of confidence between various teams and associates (Das & Teng, 1998). Having trust among teams and partners would mean less requirement for unnecessary monitoring (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). It has also been noted that trust plays a crucial role in initiating the various relationships (Cova & Salle, 2000; Witkowski & Thibodeau, 1999) and is also associated with a high level of commitment in maintaining the relationship among various teams and partners as noted by Andersen and Kumar (2006). Trust is important not only between business partners but also between the member of public or the local residents and the event organising committee and related government institutions.

Residents' attachment can be explained in terms of the extent and pattern of social participation and affection toward the community along with deeper meaning of experiencing close, local relationships with people (Boo et al., 2011). It has also been noted that the residents' attachment to the community and their sensitivity towards environment plays an important role in shaping community attitudes towards a mega sporting event (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Community attitudes and support, however, may vary over time and identification of reasons for such variation can be useful for sport event planners and policy makers (Ritchie et al., 2009). There are also studies which have focused on community support for the event and their levels of awareness (Ritchie & Aitken, 1985, Ritchie & Lyons, 1990). The support for sport events can also be controversial as the governments have a tendency to impose extra tax to subsidise such events (Pennington-Gray & Holdnak, 2002). How media portrays the event also helps in cultivating residents' emotional attachment (Chien et al., 2011).

Past research reveals that there is a gap in research which examines the relationships between residents' emotions, attachment and trust with their support for issues such as hosting mega-events 'FIFA World Cup'. Therefore, this study investigates the level of trust the local residents have to the relevant government and non-governmental bodies and their level of emotions, attachment and support for organising such events particularly in the case of the FIFA World Cup held in Brazil in 2014. To achieve these objectives the study will examine the following research questions.

RQ1: What is the level of positive and negative emotions of the community the FIFA World Cup 2014 held in



Brazil?

RQ2: What is the level of community attachment and their support to the FIFA World Cup 2014 held in Brazil?

RQ3: What is the level of community trust to the government for hosting the event and the level of trust to the event organising committee

RQ4. Is there a relationship between community's emotions, attachments, and trust with their support for FIFA World Cup 2014?

METHOD

In investigating the above research questions, 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. 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. 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. The aim was to collect at least 250 usable responses from each city. The number of targeted usable responses was higher in cities with larger populations. 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 captured information on community attachment to the event, residents' positive and negative emotions toward the event, residents' perceptions of the trust to the government and the organising committee for organising 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 three items were used to measure local residents' perceptions of support for mega event, and five items were used to measure the level of trust to the government to organise the event and four items to measure their trust to the organising committee to organise the event. 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. The trust also was measured on a five-point Likert scale (with 1=do not trust them at all, 2 = do not trust them very much, 3=neutral, 4=trust them a little, 5=trust them completely). For analysing the data, statistical techniques such as descriptive / frequency analyses, regression analyses, and Cronbach alpha reliability were used.

RESULTS

The survey was participated by people over 16 years old - average age being 39.27 years. The majority (35.9%) of survey respondents were over 45 years in terms of their age followed by 25 to 34 years with 24.1% and 16 to 24 years with 21.3%. 39.2% of the respondents were single and 36.2% were married. Others were either living with partner or officially and unofficially separated or widower. In terms of ethnicity the majority of them were brown



(40.4%) followed by white (36.7%) and black (16.2%). Data analysis was carried out using various statistical techniques. 33.8% of the survey respondents indicated no interest in the World Cup, 40% indicated little interest and the remaining 26.2% indicated much interest. 53% of the respondents were female. 36% of the respondents rated the World Cup as poor/very poor and 34% of them rated good/ excellent and the remaining 30% were neutral.

Alpha reliability coefficients were computed for the key constructs of this study such as trust, positive and negative emotions, attachment and support for the World Cup. The Cronbach alpha figures were: trust government in organising event – 0.863, trust organising committee in organising the event – 0.867, residents' positive emotions towards the World Cup – 0.872, residents' negative emotions towards the World Cup – 0.788, residents' Attachment to the World Cup – 0.882, and residents' support for the World Cup – 0.802. According to Robinson et al. (1991), an alpha value of 0.80 or higher is considered as exemplary; values between 0.70 and 0.79 are considered as extensive; values between 0.60 and 0.69 as moderate, and values less than 0.60 as minimal. Based on these categories, strong evidence of reliability is noted in various constructs under study.

Responses to research questions are presented below:

RQ1: What is the level of positive and negative emotions of the community the FIFA World Cup 2014 held in Brazil?

Information on positive and negative emotions (see Table 1) were analysed using descriptive and frequency analyses. The results indicate that the men scores for the level of positive emotions ranged between 2.60 (2 = disagree) and 3.43 (3 = neutral, 4 = agree). In terms of frequencies, 63.1% agreed/strongly agreed that they were astonished and 56.8% of them agreed/strongly agreed that they were glad. Over 50% of them disagreed/strongly disagreed that they loved or fascinated or inspired or amazed. The study also found that mean scores for the level of negative emotions ranged between 2.57 and 3.42. Over 50% of the respondents agreed/strongly agreed that they were unfulfilled, sad, annoyed and discontented. However, 57.1% of them disagreed/strongly disagreed that they were aggravated.

(Table 1 about here)

RQ2: What is the level of community attachment and their support to the FIFA World Cup 2014 held in Brazil?

The outcome of descriptive and frequency analyses of the data on community attachment towards the FIFA World Cup 2014 and their support for the World Cup is presented in table 2. It is interesting to note that the community attachment for the FIFA World Cup 2014 was low with the mean scores of less than 3 (neutral). Frequency analysis for the three items for community attachment also indicated that less than 50% of the respondents agreed/strongly agreed in these items (e.g. this event meant a lot to me, I identified strongly with this event, I was very attached to this event). Despite their low level of attachment to this event, it was interesting to note that the community support for the event was slightly better with mean scores ranging between 3.24 and 3.42. In all the three items (e.g. I am glad that we hosted the World Cup, The idea of hosting the World Cup gave me national pride, and I supported Brazil hosting the World Cup), the level of agreement was over 57%.

(Table 2 about here)

RQ3: What is the level of community trust to the government for hosting the event and the level of trust to the event organising committee?

Descriptive and frequency analyses were used to analyse the data collected in measuring the community's trust to the government in organising the event and their trust to the organising committee to organise the event (See Table 3). The findings of the analyses suggest that the mean scores on the level of community's trust to both the government and the organising committee was low (less than 3). Over 60% of the respondents disagreed/strongly disagreed with the trust related statements such as 'Trusted the government to do what was right in the event development without you having constantly to check on them', 'Trusted the government to make the right decisions in the events development', 'Trusted the organising committee to do what was right in the event development without you having constantly to check on them', 'Trusted the organizing committee to make the right decisions in the events development' and so forth.

(Table 3 about here)

RQ4. Is there a relationship between community's emotions, attachments, and trust with their support for FIFA



World Cup 2014?

In investigating the relationship between community's attachment, their positive and negative emotions, and their trust (government and organising committee in organising the event) with their support for the World Cup, regression analysis was carried out using step-wise method. Support for the FIFA World Cup was used as dependent variable and other constructs (attachment, emotions and trust) were used as the independent variables. The relationship has been found to be highly significant ($F=724.23$, $p<0.001$). The results also suggest (see Table 4) that the 49.7% ($R^2 = 0.497$) of the variability in community's support for the FIFA World Cup 2014 in Brazil can be explained by the variability in community's attachment, emotions, trust (both for the government and organising committee). The findings also indicate that there is a positive association between attachment ($\beta = 0.360$, $p<0.001$), positive emotions ($\beta = 0.298$, $p<0.001$), trust government ($\beta = 0.102$, $p<0.001$), trust organising committee ($\beta = 0.063$, $p<0.001$) with their support for the World Cup and negative association between the community's negative emotions and their support for the World Cup ($\beta = -0.079$, $p<0.001$). In other words, community's attachment, their positive and negative emotions, their trust of the government and trust of the organising committee act as the significant predictors of community's support for the FIFA World Cup.

(Table 4 about here)

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the level of trust the local residents/community members had to the relevant government and non-governmental bodies (the organising committee) in organising the FIFA World Cup 2014 and their level of positive and negative emotions towards the World Cup, level of attachment and their level of support for organising the FIFA World Cup held in Brazil in 2014. The study also investigated the relationship between community's trust (government and the organising committee), their positive and negative emotions, their level of attachment with the support they had to the FIFA World Cup. Findings of this study are based on the data collected using a survey of community members / local residents in the 12 cities that were involved in hosting the World Cup games in Brazil.

The average scores for the level of local residents' support for the World Cup Games, their levels of positive and negative emotions, and their level of attachment were somewhere between 2.5 to 3.5 (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) indicating that the local residents were more or less neutral in terms of their emotions and support for the World Cup. The average scores for local residents' trust (1=do not trust them at all to 5=trust them completely) in the government and the organising committee were between 1.90 to 2.40 which suggests that there was not much trust from the local residents to the organising committee and the government. Further analysis was also carried out to investigate the relationship between residents' emotions (positive and negative), attachment, and trust with their support for the World Cup using multiple linear regression. The results suggest that positive emotions, attachment, and trust (both the government and the organising committee) have a significant positive relationship with their support for the event and negative emotions have a significant negative relationships with the support. The results also indicate that 49.7% of the variability in local residents' support for the World Cup can be explained by the variability in their level of trust, emotions and attachment. To get further insights into these relationships and determine whether different people in different cities and countries demonstrate different levels of emotions, attachment, trust and support for such events, and if so why this is the case, future studies could extend this study further in other sporting events such as the Rugby World Cup, Olympics or the ICC Cricket World Cup.

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Table 1

Community’s perceptions of positive and negative emotions towards FIFA 2014 World Cup

Items related to emotions	Mean (SD) [n]	% who agree and strongly agree (1)	% who disagree and strongly disagree (2)
Positive emotions towards the FIFA 2014 World Cup			
Astonished	3.43(1.58) [3767]	63.1%	32.5%
Glad	3.14(1.60) [3772]	56.8%	39.2%
Caring	2.79(1.61) [3756]	45.1%	48.7%
Loving	2.72(1.61) [3754]	42.1%	51.3%
Fascinated	2.67(1.59) [3751]	41.6%	53.5%
Inspired	2.67(1.60) [3740]	41.9%	52.6%
Amazed	2.60(1.58) [3770]	39.8%	55.3%
Negative emotions towards the FIFA 2014 World Cup			
Unfulfilled	3.42(1.63) [3776]	62.2%	34.7%
Afraid	3.37(1.60) [3769]	61.5%	34.5%
Sad	3.33(1.66) [3772]	60.1%	36.9%
Annoyed	3.29(1.64) [3769]	58.6%	38.1%
Discontented	3.23(1.60) [3769]	56%	39.2%
Aggravated	2.57(1.59) [3748]	36.7%	57.1%

1- Mean of five point scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3=neutral, 4= agree, 5=strongly agree. SD stands for Standard Deviation and ‘n’ stands for sample size

Combination of 4 and 5 on five-point scale

Combination of 1 and 2 on five-point scale



Table 2.

Community’s perceptions of attachment towards FIFA 2014 World Cup and support for FIFA 2014 World Cup

Items related to emotions	Mean (SD) [n]	% who agree and strongly agree (1)	% who disagree and strongly disagree (2)
Attachment towards the FIFA 2014 World Cup			
This event meant a lot to me	2.83(1.64) [3766]	47.2%	49.1%
I identified strongly with this event	2.74(1.64) [3767]	44.6%	52.0%
I was very attached to this event	2.63(1.63) [3768]	40.8%	55.7%
Support for the FIFA 2014 World Cup			
I am glad that we hosted the World Cup	3.42(1.58) [3765]	62.7%	32.6%
The idea of hosting the World Cup gave me national pride	3.36(1.60) [3764]	61.8%	34.9%
I supported Brazil hosting the World Cup	3.24(1.66) [3762]	57.4%	38.6%

1- Mean of five point scale: 1=strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3=neutral, 4= agree, 5=strongly agree. SD stands for Standard Deviation and ‘n’ stands for sample size

1 = Combination of 4 and 5 on five-point scale

2 = Combination of 1 and 2 on five-point scale



Table 3
Community’s perceptions of trust

Items related to trust	Mean (SD) [n]	% who trust them a little and trust them completely (1)	% who do not trust them at all and do not trust them very much (2)
Trusted government to organise the event			
The government to do what was right in the event development without you having constantly to check on them	2.32(1.36) [3710]	31.0%	66.1%
The government to make the right decisions in the events development?	2.23(1.34) [3706]	28.5%	68.6%
Do you believe the government made a serious effort to incorporate residents into event planning process?	2.07(1.29) [3701]	23.6%	73.2%
Event decisions made by the government?	2.04(1.29) [3720]	22.6%	73.3%
The government to look after the interests of the community in relation to this events development?	1.88(1.21) [3711]	18.1%	78.9%
Trusted organising committee to organise the event			
Organizing committee to do what was right in the event development without you having constantly to check on them?	2.35(1.36) [3616]	32.4%	64.4%
Organizing committee to make the right decisions in the events development?	2.28(1.34) [3614]	30.2%	66.2%
Event decisions made by organizing committee?	2.09(1.30) [3624]	24.7%	71.2%
Organizing committee to look after the interests of the community in relation to this events development?	1.93(1.23) [3605]	20.0%	77.0%

Mean of five point scale: 1=do not trust them at all, 2 = do not trust them very much, 3=neutral, 4=trust them a little, 5=trust them completely. SD stands for Standard Deviation and ‘n’ stands for sample size

1-Combination of 4 and 5 on five-point scale

2-Combination of 1 and 2 on five-point scale



Table 4

Relationship between Community's emotions, attachments, and trust with their support for FIFA World Cup 2014?

Constructs	(Beta values)
Attachment to the FIFA 2014 World Cup	0.360***
Positive emotions towards the FIFA 2014 World Cup	0.298***
Negative emotions towards the FIFA 2014 World Cup	-0.079***
Trust government in organising the event	0.102***
Trust organising committee in organising the event	0.063***
Multiple R	0.705
R ²	0.497
SE	0.9705
F	724.23***

Note: * stands for $p < 0.05$, ** stands for $p < 0.01$ and *** stands for $p < 0.001$.



HEALTH TOURISM AND POLICIES: BENCHMARKING WORLD'S AND TURKEY'S SITUATION

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ABSTRACT

There is no doubt that health is the one of the reason which directs people to the international tourism movement. Because of the little must their own country high-tech health care or there isn't any health care, some of the health services are much more expensive in their country etc. reasons, many people in the world visit different countries the purposes of treatment and relief to get more cheaper and better quality services. The number of tourists that visiting Turkey for health tourism which developing rapidly in the world is too much. Turkey has large and well-equipped hospitals which could race with European standards, health resources, the strategy of "Vision 2023", Project of Health Transformation and sustainable developments in tourism industry. Within these data, in this study, various aspects of health/wellness tourism were evaluated with STEEPYED Analysis in order to show the Turkey's image about health/wellness tourism. In this direction; in this study, health/wellness tourism that has become a new trend among the global tourism trends were examined. In addition, it has been studied that contribute to the literature about in terms of the sustainability of health tourism by examining/benchmarking health tourism policies in Turkey.

Key Words: Wellness Tourism, Policies, STEEPYED, World, Turkey



INTRODUCTION

Health tourism refers to travels for healthcare service in a region other than the residential address. The medical tourism or medical travels which grow fast and enable the people to get treatment services indicate travels to other countries for healthcare (Garcia Altes, 2005: 262). In addition to travels for health purposes, it also includes spa-wellness practices, medical practices, aging services and healthcare services for the handicapped.. One of the other factors and elements that make health tourism very popular is price competition in treatments that require medical attention (Aktepe, 2013: 171).

Health tourism is also called medical tourism (Ö zgül, 2014: 17). Medical tourism is defined as travels of the patients for medical operations to another country. This type of tourism is particularly popular for plastic surgery applications and practices. Travels for health purposes to the destinations which offer competitive price as well as advanced technology in treatment have become extremely popular in recent decade. The promotion of these packages online plays an important role; online marketing and promotion constitutes a major portion of the supply of healthcare services in Asian countries. Thanks to the major advances in the field of technology, health and tourism have now become two interrelated concepts (Connell, 2006: 1093, www.healism.com).

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the health tourism potential of Turkey through STEEPYED analysis and to identify the current state of affairs in health tourism sector, as well as opportunities and threats. In addition, Turkey's share of health tourism in the world is also identified. The study further makes suggestions for all the stakeholders in the health tourism sector for greater improvements and seeks to make a genuine contribution to the literature through a comparative analysis.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

1. Concept of Health Tourism and its Types

According to a definition by World Tourism Organization, health tourism refers to a visit by the traveler to a spa or other health destinations for improvement of physical wellness. To this end, physical therapy, diet control and other relevant health services are provided (WTO, 2016). Health tourism is defined as travel to another country to utilize health services. In addition, the travels by health service suppliers to another country for provision of healthcare services are also considered part of health tourism (Wikipedia-Encyclopedia, 2016). Ministry of Tourism defines health tourism as travels for the purpose of getting treatment. From this perspective, patients make contribution to tourism as well as to the development of health institutions (Turizm ve Kültür Bakanlığı, 2013).

In medical tourism, visitors do not just seek to get treatment, but also want to fulfill their conventional needs of having vacation (Mugomba and C. Danell, 2007: 9). Carrera and Bridges (2006: 54) define health tourism as travel from residential area to another place for

body health and treatment. Health tourism is a set of activities by individuals who travel to another destination for health and rehabilitation purposes that also include leisure, accommodation and entertainment. In other words, health tourism is a type of tourism performed by people who move from their residential areas to other destinations for health purposes (Ross, 2001: 7, Boz, 2004: 132 Edinsel and Adıgüzel, 2014: 173)

Gonzales and Brenzel (2001) classify health tourism services in three groups (Gülmez, 2012: 31):

- 1- Services for health improvements: spa, massage, herbal treatment etc.
- 2- Services for direct treatment: plastic surgery, heart surgery, eye surgery, cancer treatment, elective surgery etc
- 3- Rehabilitation services: healthcare for the elderly, addiction program etc.

Based on this classification, it is possible to argue that mid and high level income groups are able to use the health improvement services. In the services for treatment, healthy persons who are able to travel and individuals who bear minor health risk are usual participants. High level income groups and people who need special treatment may pay attention to rehabilitation services. It is possible to consider medical tourism, preferred by persons who would like to use advanced treatment methods for health service and thermal tourism that includes mineralized thermal waters, spas and physical treatment facilities as part of the health tourism (Sağlık Turizm El Kitabı 2012: 21, Ormond and Sothern, 2012:1, Lunt and Carrera, 2010: 29, Çetin et al. , 2014: 1176,1177).

2. Importance of Health Tourism in the World and Turkey

A number of people in the world travel as part of health tourism; the number of such visitors in this category is increasing. Health tourism is a concept that refers to a vacation for physical and mental betterment at the same time (Stolk, 2009: 21). The changing health paradigm urges the people to prefer health tourism over conventional tourism of sea, sand and sun (Karagülle, 2016).

On a global scale, it appears that some health tourism destinations have become more popular than others. Health tourism improves and presents itself as an alternative mode of tourism (www.healism.com). The most popular health tourism destinations include Singapore, India, Thailand, Malaysia and other Far East countries. The greatest advantage of India in health tourism is that it discovered potential in this field and offer high quality services at reasonable prices (Neelankantan, 2003:8).

Other major destinations include Turkey, the US, South Korea, Hungary, Israel, Brazil, Argentina, South Africa, Jordan, Cuba, Mexico, Germany, Italy, France, Poland, Spain, Austria, Belgium, Greece and United Arab Emirates (Türkiye Medikal Turizm Değerlendirme Raporu, 2013: 19, Çukurova Kalkınma Ajansı Sağlık Turizmi Kümelenme Çalışması, 2012: 11, Bülbül, 2015: 32).



It appears that India, Thailand, Costa Rica and Mexico enjoy greater advantage in attracting greater number of visitors for health tourism because of their reasonable prices. Thailand is able to attract a huge number of patients from Japan, Singapore, China and Bangladesh. Cuba is also a major player in medical tourism in Latin American market (Huff-Rousselle et al.,1995:10, Connell, 2006: 1095). Thailand is still a popular destination in medical tourism; Korea and Taiwan have also recently joined the market of health tourism (Lee and Lockyer, 2012:71).

Dubai built a health city to make sure that the Middle Eastern patients would not go to Asia for health tourism purposes. India is a special case with its special service group and competitive prices in the health tourism sector (İçöz 2009: 2275). In Singapore and Malaysia, on the other hand, hospitals prefer integrating with tourism enterprises to make enormous progress in the field of health tourism (Ai-Lien, 2005: 53, Chaynee, 2003: 17).

Turkey has made progress in the field of health tourism in the last decade and devised its policies in the field. To this end, it has the potential to have a greater share of health tourism in the world. There are a number of reasons for the movement of the health tourism towards Turkey. It is possible to analyze the reason for growing interest in destinations in Turkey in seven main categories (Sağlık Turizmi Değerlendirme Raporu, 2015, Aydın, et al., 2011: 13):

- Countries that host a large number of Turks: Germany, Netherlands, France
- Countries where health service is expensive: Britain, the US and Germany
- Countries which suffer from lack of infrastructure and medical opportunities: Libya, Iraq, Balkan countries and Central Asian countries
- Countries with long waiting lists: Britain, Canada and Netherlands
- Countries which have close ties with Turkey because of hosting a Turkish population: Bulgaria and Greece
- Countries with services not included in the scheme of repayment in insurance systems: France, Ireland, Britain and Germany.

Turkey has become a major destination thanks to its advantages in the field of health tourism; it is able to integrate health tourism with other types of tourism, hold joint tours, has a special geographical location and traditional tourism attractions. In addition, its history as well as natural beauties make Turkey a major destination (Sağlık Turizmi Durum Tespit Raporu, 2010: 30).

Compared to other countries in terms of health expenditure per capita, number of doctors and other healthcare staff, Turkey performs worse than the US and the EU countries. Turkey enjoys 60 pct of saving in the medical operation costs; a heart bypass surgery costs \$8,500-\$21,000 in Turkey whereas it costs 39-43,000 in Spain. Spine fusion surgery costs \$29,000 in



Germany and \$7,000 in Turkey. The total amount of revenue out of the health tourism activities is around \$2.5 billion. One of the policy goals for 2023 is to increase this amount to \$20-25 billion. Health tourism is one of the most lucrative sectors; the average income per person in the sector is around \$12,000 (TÜRSAB Sağlık Turizmi Raporu, 2014: 2).

Eye treatments are particularly popular in Turkey, preferred by the foreign visitors most, followed by orthopedy, cardiology, oncology, plastic surgery, brain surgery and dental treatment. Foreign visitors prefer private hospitals most. Germany is the country that sends greatest number of patients to Turkey. Countries with a large number of Turkish population also send patients to Turkey, including Netherlands, Austria, Russia, Iraq, Syria and other Middle East countries for treatment in cardiology and brain surgery (Topuz, 2012: 95). Turkey's measures and activities in the field of health and health tourism make contributions to the tourism sector. The growing popularity of Turkey in the field of health tourism can be attributed to its geographical location, cultural structure, economic advantages and the progress in the field of health.

3.1 Health Tourism Policies in Turkey

State Planning Organization (Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı-DPT) is responsible for plans, policies and incentives in the field of health tourism in Turkey. But to offer better and effective services for health tourism and tourists, it needs to work in coordination with the ministry of culture and ministry of health. Works done in this field are included in the development and investment plans by the State Planning Organization (Yalçın, 2006: 44). The Seventh Five-Year Development Plan by the DPT seeks to create new potential areas for improvements in seasonal and geographical distribution of health tourism and attempts to develop alternative tourism activities including thermal tourism, nature tourism etc. From this perspective, it appears that health tourism is included in the development plans in Turkey (DPT, Yedinci 5 Yıllık Kalkınma Planı 1996-2000, 1995,164).

The Eighth Five-Year Development plan, on the other hand, takes measures for the spread of tourism in areas that did not use the potential. To this end, the plan mentions about attention to the activities of thermal tourism, health tourism and ecological tourism in an attempt to consider the preferences of the diverse consumers in foreign markets for proper distribution (DPT, Sekizinci 5 Yıllık Kalkınma Planı 2001-2005, 2000,167-168).

The Ninth Five-Year Development Plan for the period between 2007 and 2013 stresses the competitiveness of Turkey in terms of pricing, service quality and geothermal sources, adding that health services and tourism should be supported (DPT, Dokuzuncu 5 Yıllık Kalkınma Planı 2007-2013, 2006, 81-82). Within the Tenth Plan, number of beds should be increased, proper measures should be taken to ensure that Turkey becomes one of the five most popular destinations in health tourism, make a revenue of \$5.6 billion and to treat 750,000 foreign patients in medical tourism (Edinsel and Adıgüzel, 2014: 176, 177).



The goals ministry of health is eager to attain for the period between 2010 and 2014 include improvement of tourism for the elderly and definition of a new model that would be presented to the world in this particular strand of tourism. This action plan seeks to raise awareness among the staff and improve the quality of existing services (Sağlık Bakanlığı, 2010-2014 Eylem Planı).

The ministry of health’s strategic action plan for the period between 2013 and 2017, on the other hand, seeks to sustain cooperation with other countries and international institutions, make Turkey a center of attraction and increase its capacity of offering transnational health services. The plan places particular emphasis upon promotion of health tourism as an integral part of the 2023 vision. To offer better and higher quality service in the field of health tourism, it is imperative to increase number of doctors and staff and to offer a better training for them (Türkiye Medikal Turizm Değerlendirme Raporu, 2013: 15, 16, Türkiye Turizm Stratejisi 2023, 2007: 35).

4. Analysis Of Turkey’s Health Tourism Potential Through STEEPYED Analysis

In the literature part of the research, the literature was reviewed to create a theoretical framework and studies on health tourism were analyzed. The study reveals that Turkey is an important player in the health tourism and relies on the STEEPYED analysis to analyze the situation and offer solutions. This method, also referred to as PEST or PESTLE which stands for political, economical, sociocultural, technological, legal and environmental, seeks to identify the peripheral factors upon an organization or a policy. In qualitative research methods, demographic, educational and ecological dimensions are also included. PESTLE analysis is a situation analysis method used to identify the threats and opportunities offered by these eight dimensions.

The PESTLE analysis in this study used responses through electronic mails or face-to-face interactions and conversations by health service staff, patients who are responsible for coordination of international patients, personnel from accredited hospitals, university hospitals, private hospitals, academics from medicine and firms active in health tourism. Most of the participants are located in Marmara region of Turkey; some of them live in Ankara and Erciyes. These destinations are picked and given greater importance because TÜRSAB Health Tourism report 2014 reveals that most of the private and public hospitals preferred for health tourism are located in this region. The participants were asked to pick A-very important, B-somehow important and C-not important. Table 1 presents the responses by the participants in terms of the importance they place upon the items in the analysis. Table 2, on the other hand, presents the responses by the participants in terms of opportunities and threats in health tourism.

Table 1: Significance of Key Concepts in STEEPYED Analysis for Participants

SOCIOCULTURAL	A	B	C	T	TECHNOLOGICAL	A	B	C	T
Change in family and lifestyle	4	7	4	15	Pace of change in technology	10	3	2	15



Greater education level and awareness	8	4	3	15	Impact of computer	10	4	1	15
Health conditions; tourists' health	13	2	-	15	Impact of communication and internet services	12	3	-	15
Higher life expectancy	8	5	2	15	Transportation facilities	13	2	-	15
Diversity in cultural values and raising staff awareness	12	3	-	15	Medical equipment	15	-	-	15
Food, transfer and consultation services for the international tourists and patients	9	5	1	15	Sufficiency of infrastructure (hotels, thermal enterprises, spa centers and hospitals)	12	2	1	15
Security of international tourists and visitors	14	1	-	15	Infrastructure and technology facilities for handicapped patients	12	2	1	15
Attitudes and values	7	8	-	15	EDUCATIONAL	A	B	C	T
ECONOMIC	A	B	C	T	Training sessions on the importance of health tourism	10	4	1	15
Invoicing activities	8	7	-	15	Information session for proper use of the natural resources in thermal tourism	6	5	4	15
Significance of usable income	7	8	-	15	Promotion of health tourism	9	4	2	15
Impact of currency rate fluctuations	8	5	2	15	Training for health staff and health tourism staff	8	5	2	15
Insurance processes (health insurance etc.)	10	5	-	15	Flexibility of the staff, doctors and nurses for foreign language	9	5	1	15
Amount of individual budget for health tourism/medical tourism activities	8	6	1	15	POLITICAL	A	B	C	T
Cooperation with international insurance companies and assistant firms	11	3	1	15	International image and prestige of the country	8	5	2	15
Impact of inflation	8	6	1	15	Importance of privatization	2	7	6	15
LEGAL	A	B	C	T	Health tourism strategies	8	7	-	15
Existing laws, statutes, directives etc	10	4	1	15	Importance of international relations	6	9	-	
Importance of investment incentives	8	5	2	15	Impact of tax policy	4	9	2	15
Projects planned for the future	6	6	3	15	Importance of political stability and legislation	5	10	-	15
Regulatory institutions	4	6	5	15	ECOLOGICAL	A	B	C	T
Compliance with international codes and medical ethics	9	2	4	15	Impact of health tourism activities and enterprises upon environment	6	6	3	15
Laws on employment	4	7	4	15	Importance of natural resources/thermal resources and	10	4	1	15



					wise management				
Importance of patient and visitor	1 0	5	-	1 5	Sustainability of health tourism energy resources	1 3	2	-	15
Regulations on tourism industry and health tourism	1 3	2	-	1 5	DEMOGRAPHIC	A	B	C	T
Conditions regulating competition environment	3	7	5	1 5	Increase in the participation of third age group individuals in tourism movements	4	9	2	15
Explanations: A: Very important B: Important C: Not important T: Total					Change in population size	5	6	4	15

Table 2: Analysis Of The Opportunities And Threats By Stakeholders In Health Tourism

In Turkey

SOCIO-CULTURAL	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
Service by health tourism and business enterprises in consideration of cultural orientation of customers Consideration of family life and life style in the restructuring of the health sector Whether or not Turkey is suitable for diaspora health tourism The high life expectancy represents success in health sector and makes health tourism very important Increase quality of health sector by offering service in line with cultural values Ensuring comfort and safety of international and national patients	Failure of services that are unable to attract support due to sociocultural reasons Negative image in terms of inability to ensure security of tourists Biases associated with the sociocultural perceptions of foreign visitors Negative impact of unpleasant experiences in health sector
TECHNOLOGICAL	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
Use of advertising through technology; offering innovative options for greater competitiveness Higher quality in service due to use of technology Offering services for the handicapped; use of technology in this field Medical equipment as a major asset that influences the quality and progress of health tourism	Any negative development can be disseminated in social media immediately, harming the image of the facilities Insufficient service without following latest technological developments Lack of experienced staff who can use technology effectively
ECONOMIC	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS



<p>Increasing potential of health tourism by offering reasonable prices for people who look for alternative treatment methods and who seek to have a decent vacation</p> <p>Offering alternative services by considering the budgets of the people for the health expenditures</p> <p>Insurance process is easy; people allocate large amount of budget for health needs</p> <p>New investments (spas, hospitals etc)</p> <p>Increase in the amount of foreign currency through health tourism</p> <p>Emergence of new employment opportunities through the progress of health and tourism sectors</p>	<p>It is not certain as to whether the new regulations will create burden that may not be compensated by the revenues</p> <p>Mistakes in pricing policies</p> <p>Lack of economic wealth for treatment; preference of other destinations</p> <p>Inflation, fluctuations in currency rates, defects in insurance processes</p> <p>Lack of intermediate institutions</p> <p>Lack of sufficient economic opportunities to offer quality health service</p>
EDUCATIONAL	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<p>Health tourism is a new field where the health staff can improve their skills; they may become highly qualified for the sector</p> <p>Health tourism may be made more popular through promotions for the persons who have no prior knowledge in this field</p> <p>Progress of health sector through better educational level</p> <p>Increasing customer satisfaction through educating the staff</p> <p>Size of the young labor and their education level</p>	<p>Lack of language skills of the staff; failure to make a proper promotion and introduction</p> <p>Lack of experienced personnel in this field</p> <p>Lack of orientation</p> <p>Health staff, particularly doctors may move to private health sector</p> <p>No opportunity to hire foreign doctors</p> <p>Lack of courses in universities on health tourism</p>
POLITICAL	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<p>Internationally positive policies contribute to the promotion of health tourism in the country</p> <p>Proper strategies for health services will increase likelihood of success in this field</p> <p>Political stability matters for uninterrupted provision of services</p> <p>Social and political influence</p>	<p>Failures due to wrong strategies</p> <p>Negative image of the destination</p> <p>Legal voids and legislative failures in health tourism</p> <p>Lack of coordination and lack of institutional structure</p> <p>Immigrations</p> <p>Lack of strong and full cooperation and coordination between state, NGOs and the health sector figures</p>
LEGAL	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<p>Attracting greater number of tourists by making the facilities more popular through reliance on investment incentives</p> <p>Smooth integration between existing laws, incentives and projects will contribute to the outcomes in health tourism</p> <p>Investment incentives for the health tourism</p> <p>New projects for health tourism and greater sustainability</p>	<p>Legal voids in health tourism sector</p> <p>Negative impact of the failures to implement legislations, projects and incentives upon the quality of services</p> <p>Public hospitals which do not make attempts towards accreditation</p> <p>Lack of legal arrangements, lack of a clear strategy</p> <p>Need for legal arrangements in case private health sector decides not to offer service in the field</p>
ECOLOGICAL	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<p>Natural resources do not generate cost; this is a major opportunity for the business</p> <p>Considering the ecological dimension in business</p>	<p>The sources can be depleted; this may negatively affect investments</p> <p>Possible harms to the environment</p>



activities increases the chance of success for all stakeholders Protection of natural resources and compliance with the ecological balance Abundance of natural resources, thermal resources Design by experts in the field in a manner to contribute to global ecology in terms of proper use of energy	Lack of plans in the construction of health facilities Damage by the health tourism facilities on ecological balance (waste etc) Improper use of resources and negative impacts upon environment
DEMOGRAPHIC	
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
Offering alternatives for different age groups is a determinant in picking health tourism Making investment based on demographic changes Size of the population of the elderly and their impact in the growth of health tourism	Negative impacts due to the failure to introduce regulations addressing the needs of people in different age groups Inability to respond to the changing demographic structures of other nations

REVIEW OF THE FINDINGS

In sociocultural dimensions, it can be argued that tourist security and safety and provision of services including food for the patients, transfer and others are important indicators for health tourism. Introductions and promotions can be made for the people who look for a vacation opportunities. This way, they will be given opportunity to have a vacation and a proper treatment at the same time. Greater participation can be ensured by offering services in line with cultural values and ensuring coordination between health and tourism sectors. Proper measures should also be taken to address the deficits based on the review of the visitors’ choice of place for living. Turkey’s appropriate location for health tourism is one of its greatest opportunities.

In technological dimension, computer, communication and internet, transportation etc are the most important factors for the medical services. Coordination between health and tourism sectors and integration of the technological and scientific improvements in these sectors will make the existing destinations more attractive and popular for the local and international visitors. Use of latest technology in health services will increase the service quality in Turkey. The European standards should be attained by reliance on the technological developments and advances to increase the quality of health tourism services in Turkey, given that Turkey holds membership talks with the EU.

In economic dimension, reducing the prices to a more reasonable setting will offer alternatives for the patients. This creates new employment opportunities and ensures flow of foreign currency in the country. The development of tourism sector and emergence of new employment opportunities depend on the dynamism and development of the health tourism. Promotion in domestic and international stages, cooperation with health insurance companies, construction of thermal infrastructures and addressing needs for transportation etc will



increase demand for health tourism.

In education dimension, it will be useful if the staff working in the field of health use the experience in health and tourism sectors for the awareness of the people; this will eventually contribute to the development of health tourism. The education of health personnel and state support in this field is particularly important for health tourism sector. Satisfaction of the customers may be improved and increased by offering more effective responses to the customer inquiries. This can be done by offering language training for the staff. Service quality can also be improved by offering proper training for the staff. The young labor is a great asset. Academics in medicine recommend inclusion of courses in the curricula of the universities focusing on the health tourism education.

In the political dimension, the policies on health tourism may be improved to attain the standards in Europe and in the world. The health tourism dimension can be added through the expansion of the scope of the health policies. Policies on the improvement of the facilities and health services in tourism areas, betterment of the accommodation services can be implemented. From this perspective, the pricing and service qualities should be reviewed within the political dimension.

In legal dimension, legislation on health tourism should be adopted; commissions for this purpose should be set up and promotion sessions should be held to introduce the health tourism services in Turkey to the world. The state of health tourism in Turkey should be promoted to the world through meetings, fairs, seminars and other similar events.

In ecological dimension, number of destinations offering health tourism should be increased. Turkey may become one of the leading countries in health tourism thanks to its natural resources, technological opportunities and current state of affairs. Leading cities in this sector can be supported more so that they will attract more visitors. Special incentive programs can be identified for the major spots and destinations. The absolute and comparative advantages of the cities can be taken into consideration in the development of these programs.

In demographic dimension, the needs and demands of the third age group individuals can be determined to make contributions. The sector can be promoted through health tourism firms working in the field of health tourism. Turkey is one of the countries that have a number of specialized units for children health and illnesses. From this perspective, Turkey may become a major spot and destination for people who look for remedies in terms of children illnesses.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study seeks to analyze the current situation of Turkey in health tourism and to offer solutions for policies for improving the potential in this field. To this end, the sociocultural, technological, economic, educational, political, legal, ecological and demographic dimensions of the health tourism have been analyzed through the views of the stakeholders in the sectors. Within this analysis, this section offers some conclusions and recommendations in light of the



findings.

Turkey has an inherent advantage of enjoying potential to converge thermal tourism and health tourism in different parts of the country. This is a great advantage for the patients and the investors at the same time. Turkey is situated along geo-thermal line; in addition, it has rich sources of thermal tourism. This makes Turkey one of the seven most important destinations in this category. Turkey has also a comparative advantage because of its reasonable pricing. Turkey is ranked 2nd in terms of having JCI-accredited hospitals; in addition, it makes advances in health technologies, has rich sources, enjoys tourism diversity (natural beauties, cultural richness etc); all these factors make Turkey a popular destinations for people who look for a vacation and treatment at the same time.

The current stock of doctors and healthcare staff in Turkey enables Turkey to offer a higher quality service in a more reasonable prices. To use this potential will make health institutions stronger and increase their financial capacity in offering better service in health tourism.

Turkey needs to develop institutional strategies for the identification of major problems in marketing of the health tourism. This should be done to attain the goal of hosting 2 million foreign visitors and to make Turkey one of the most important destinations in global tourism by 2023. Identification of proper policies in health tourism and coordinated efforts and works by all stakeholders is important for offering high quality service. The analysis in this study further concludes that the personal, private and public sector figures as well as doctors need to learn foreign languages for a better and more effective communication with the customers and patients. Language competence is a major asset in the sector. Private sector stands out in the number of accredited hospitals. From this perspective, the quality in public hospitals should be increased and accreditations should be secured.

Turkey has a lot of advantages in health tourism sector (natural sources, labor, geographical location etc). To better use these advantages and to improve its image, promotion and policies are important. The defects identified in the analysis in this study should be taken into consideration to ensure improvement and development of the sector. The study is meant to be illuminative in a number of respects.

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WHAT SCREAMS ARE MADE OF: SELLING EMOTIONS WITH TOURIST PROMOTIONAL RACK CARDS

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ABSTRACT

The growing fright tourism sector allows customers to enjoy frightful experiences within the context of horror, mystery, and the supernatural. Attractions such as haunted houses and ghost tours are experiences with a highly emotional component. Salem, USA was the site of the horrific witch trials of 1692, and has since become a popular dark tourism destination. As such, it provides the right mix of attractions to be the research location for an exploratory study on what emotions businesses intend patrons to experience at their attractions, and how they communicate those emotions through promotional material.

INTRODUCTION

In an ‘experience’ industry (Pine and Gilmore, 1999), emotions, particularly in the context of valence and arousal, are an important component of the tourism experience, and are the catalyst for action and reaction (Jantzen, 2013).

Emotions can be defined inclusively as a “complex set of interactions among subjective and objective factors, mediated by neural/hormonal systems, which can give rise to affective experience such as feelings of pleasure and arousal” (Bigne and Andreu, 2004:683). The experience takes place in one’s mind, and no two people will have the same experience, or experience the same emotions; hence the subjective nature of tourism. The value of the purchase of a tourism experience is ultimately determined by the consumer, based at least in part on the emotions and feelings generated during consumption of the experience. Therefore, communicating to potential customers what they may experience at an attraction can be beneficial to a customer when selecting an attraction to patronize, from several choices.

How then, does one sell emotions? Promotional brochures and rack cards are used in the tourism industry to communicate with existing or potential tourists (Molina and Estaban, 2006), and are a standard communication tool within the hospitality and tourism industry, even with increased usage of electronic media advertising (Andereck, 2005). Most research surrounding tourist brochures has been under the gaze of destination image and choice, and emotion in advertising is well documented as contributing to stimulating buying interest, influencing future buying choices, and intensifying wants, desires, and motivations. However,



Morris argues that most marketing communications research focuses on “behaviour rather than the emotional state that created it” (2012:85). A search of the literature reveals limited information on the sale of emotions within an experience industry, and no previous studies address an industry in which consumers pay to feel the emotion of fear.

Dark tourism engages tourists with sites of, or related to, death, disaster, and the macabre and is increasing in global popularity (Lennon and Foley, 2000). As a subset of dark tourism, attractions that allow tourists to satisfy their interest in frightful experiences, based on either historical or fictional ‘dark’ events are referred to as “fright tourism, since they may seek a thrill of shock from the experience” (Bristow & Newman, 2004: 215). Attractions in this industry employ a variety of mechanisms to provide emotional experiences such as fright, horror, thrill and excitement. They may utilize actors, high-tech and elaborate animatronics, lighting, sound, odors, and other effects to heighten the experience, and all employ hints of mystery, supernatural, or actual horrific events to invoke varying levels of fear or mysterious contemplations, which in turn produces the desired emotional effects. The variety of attractions represented extends from an ‘extreme’ haunted house, where patrons are touched and have things thrown or dumped on them; to a ghost tour, which is typically an historical walking tour that contemplates a ‘haunted’ history. While this niche of tourism is underrepresented in the academic literature, it is an estimated USD 6 billion industry worldwide (HAA, 2014).

METHOD

This article represents an exploratory, qualitative phase of a larger mixed methods project, which investigates intended and generated affective responses through promotional materials of entertainment-centric dark tourism attractions, with Salem, Massachusetts USA as the research location. The site of the infamous witch trials of 1692, Salem has become a popular dark tourism destination. During the trials, 150 people were accused of, and twenty executed for, practicing witchcraft. Today, tourism operators in Salem offer haunted houses, ghost tours, horror museums and interactive witch trial theatre experiences. This phase employed semi-structured interviews (N=7) undertaken with owners of the aforementioned categories of attractions, and explored the emotions owners want visitors to experience at their attraction, and how they used language and images to invoke them via their brochures or rack cards. Preliminary themes and findings are identified and explored.

FINDINGS

Overall it was found that these businesses wanted fun and fear to be the most significant



desired emotions, and that their selection of words and images was directed by a desire to appeal to as wide of an audience as possible. A variety of other emotions, including shock, nostalgia, and satisfaction were also desired. In general, stock imagery of horror, ghosts, mysterious environments, and photographs of audiences participating in the experience were used to convey emotional qualities, such as fear, ‘spine-tingling’, and fun. Additionally, select words, such as ‘macabre’, ‘dark’, ‘murder’ and ‘witchcraft’ were used in conjunction with images to invoke the desired emotions. Other desired ‘feelings’, such as that of quality, education, or satisfaction, were frequently communicated through language and thick description, i.e. “knowledgeable and charismatic guides”. While the design of the brochure is intended to showcase the attraction, they did not create the brochures to specifically communicate emotions, and emotions themselves proved to be an ambiguous topic. Many respondents found it easier to discuss the ‘experience’ their attraction offered the guest over specific emotional qualities, and communicating those emotional messages was achieved through a variety of means, as participants defined fear, and what they thought their clientele wanted, differently.

These differences introduce another finding that emerges from this research—how to define ‘scary’. Based on practitioners’ experiences of the industry, the current academic literature is insufficient to describe a disjunction between how something can be described or presented as ‘scary’, yet will perhaps never be as scary to another person as his or her own personal imagery. Emotional memory influences how words and images are perceived, and given this, it is difficult to know how the promotional materials will be received and interpreted by audiences, without some sort of specific market research. In general, the brochure creators in this study went with what they personally found to be scary, married it with the experience they envision their attraction comprises, and hoped it would be effective. For example, a haunted house might use more stock horror imagery in order to capitalize on consumers’ ‘expected’ images.

All respondents indicated they did not use depictions of blood or gore because they felt ‘gore is not necessary for fear’, despite the number of gory horror films that are currently popular, which rallies some salient points. Firstly, that although people want immersive experiences, they want to separate what their brain processes and enjoys on a screen from an experience that involves the entire body. Secondly, that gory horror films attract a very particular niche audience, and while those customers will patronize these attractions, owners do not expect or want them to be the majority of attendees. Most respondents indicated they wanted as wide a market as possible, and, as one practitioner put it “if we gear the flyer just towards teenagers and put a big bloody head and a chain and hook on it, the kids that are 18-21 are saying ‘yeah, this is gonna rock!’, well, they don’t have any money”. Thus, respondents described their



influences in brochure design and creation as themes like ‘1970’s grindhouse-style horror movies’ and ‘1950’s carnival freak show’.

CONCLUSION

This research revealed that a variety of emotions are desired to be generated at the fright tourism attractions in this study, with fear and fun being the most important. Although recognizing that emotions are an ingredient in the whole of an ‘experience’ (Jantzen, 2013) that a tourist attraction offers, emotions turned out to be ambiguous to define. Most respondents found it easier to discuss everything they want participants to feel, including those feelings that may not actually fall under an umbrella term of emotion, such as ‘quality’, ‘nostalgia’, and ‘satisfaction’. Communicating these feelings on the promotional materials was generally achieved by using images to invoke emotions—namely fear or ‘spine-tingling’, and language to convey other messages, such as educational attributes or the feeling of ‘quality’. However, there exists a gap in the research that fails to address a phenomenon that emerges from this research—that of how to define ‘scary’. The definition of ‘scary’ was found to be very personal, and given this, difficult to communicate. Thus, communication of elements that are deemed ‘scary’ was customarily culled from stock imagery of horror, mysterious, and ‘spooky’ images. This research contributes to the literature in two ways. First, it provides initial empirical data about emotions in the fright tourism industry, and secondly, it provides an additional avenue of research inquiry into the creation and usefulness of tourist promotional brochures.

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WHEN HERITAGE MEETS MARATHON

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ABSTRACT

This study attempted to explore how a World Heritage site may interact with mass participation marathon events. Feedback and comments of marathon runners (N=530) participated in “World Heritage Himeji Castle Marathon” and “Mt. Fuji Marathon” were content analyzed to investigate: (1) The image presence of World Heritage among marathon runners; (2) How is a value proposition that bundles heritage and marathon experiences accepted by the runners. The findings showed that despite the featured World Heritage appeared to be the key element in designing the value proposition, operational elements and social interaction also played a vital role in the value co-creation process.

Key Words: World heritage, marathon, sport tourism, Japan, social interaction

INTRODUCTION

Heritage tourism is among the oldest forms of travel. Since the Egyptian and Roman era, people have travelled to admire places of historic importance (Timothy and Boyd, 2006). After centuries of development, heritage tourism is widely leveraged by places nowadays to attain objectives ranging from local development to sustainable utilization of nature and cultural heritage (Ashworth, 2000).

In contrast to the long history of heritage tourism, sport tourism is a relatively new phenomenon and has only become the focus of mass media and academic research since the recent decade (Weed, 2009). Sport tourists travel to participate in or experience sport as active participants (cycling, running, etc.) or passive spectators (FIFA World Cup, Olympics, etc.). Extant literature has investigated the impacts of sport events (Waitt, 2003), sport tourists' experience and behaviors (Smith and Stewart, 2007), as well as the role of sport tourism in developing destination image (Lepp and Gibson, 2011).

As complex a phenomenon as tourism is, it is not unusual to see crossover between various forms of tourism. Researchers have investigated the relationship between heritage tourism and shopping. While extant research suggested that heritage and shopping make a symbiotic and complementary relationship, the understanding of how heritage interacts with other forms of tourism, such as sports, is rather limited (Timothy and Boyd, 2006).

From the perspective of a heritage tourism destination, staging sport events may bring in



additional source of tourists and revenue. On one hand, sport event could be used as a place marketing instrument to strengthen the place image. On the other hand, the sport event may leverage the heritage assets of the hosting destination to differentiate itself from similar events (Aaker, 2004). It is expected that a heritage tourism destination could benefit from hosting sport events; however, what kind of coordinated collaboration between heritage and sport is required to make it happen? From this enquiry emerges the purpose of this study: to advance the understanding of how heritage tourism resources may interact with sport tourism products, with a specific focus on the relationship between World Heritage site and mass participation marathon events.

Using a content analysis approach (Franzosi, 2008), the study focused on runners participated in marathons featuring, respectively, the World Heritage Site of Himeji Castle and Mt. Fuji in Japan. Feedback and comments of marathon runners (N=530) participated in “World Heritage Himeji Castle Marathon” and “Mt. Fuji Marathon” were content analyzed to investigate: (1) The image presence of World Heritage among marathon runners; (2) How is a value proposition that bundles heritage and marathon experiences accepted by the runners.

The result is expected to contribute to a better understanding of how heritage tourism interacts with sport tourism. Moreover, by using a content analysis approach, the study responds to the call by Smith and Weed (2007), for exploiting the potential of narrative research. Finally, the study provides evidence-based insights for event organizers and local tourism stakeholders in developing sport/heritage tourism products and strategies.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research aims to answer the following two research questions (RQ):

RQ 1: What is the image presence of World Heritage among runners participated in marathons featuring a World Heritage site?

RQ 2: How is a value proposition that bundles heritage and marathon experiences accepted by the runners?

The geographical location of this research was set in Japan, where a running boom has been taking shape since the first edition of Tokyo Marathon was launched in 2007. Observing the huge success of Tokyo Marathon, cities and places across Japan followed suit, and the number of running event (including marathons, half marathons, and road races) has grown from less than 1,000 in 2007 to nearly 2,000 in 2014. Therefore, Japan provides a rich pool of potential research targets.

Guided by the research question, the criteria for choosing the research targets can be simply boiled down to two keywords: Marathon and World Heritage. In other words, it has to be a marathon (42.195km) whose main feature is World Heritage. Half marathons and road races (usually shorter than 10km) are excluded on the basis of comparability with extant literature. Marathons featuring just some heritage elements are also excluded.



After a preliminary screening of all 19 World Heritage sites in Japan, 4 candidates were identified: Kyoto, Nara, Mt. Fuji, and Himeji Castle. Kyoto and Nara are world-renowned tourism destinations and have started staging city marathons in 2012 and 2010, respectively. Though it's fair to say at least some participants are attracted by the many heritage sites in Kyoto and Nara, it's hard to say their marathons have World Heritage site as the main appeal. In contrast, Himeji Castle is the most celebrated attraction in Himeji. The race organizer actively promoted the marathon using the castle's World Heritage designation, and even stressed the status of "World Heritage" by incorporating it into the title of the marathon. Similarly, Mt. Fuji enjoys worldwide reputation and has been the symbol of Japan. "Run alongside Mt. Fuji, Japan's most beautiful sacred mountain and a World Heritage site", was the pitch stated on the race website. Given a good weather condition, runners can have a good view of Mt. Fuji in around two-thirds of the course. Consequently, marathons held in Mt. Fuji (Mt. Fuji Marathon) and Himeji (World Heritage Himeji Castle Marathon) were chosen as the research subjects.

Data collection

The feedback of runners participated in Mt. Fuji Marathon 2013 (hereafter referred to as Mt. Fuji Marathon) and World Heritage Himeji Castle Marathon 2015 (hereafter referred to as Himeji Castle Marathon) was collected in August 2015 from RUNNET, the largest marathon races information provider in Japan. The website of RUNNET functions as a portal for runners to search and register for marathons, as well as rate and comment on marathons they have participated. To rate and comment on any marathons, one has to be a registered user of RUNNET. Moreover, a checking mechanism is in place to ensure if the user really participated in the marathon he or she intends to comment on. A complete feedback is composed of numerical rating (maximum 100 points) and free texts (maximum 500 words in Japanese) regarding how he or she thinks of the marathon. Regarding the feedback of Mt. Fuji Marathon, data for 2013 was used instead of the latest available data because bad weather condition on the 2014 race day may have biased the runners' feedback.

Table 1 summarizes the runners' feedback. Most feedback was left within 2 weeks since the marathon took place (Mt. Fuji Marathon: 79%; Himeji Castle Marathon: 95%). Sample size reflects the number of runners who left their feedback for the marathon. Numerical ratings represent a measurement of runner's satisfaction. Narrative comments illustrate how runners evaluated their experiences in running the marathon. A typical comment may contain positive and negative experiences, as shown in the following example:

"I was really moved by the hearty cheer along the running route. Even in the mountainous area, it felt like all the villagers had come out to cheer for us. I was also thankful to the up-close cheer along the riverside cycling route. I enjoyed all the aid and food prepared for us, including citron tea, amazake, soba porridge, rice cake, chocolate, and fish cake. Moreover, onion soup, American hot dog, and warm



amazake refueled me after finishing. Though the weather was not the best I could hope for, I'd say it's the best one among the 10 marathons I've run. The only thing I could complain is the location for picking up the completion certificate. It's a bit far away, and the sign was not clear enough".

The ratings and comments formed a rich content for analysis. In particular, the narratives provided insights into how the runners perceived and evaluated their experiences. In contrast to conventional surveys in which themes are usually set and confined to suit the research topic, the narratives used in this research were spontaneously posted by committed runners on a public internet platform without instruction by the researcher. To ensure reliability and a proper interpretation of the narratives, clear procedures were developed to guide the analysis, which will be defined in the next section.

Table 1
Summary of Runners' Feedback

	Sample size	Numerical rating			Narrative comment (word counts)		
		Max	Min	Average	Max	Min	Average
Mt. Fuji Marathon	313	100	14	68.8	499	11	278
Himeji Castle Marathon	217	100	51	94.4	496	10	263

Source: original data gathered from the website of RUNNET and then organized by the author.

Note: 1. Sample size reflects the number of runners who left their feedback for the marathon.

2. The higher the numerical rating, the more is the runner satisfied with the marathon. The maximum possible rating is 100 points.

3. Narrative comments are free texts written in Japanese. The system allows a maximum of 500 words, which roughly correspond to 250 words in English.

Data analysis

The retrieved data were organized into an EXCEL spreadsheet and analyzed manually using a conceptual content analysis approach. To answer RQ1, the data were examined to identify the image presence of World Heritage among runners. To answer RQ2, the data were analyzed to investigate how runners valued the identified practices and activities.

The concept chosen for answering RQ1 is World Heritage. While the choice of concept for RQ1 is rather straightforward, concepts involved in answering RQ2 are more complicated. In this respect, the research applied the experience prism proposed by Morgan (2007), and chose to include three categories of concepts to capture runners' experiences. The three concepts are: (1) administrative and operational elements; (2) design and programming; and (3) social support and interaction.

A pre-defined set of keywords/phrases for each concept were developed based on the author's experience of more than 10 years of running marathons. Relevant keywords/phrases were allowed to be added as the analysis went on. Implicit terms were also considered in



interpreting the texts. To limit the subjectivity and ensuing problems of validity and reliability, a research protocol was developed to help the researcher insure the texts are analyzed consistently throughout the process.

Table 2

Summary of Concepts and Keywords/Phrases

	Concepts	Keywords/phrases
RQ1	World Heritage	heritage, cultural heritage, world cultural heritage, etc.
RQ2	(1) Administrative & operational elements (2) Design & programming (3) Social support & interaction	water, toilet, baggage check, traffic, parking, etc. Event, running shirt, finisher’s medal, etc. cheer, volunteer, spectators, etc.

Note: As the analysis was done in a Japanese language context, the table is not exhaustive and serves as illustrative purpose only.

Table 2 illustrates the concepts and keywords/phrases applied in the conceptual content analysis procedure. Texts were examined to establish existence and frequency of concepts in the context of Mt. Fuji Marathon and Himeji Castle Marathon. Implications were then inferred based on the results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 1 summarizes the basic information of the two marathons covered in this study. Probably the most recognizable symbol of Japan, the majestic Mt. Fuji is not only a source of artistic inspiration but also an object of religious worship. Mt. Fuji was designated as World Cultural Heritage by UNESCO in 2013, just a few months after the first annual “Mt. Fuji Marathon” was held in 2012. The 42.195km marathon course features Mt. Fuji and two lakes that are also included in the World Heritage list.

On the other hand, Himeji Castle was registered in 1993 as one of the first UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Japan. The presence of Himeji Castle certainly has put Himeji under the spotlight, but at the same time, outshines other tourism resources in the area. A typical visitor may stay in Himeji for just a few hours, only for visiting the castle, and then move on to his or her next destination. In an attempt to drive overnight stays by tourists, Himeji City has directed their attention to sport tourism, and staged the first edition of “World Heritage Himeji Castle Marathon” in February 2015.

Figure 1
Basic Information of Mt. Fuji Marathon and Himeji Castle Marathon



Mt. Fuji Marathon

Location: At the foot of Mt. Fuji, Yamanashi Prefecture

Access: About 2 hours from Tokyo

Date: Nov 24, 2013 (Second edition, held annually)

Number of marathon runners: around 12,000

World Heritage Himeji Castle Marathon

Location: Himeji City, Hyogo Prefecture

Access: About one hour from Osaka, or 3.5 hours from Tokyo

Date: Feb 22, 2015 (First edition, held annually)

Number of marathon runners: around 6,000

The image presence of World Heritage among marathon runners

Table 3

The Usage and Frequency of "Mt. Fuji", Observed from Runners' Comments (N=313)

Concepts related to Mt. Fuji		Concepts related to Mt. Fuji Marathon	
Beautiful	49	Featured in the course	56
Amazing	22	Race title	27
Magnificent	18	Location	10
World Heritage	7	Medal	3
Sacred	3	Others	5
Varied	2		
Total	101	Total	101

Table 3 shows how and how often runners referred to “Mt. Fuji” in their comments. Since the word “Mt. Fuji” can refer to the mountain or the marathon race, a distinction was made to distinguish the two different contexts. With respect to concepts related to Mt. Fuji, the mountain was mentioned a total of 101 times. While the adjectives used by runners to describe the mountain was in accordance with the common image of Mt. Fuji, it came as a surprise that few runners referred Mt. Fuji as World Heritage, even that Mt. Fuji was designated as World Heritage just a few months before the marathon took place. In contrast, Arima (2015) examined the image of Mt. Fuji presented in guidebooks and found that “heritage” was the second most frequently used word in the 2014 edition of the guidebook covered in the study. The finding implies that the inherent image (beautiful, magnificent, etc.) of Mt. Fuji outweighs the recently acquired status of World Heritage, even when the event organizer and guidebook publisher actively promoted Mt. Fuji’s World Heritage designation. With respect to concepts related to Mt. Fuji Marathon, “Mt. Fuji” was also mentioned a total of 101 times. More than half of that stated Mt. Fuji was featured in the marathon course. The finding is in accordance with the fact Mt. Fuji is the main feature of the marathon.

Table 4



The Usage and Frequency of "Himeji Castle", Observed from Runners' Comments (N=217)

Concepts related to Himeji Castle		Concepts related to Himeji Castle Marathon	
Beautiful	6	Featured in the course	28
World Heritage	5	Race title	23
Restoration work	5	Location	5
White exterior	1	Medal	3
Total	17	Total	59

Table 4 shows how and how often runners mentioned “Himeji Castle” in their comments. The frequency in total was significantly lower than that observed in Mt. Fuji Marathon; moreover, only a total of 17 mentions of Himeji Castle were related to the castle itself. Similar to the findings in Mt. Fuji Marathon, few runners mentioned Himeji Castle as a World Heritage site. Though we cannot conclude that the designation of Mt. Fuji and Himeji Castle as World Heritage is not well recognized by the public, the findings show that the World Heritage status doesn’t rank high in the order of image presence.

Bundling heritage with marathon events: An investigation through runners’ eyes

Runners’ comments were analyzed to investigate how a value proposition that bundles heritage and marathon experiences was accepted by the runners. By summarizing runners’ comments, table 5 and 6 illustrate how runners evaluated their experience participating in Mt. Fuji Marathon and Himeji Castle Marathon. The results were categorized by concepts and satisfaction level, which was measured by runners’ numerical rating on the marathon.

First, administrative and operational elements can be regarded as the infrastructure required in staging a marathon. A race organizer has to ensure a smooth process that includes among others, easy registration, convenient access, ample supply of water and food, and logistics such as baggage checking, changing space, as well as enough toilets. To a certain level, these services are taken granted by runners. Indeed, while no more than 20% of runners positively commented on any administrative and operational elements, 48.4% of the unsatisfied runners complained about the number of toilet available in Mt. Fuji Marathon. The satisfaction level of Mt. Fuji Marathon was hugely compromised by insufficient toilets.

Second, design and programming elements are regarded as the core of an event. The crossover between World Heritage and marathon running was well accepted by the runners. More than 40% of runners positively commented on Mt. Fuji, but only about 15% of runners said so about Himeji Castle. Mt. Fuji seemed to have a stronger presence than Himeji Castle. Other elements featured in the running route were celebrity runners, beautiful scenery, and roadside festivals. Another common design was local specialty food, which can be naturally blended in the running experience since food and beverages are indispensable elements before, during, and after running. In the case of Himeji Castle Marathon, food and beverage were the most praised element, surpassing even the World Heritage. The somewhat surprising finding can be explained by the difference in their strategic focus. While Mt. Fuji was leveraged to



attract participants of the marathon, the crossover worked the other way round in Himeji. In the case of Himeji Marathon, it was the marathon being leveraged with an aim to drive overnight stays by visitors. Therefore, the World Heritage site of Himeji Castle was just one of the factors in a coordinated effort to promote Himeji.

Third, social support and interaction co-created with spectators, volunteers, and fellow runners, are expected to enhance runners' experience through the four channels of social support proposed by Willis (1991). Spectators provide emotional support through cheering. Volunteers provide tangible and information support. Fellow runners provide companionship support. Runners were in general thankful of the spectators who cheered for them along the route. However, a huge difference was observed between the two marathons in the percentage of runners who made positive comments about spectators. Were the runners in Himeji simply more grateful or the local residents in Himeji more passionate in cheering? It is true that Himeji City is more densely populated than the area around Mt.

Table 5

Runners' Comments for Mt. Fuji Marathon by Satisfaction Level

Concepts/categories	Very satisfied (N=89)		Somewhat satisfied (N=131)		Not satisfied (N=93)	
	Positive comment	Negative comment	Positive comment	Negative comment	Positive comment	Negative comment
Administrative and operational elements						
Transportation	13.5%	3.4%	12.2%	14.5%	7.5%	14.0%
Baggage	3.4%	5.6%	2.3%	15.3%	1.1%	17.2%
Toilet	15.7%	6.7%	7.6%	27.5%	2.2%	48.4%
Drink stations	19.1%	-	3.8%	3.8%	4.3%	3.2%
Registration	1.1%	-	0.8%	0.8%	1.1%	-
Changing space	1.1%	3.4%	0.8%	13.0%	1.1%	10.8%
Design and programming elements						
Course (World Heritage)	47.2%	-	47.3%	-	41.9%	-
Course (other elements)	40.4%	2.2%	43.5%	5.3%	33.3%	6.5%
Medal & goodies	15.7%	4.5%	12.2%	3.8%	6.5%	4.3%
Pre-race elements	3.4%	1.1%	1.5%	0.8%	2.2%	2.2%
Post-race elements	3.4%	2.2%	1.5%	10.7%	-	15.1%
Social support and interaction elements						
Food & beverage	25.8%	-	16.8%	0.8%	8.6%	2.2%
Social support and interaction						
Cheer from spectators	31.5%	1.1%	27.5%	-	17.2%	-
Support from volunteers	24.7%	-	15.3%	-	11.8%	-
Interaction with runners	3.4%	19.1%	0.8%	19.1%	-	9.7%

Note: Satisfaction level is measured by runners' numerical rating on the marathon. Very



satisfied: 100~80 points; somewhat satisfied: 79~60 points; not satisfied: lower than 60 points.

Table 6

Runners' Comments for Himeji Castle Marathon by Satisfaction Level

Concepts/categories	Very satisfied (N=205)		Somewhat satisfied (N=10)		Not satisfied (N=2)	
	Positive comment	Negative comment	Positive comment	Negative comment	Positive comment	Negative comment
Administrative and operational elements						
Transportation	1.0%	1.0%	-	-	-	-
Baggage	11.7%	1.0%	10.0%	10.0%	-	-
Toilet	4.4%	4.4%	-	30.0%	-	-
Drink stations	10.2%	2.0%	10.0%	-	-	-
Registration	3.9%	3.4%	-	-	-	-
Changing space	20.0%	1.5%	10.0%	-	-	-
Design and programming elements						
Course (World Heritage)	15.6%	-	20.0%	-	-	-
Course (other elements)	21.5%	6.8%	40.0%	30.0%	-	50.0%
Medal & goodies	8.3%	1.0%	20.0%	10.0%	-	-
Pre-race elements	4.9%	1.0%	-	-	-	-
Post-race elements	7.8%	3.4%	10.0%	-	-	50.0%
Food & beverage	25.4%	0.5%	-	10.0%	-	-
Social support and interaction						
Cheer from spectators	86.8%	-	80.0%	-	-	-
Support from volunteers	30.7%	-	20.0%	-	-	-
Interaction with runners	1.0%	1.0%	-	10.0%	-	-

Note: Satisfaction level is measured by runners' numerical rating on the marathon. Very satisfied: 100~80 points; somewhat satisfied: 79~60 points; not satisfied: lower than 60 points. Fuji, but the difference in population does not seem to be the only reason to explain the disparity in runners' comments. The city authority of Himeji made great efforts in communicating the merits of staging a marathon. Moreover, local residents of Himeji may be more willing to participate as the city is known as a "city of festival". An impressive spectator turnout was observed even in sparsely populated areas along the running route.

With respect to the interaction with other runners, the negative comments observed in Mt. Fuji Marathon were mostly directed towards runners' misbehavior of littering and urinating in public. In contrast, few runners in Himeji expressed such concern. Could the behavior of runners in Mt. Fuji be so different from those in Himeji? The enquiry once again put the problem of insufficient toilets on the spotlight. In addition, runners of the Mt. Fuji Marathon



appeared to be less tolerant of others' misbehavior in such a pleasant environment as Mt. Fuji. The finding highlights the importance of administrative and operational elements when staging a sport event in environmentally sensitive areas such as a heritage tourism destination.

CONCLUSIONS

Through a content analysis of the feedback left by runners participated in marathons featuring, respectively, the World Heritage Site of Himeji Castle and Mt. Fuji in Japan, this study attempted to examine: (1) The image presence of World Heritage among marathon runners; (2) How is a value proposition that bundles heritage and marathon experiences accepted by the runners.

Despite that World Heritage appeared to be a key element in the marathon, the status of World Heritage did not rank high in the order of image presence. Moreover, a successful value proposition bundling heritage and marathon requires a coordinated efforts from the administrative and operational elements, design and programming elements, as well as social support and interaction.

This study has made two primary contributions. First, the study is expected to contribute to a better understanding of the potential of leveraging a mass participation marathon event to (re)vitalize a heritage tourism destination. Second, the study applied a content analysis approach to analyze data gathered in Japan. Both the research method and the research target are underrepresented in the literature. Thus the study is expected to expand methodological awareness in the field of sport tourism and deepen our understanding in the current situation of sport tourism in Japan.

A limitation of this study lies in the nature of runners' feedback. Most of them focused their narratives on what happened on the day of the running, so a complete picture of runner's behavior was not observed. Another limitation is the difficulty in segmenting the runners. Different segments of runners favor different kind of activities (Chalip and Mcguirly, 2004) and hence may exhibit different behavior patterns. The data available in this study were insufficient to identify these different patterns.

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UNLOCKING LUXURY TRAVEL CONSUMPTION IN CHINA

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ABSTRACT

There is an enormous potential in the Chinese luxury travel market, however the underlying motivations among luxury Chinese travelers are not well understood. Veblen's theory of "conspicuous leisure" and "conspicuous consumption" are often used to explain luxury consumption and tourism phenomenon in western contexts. There is inadequacy in using Veblen's theory to explain Chinese luxury travel today given the differences in the cultural and economic backdrop. To supplement Veblen's theory, the influence of Confucianism on Chinese consumers including their travel behavior is considered. This paper attempts to unlock the consumption of luxury travel in China through extensive literature review.

Key Words: Luxury Chinese travelers, conspicuous consumption, conspicuous leisure, Confucianism

INTRODUCTION

China has become world's largest outbound source market since 2012, and the number of Chinese outbound visitors has continued to grow (People's Daily Online, 2015). The number of outbound trips made by Chinese visitors reached 109 million in 2014 and they spent US\$164 billion overseas (Juwai.com., 2015). The number of Chinese overseas travelers is expected to reach 174 million in 2020, and their total overseas spending may reach US\$422 billion (China Real Time, 2015). It is obvious that the per capita spending of Chinese visitors is increasing rapidly, and this could be explained at least partly by the fact that many of them are known to buy expensive designer brand products such as handbags, jewelry, shoes, fashion, and watches. The spending power of Chinese travelers can also be illustrated by the



existence and activities of luxury travel agencies. HH Travel, the luxury travel brand under Ctrip, the biggest online travel agent in China, offers an 80-days world trip at RMB1,280,000 (HH Travel, 2016). A luxury travel agency, Mytour, provides booking services not just for hotel, cruise, and skiing, but for private jet, real estate rental and purchase as well (Mytour, 2016).

With the growing dominance of Chinese tourists in many destinations, Chinese outbound tourism has attracted a lot of interest among the academia. Tse (2015) reviews 80 articles in 21 journals on the topic of Chinese outbound tourism published between 1995 and 2013, and finds that the studies fall into three broad themes: (1) destination related, (2) tourist related, and (3) source market related. There is however hardly any research on the high spending power of Chinese tourists or, in short, luxury travel.

Mainland China is now home to 596 billionaires, compared with 537 in the U.S (Hurun, 2015), and travel is the most preferred leisure activity for the rich people in China and their average household expenditure on travel is US\$56,600 (ILTM, 2015). Luxury travel is obviously an area of importance in the study of Chinese outbound tourism, but there is a research gap in this area.

What is the motivation behind the Chinese visitors who travels around the world and spend large amount of money? Who are they? Why do they spend money on luxury travel related products? How can luxury travel suppliers make their products appeal to these potential consumers? Motivation is the starting point of studying tourist behavior (Pearce & Lee, 1983), and understanding the motivations of Chinese luxury travelers is fundamental in unlocking luxury travel consumption in China. The aim of this paper is to analyze the motivations of Chinese luxury travelers through literature review.

METHODOLOGY

The aim of this paper is to analyze the motivations of Chinese luxury travelers. In order to understand luxury travel as a leisure, this paper has used Veblen's (1899) *The Theory of the Leisure Class* as the main theoretical backing, and the subsequent studies extending his theory are also reviewed. As most of the studies were developed in the Western context and influenced by the Western culture, it is necessary to supplement the analysis with an understanding of Chinese culture for the purpose of this study. Therefore studies of how Confucian philosophy influences leisure, travel, and luxury consumption are also covered. This paper sets out to review relevant literature in Veblen's leisure class and Confucian philosophy to help understand the motivation and other factors in Chinese luxury travel.

On 22 December 2015, related articles are identified and collected through the three largest and most-used online database: Google Scholar, Science Direct, and EBSCOHost (Buhalis & Law, 2008) using keyword search. Keywords including "Veblen", "conspicuous consumption", "Confucian", "luxury", "tourism", and "travel" were used in combinations for



searching articles in English journals and conferences. Top 100 articles in the research results were reviewed to determine whether they are relevant or not. Together with book chapters on luxury management, there are altogether 64 articles considered relevant and subsequently reviewed for this study. In addition, relevant information such as the *Luxury Chinese Traveler* published by Hurun is also included in the review.

The extensive literature review is summarized in Table 1 under the following four categories: (1) Veblen’s leisure class, (2) Luxury travel or conspicuous destination related to Veblen’s theory, (3) Confucian philosophy related to travel, and (4) Confucian philosophy related to luxury consumption.

Table 1
Summary of the Literature Review

Veblen’s The Theory of Leisure Class	
Studies related to leisure class	Veblen (1899); Huang & Shi (2015); DeLeire & Kalil (2010); Arrow & Dasgupta (2009); Frijter & Leigh (2005); Scott (2010); Sekhon, Bickart, Trudel & Fournier (2015); Leibenstein (1950); Kastanakis & Balabanis (2012); Kastanakis & Balabanis (2014); Kapferer (2012); Bernheim & Hodrick (1996)
Studies related to luxury travel or conspicuous destination	Hsieh (2014); Scott (2010); Hillman & Radel (2012); Riley (1995); Ricci & Holland (1992); Todd (2001); Sirgy & Su (2000); Papatheodorou (2001); Phillips & Back (2011); Kerr, Lewis, & Burgess (2012); Correia, Kozak, & Reis (2014); Ekinici, Sirakaya-Turk, & Preciado (2013); Chen & Peng (2014); Li, Fu, & Huang (2015); Rocha, Rocha, & Rocha (2015); Lynn (1997); Butcher (2009); Matteo & Matteo (1996); Guo, Kim, & Timothy (2007); Tsang, Lee & Liu (2014);
Confucian Philosophy	
Studies related to travel	Tse & Hobson (2008); Sofield & Li (2011); Fu, Cai, & Lehto (2015); Hsu & Huang (2016); Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline, & Wang (2011); Mok & DeFrance (2000); Kwek & Lee (2010); Feng & Page (2000); Sun, Ryan, & Pan (2014); Pearce, Wu, & Osmond (2014); Xu, Morgan, & Song (2009); Barron & Arcodia (2002); Hollinshead & Hou (2012); Zhou, Arnold, Pereira, & Yu (2010); Wong & Lau (2001); Guo (2014); Lee & Tideswell (2005); Watkins & Gnoth (2011); Ng & Lee (2014); Park, Rabolt, & Jeon (2008)
Studies related to luxury consumption	Hsiao & Chang (2012); Jacobs, Gao & Herbig (1995); Chan, Wan & Sin (2009); Le Monkhouse, Barnes, & Stephan (2012); Salazar & Zhang (2013); Wan & Poon (2014); Kim, Wan & Pan (2015); Mo & Roux (2009); Wong & Ahuvia (1998); Wang, Sun, & Song (2011); Ngai & Cho (2012); Phau & Prendergast (2000); Xiao & Zhu (2010)

Note: A study may be included in more than one category.

THE THEORY OF THE LEISURE CLASS

In the late 19th century, a small wealthy population emerged in the U.S. Veblen (1899) finds that there is a characteristic about this group of people in that their wealth would exempt them from thrift, and he refers to this group of people as the “leisure class”. This group of people was consistently relieved from work and from economic burdens for generations. Although relatively small in size, the leisure class had significant influence in the society.



The leisure class cared about status, reputation and honor, and their behavior was usually not driven by utility. They wanted to signal their wealth by showing their ability to waste time and money. Their leisure activities included display of manner and etiquette that could only be achieved through an excessive use of time, and Veblen labelled such behavior as “conspicuous leisure”. The leisure class influenced the society by demonstrating and showing off their good manner and etiquette, which could only be acquired by the non-productive use of time and effort. Other popular conspicuous leisure activities included hunting, keeping pets, sports, and learning.

As the society advanced, there was a larger circle of people to whom the leisure class wished to signal status, and the conspicuous waste needed to be more visible. The leisure class began to demonstrate their financial ability by spending money on unnecessary goods. The consumption of goods ranged from food, drink, narcotics, shelter, services, ornaments, apparel, weapons and accoutrements, amusements, to amulets. The leisure class was described as moving from displaying “conspicuous leisure” to “conspicuous consumption”.

Although conspicuous leisure wasted time and effort, and conspicuous consumption wasted money and goods, both types of behavior demonstrated wealth and the capability to waste. The term “waste” should be interpreted from the perspective of mankind, and not from an individual. The expenditure or the waste might be meaningful to an individual, but it does not serve the well-being of mankind as a whole.

In Veblen’s analysis, conspicuous consumption appeared after conspicuous leisure. As a community grew, conspicuous consumption was preferred and practiced because goods was more abundant and easier to display than leisure. In reality, conspicuous leisure and conspicuous consumption often happened at the same time to signal wealth and status. For example, purchasing and wearing a pair of expensive high heel shoes demonstrates conspicuous consumption because of the expensiveness, and at the same time, conspicuous leisure because high heel shoes are not suitable for production work.

Veblen believed that everybody in a society was influenced by the leisure class through their conspicuous leisure and conspicuous consumption. The leisure class had strong influence on many aspects in daily life by showing off their dress, taste, innovation, belief, religion, charity, and higher learning. In Veblen’s opinion, the leisure class preferred conservatism over innovation because they were satisfied with the status quo and they were not willing to make changes. People resisted change, and time and effort were wasted. As a result, conspicuous leisure and conspicuous consumption were perceived to be slowing down the development of a society.

The following discussion shows how Veblen’s theory of leisure class has been widely used in explaining the consumption and leisure behavior in the West, and implications for China are discussed. In the U.S. and Sweden, conspicuous consumption is preferred over conspicuous leisure (Alpizar, Carlsson, & Johansson-Stenman, 2005; Solnick & Hemenway, 2005; cited by



Huang & Shi, 2015). Less wealthy people in these countries work for more hours to support their conspicuous consumption. However, Australians do not work more for wealth and they prefer conspicuous leisure over conspicuous consumption. It seems that the preference of conspicuous consumption and conspicuous leisure is cultural related. In Australia, there are only three luxury brands among top 20 desired brands (Huang & Shi, 2015), while China is expected to be the world's second-largest market for luxury goods by 2018, after the U.S. market (Deloitte, 2014). This might suggest that the preference of conspicuous consumption and conspicuous leisure in China is different from Australia, in the sense that Chinese prefers conspicuous consumption over conspicuous leisure.

It is found that leisure consumption may increase status and enhance happiness (DeLeire & Kalil, 2010). Their study in the US shows that \$10,000 increase in spending on leisure goods is associated with a 0.17-point increase in life satisfaction. The authors believe it is likely that spending on leisure increases happiness by enhancing status. As China ranks 84th in World Happiness Report 2015, after most Asian regions (Singapore 24th, Hong Kong 72nd) (Sustainable Development Solutions Network, 2015), it is likely that Chinese may be more involved in leisure consumption to enhance status and increase happiness.

It is argued that since consumption of goods is usually conspicuous, whereas, leisure is less conspicuous, people tend to favor consumption of goods (Arrow & Dasgupta, 2009). US citizen prefer conspicuous consumption over conspicuous leisure also because of their high mobility thus making the consumption more conspicuous (Frijter & Leigh, 2005; Scott, 2010). Following the same arguments above, we may predict that there is a preference of conspicuous consumption over conspicuous leisure in China, because of the increasing urbanization leading to high mobility (Bain & Company, 2015). Due to technological development, conspicuous leisure has become even more visible nowadays (Huang & Shi, 2015) because of the "conspicuous display" effect on social media (Sekhon, Bickart, Trudel & Fournier, 2015) and "showing off" effect by travel bloggers (Hsieh, 2014).

LUXURY TRAVEL/CONSPICUOUS DESTINATION

The leisure class theory has been used to explain consumer demand for luxury goods and services (Leibenstein, 1950), and three types of consumer effects have been identified: (1) bandwagon effect, (2) snob effect, and (3) Veblen effect. Bandwagon effect refers to that demand of products increases when others are consuming the same products. Kastanakis & Balabanis (2012) described it as that the consumers follow the consumption behavior of the higher class. Snob effect refers to that the demand of products decreases when others are consuming the same products. Kastanakis & Balabanis (2014) found that customers seeking for individual uniqueness tend to perform snob consumption. Veblen effect refers to the phenomenon that demand increases when price increases. This is why the average price of a luxury brand must increase continually in general (Kapferer, 2012), and tax for luxury good



changing within certain range will not influence the sale (Bernheim & Hodrick, 1996). The leisure class theory has also been used to understand and explain leisure travel in contemporary society. Serious birdwatchers in the U.S. known as “birders” would travel long distances and spend large amount of money to see a rare bird (Scott, 2010). Their bird watching activities are considered conspicuous consumption in spending time and money to acquire status or honor. It is an honor to a birder if he or she is the only one who has seen a certain rare bird among his or her peers. Similar motivation could be found among world travelers. Many travelers in the U.S. may follow those best-selling travel books (e.g. *1,000 Places to See Before You Die, A Traveler’s Life List*) and travel to the places for emulation with other travelers. Similar conspicuous motivation of leisure behavior is found among the traveler who experienced risk and dangerous travel experience in Australia (Hillman & Radel, 2012). The description of travel experience by participants in the study reveals that after the journey travelers feel that they have achieved high status and feel honored.

Tourism has been studied as prestigious or conspicuous consumption: travel behavior that could gain honorable recognition (Riley, 1995). It is the travelers’ knowledge and manner and the location’s minimal accessibility which make the prestige-worthy leisure travel a form of conspicuous consumption. Another study uncovers the status and prestige motivation for incentive travel (Ricci & Holland, 1992). The researchers find that after an incentive trip, the traveler’s social status is lifted not only because of the recognition of being top salesperson, but also because that they experience a unique incentive trip. Self-concept is considered as one important factor to be used to predict travel behavior. Whether perceived destination image matches tourist self-concept may influence travel behaviors such as destination choice (Sirgy & Su, 2000). The authors propose that the match between the destination image and ideal social self is more likely leading to conspicuous destination choice. Todd (2001) considers tourism as a form of conspicuous consumption and comes up with three groups of tourists based on the relationship between self-concept and product choice: (1) happy holidaymakers, (2) striving travelers, and (3) holiday partners. Happy holidaymakers and striving travelers feel good and successful, important, and powerful during vacation, and they tend to travel to unusual overseas destinations. Striving travelers feel more nervous and anxious when travel compared with happy holidaymaker. Holiday partners feel more unsuccessful, unimportant, and powerless when they travel, and they tend to travel to accessible destinations.

Veblen’s conspicuous consumption concept is applied in a tourism destination study (Phillips & Back, 2011) which shows that status seeking is not the sole motivation behind conspicuous consumption in terms of destination choice, and there are other motivations including social relationship and hedonism. The Veblen effect is also found in how tourists make their destination choice in Papatheodorou’s study (2001). In a travel destination study by Kerr, Lewis, & Burgess (2012), it is found that there is strong desire among the respondents to



share or show off their experience, regardless of whether it is in a conspicuous destination or low key destination. The importance of bragging on destination choice suggests that traveling is a form of conspicuous consumption.

A study about how travelers perceive conspicuous destination and conspicuous experience was conducted in Portugal by Correia, Kozak, & Reis (2014). The opinions of four different groups of people were investigated: musicians, reporters, socialites and ordinary people, representing individuals with different status exposure. The results show that different group has different understanding of conspicuous experience. The musicians think that conspicuous travel experience is traveling with family to a unique destination that people do not recognize them; the reporters consider learning and social knowledge important in conspicuous travel experience; the socialites reveal that the most important feature in conspicuous experience is being recognized; and for the ordinary people, exquisite experience is perceived as conspicuous.

Destination loyalty is also related to conspicuous consumption. A study shows that destination loyalty is positively influenced by self-congruence, destination brand identification, and lifestyle-congruence (Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk, & Preciado, 2013).

Whether a luxury hotel is conspicuous, is expensive, and is for wealthy may positively influence the Chinese attitude towards luxury hotels and their stay intention (Chen & Peng, 2014). However, conspicuous decoration style of luxury hotel may negatively influence the purchase intention of hotel accommodation due to anti-corruption movement discouraging extravagance in China (Li, Fu, & Huang, 2015). In a study conducted in Brazil, it is found that the conspicuous consumption behavior of the new riches is reflected in their appreciation of the abundance of food, waste of time and food, and service on cruise (Rocha, Rocha, & Rocha, 2015). Tipping is another consumer behavior in hospitality industry which reflects conspicuous consumption (Lynn, 1997). The growing demand of ecotourism among western tourists reflects not only the care of nature but also the desire to “make a difference” (Butcher, 2009). Shopping travel behavior may also be stimulated by conspicuous motivations. Some Canadians travel cross-border to shop in the U.S. and the cross-border shopping phenomenon is partly explained by conspicuous consumption (Matteo & Matteo, 1996). In a study by Guo, Kim, & Timothy (2007), Chinese tourists are described to travel abroad and purchase luxury goods to enhance their social status because both travel and brand-name goods are associated with prestige. Chinese tourists’ shopping behavior is found to be motivated by various factors including status display (Tsang, Lee & Liu, 2014). Demonstrating wealth, establishing status, and feeling more confident and prestigious when they go shopping in Hong Kong are mentioned as motivation of the shopping. It is also found that the motivation of showing off is diminished when travel experience increases and the familiarity of luxury goods increases. This finding shows that the nouveau riche probably will be engaged in more conspicuous behaviors than those with the old money.



CONFUCIAN PHILOSOPHY AND TRAVEL

Tse & Hobson (2008) argue that Confucian philosophy as a key element in Chinese culture has much influence on Chinese outbound tourism. For example, the Confucian tenet pleaded the educated Chinese to seek inspirations from landscape for their work in Chinese poetry, paintings, and calligraphy, and landscape is a tourist attraction which makes travel a reality (Sofield & Li, 2011).

Fu, Cai, & Lehto (2015) also argue that Confucianism has far-reaching influence on travel motivations of Chinese tourists. Their study finds that travel experience can bridge important relationship gaps in family, social life and nature among Chinese travelers, and bridging the relationship gaps means achieving harmony between man and nature, and in social life. In their study of Chinese cultural values' tourism implications, Hsu & Huang (2016) find that cultural values like *thrift* encourages travelers to carefully assess the monetary value of different travel products, *conformity* leads traveler to visit most popular sites in a destination, and *family orientation/kinship* is often a major consideration in making travel decisions. The Confucian value of *thrift* or *frugality* is found to motivate Chinese travelers in another study by Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline, & Wang (2011). The Confucian values of *harmony*, *group-orientation* and *conformity* are detected among Chinese travelers also in studies by Mok & DeFranco (2000) and Kwek & Lee (2010). The values of *family orientation* and *filial piety* are found to influence Chinese travelers also in studies by Feng & Page (2000) and Sun, Ryan, & Pan (2014). Similarly, Pearce, Wu, & Osmond (2014) find that Confucian value system dominates travelers who are family and relationship focused.

The influence of Confucian philosophy on travel is also found in a study by Xu, Morgan, & Song (2009). They show that famous sight and learning about culture and history are more important than having fun or challenges among Chinese student travelers, and this is attributed to the influence of Confucian philosophy which emphasizes on learning and attaches great importance to education. Students in hospitality and tourism managements with Confucian cultural background demonstrate different preference of learning style in comparison with western student (Barron, 2002). Western students enjoy all types of teaching methods and activities, while Chinese students prefer practical work and brainstorming, and they are more cautious and thoughtful before making any decisions.

In addition to travel motivation and behavior, Confucian value is found to influence the governance and planning of tourism as well (Sofield & Li, 2011). Confucian philosophy is identified as the "soft power" influencing tourism development in China (Hollinshead & Hou, 2012), and Xu & Cui (2014) argue that Confucian value of harmony between human and nature should be considered in practicing ecotourism. The Confucian influence is found among Chinese not just in travel but in shopping as well. Zhou, Arnold, Pereira, & Yu (2010) find that consumers in coastal and inland regions display the same utilitarian shopping style



but differ in hedonic shopping style. The utilitarian shopping styles refer to the concerns about usage and quality of the product, and they are the same in coastal and inland regions styles because people in both regions are influenced by Confucian philosophy which is concerned with long-term usage and long-term orientation. The hedonic shopping styles refer to concern for fashion. The consumers in coastal region show stronger hedonic shopping style than the consumers in inland region, due to stronger western influence in the coastal region. The impact or effect of western culture on Confucian value is also found in Hong Kong travelers (Wong & Lau, 2001) and in women travelers (Guo, 2014).

The influence of Confucianism on travel is not confined to China, and it is also found in Korean, Japan, and Singapore. Confucian value is found as a constraint of travel among senior segment in Korea (Sun & Tideswell, 2005). The constraint is imposed by peers and family, and it is attributed to Confucian values of conformity and family. In another study by Watkins & Gnoth (2011) in Japan, travelers' destination choice, activities, and travel style are associated with Confucian values of harmony, knowledge, natural scenery, learning language and culture. In Singapore, Confucian value is found to have influence on the travel blogging behavior among Chinese Singaporeans (Ng & Lee, 2014). Conformity is considered an influential factor on the purchase intention of luxury brand in Confucian society in a study conducted in Korea (Park, Rabolt, & Jeon, 2008).

CONFUCIAN PHILOSOPHY AND LUXURY CONSUMPTION

Confucianism is known to advocate frugality, which seems to contradict luxury consumption or extravagance. On closer examination, it is found that Confucianism actually sees luxury consumption in a positive angle because it contributes to wealth equalization (Hsiao & Chang, 2012). The poor could become better off because of the luxury spending by other people. Luxury consumption is not only sanctioned in Confucianism, the concept of "face" in Confucianism is often used to explain or justify luxury consumption behavior in China.

Face is an importance value in Chinese culture and daily life, and it is rooted in Confucianism (Jacobs, Gao, & Herbig, 1995). Face is the "claimed accomplishment and/or hoped for accomplishment of a person's self-cultivation". Face is also the solution of conflicts and the means to harmonize social relationships. The authors argue that there are two levels of face: (1) "lien" or the minimum of face is the personal honor in one's relation to others, and (2) "mien-tzu" or the maximum of face is the power to gather people and to command others. Deriving from the concept of maximum of face, "keeping or saving face" means the acknowledgement or affirmation of one's personal status and prestige, and "giving face" is to gratify or to appreciate others. Everyone has "lien", but not everyone has "mien-tzu" or has equal "mien-tzu". "Mien-tzu" is a measure of social power, thus it is related to social status.

There are many studies which have revealed the association of face with luxury consumption (Chan, Wan & Sin, 2009; Le Monkhouse, Barnes, & Stephan, 2012), and with travel (Salazar



& Zhang, 2013; Mok & DeFranco, 2000; Wan & Poon, 2014; Kim, Wan & Pan, 2015). The concept of “face” in these studies invariably refers to the maximum of face or social status.

Chinese luxury consumers are segmented into four types according to their attitude toward luxury consumption: the indulgence, conformism, snobbism and follower/pragmatism (Mo & Roux, 2009). The indulgence group seeks for new things and hedonism. The conformism group and snobbism group purchase luxury items for status, however, the latter segment seeks to display status by unique luxury items. The follower/pragmatism group is influenced by others and is very quality conscious. Chinese luxury consumption style is described as showing off, high brand consciousness, status consumption, and irrational. The luxury consumption patterns of Chinese are found to be more conspicuous, socially oriented and brand-conscious compared with European consumption style. These patterns are said to be associated with Confucian value.

In a study of self-concept, Wong & Ahuvia (1998) find that interdependent self-concept is dominant in Confucian society as opposed to independent self-concept in Western society. This would mean that publicly visible possessions of goods, giving luxury goods as gift, and symbolic goods as position indicator are important in Confucian society. Such characteristics indicate that conspicuous consumption is accepted as the norm in Confucian society.

Confucian value was discussed in a study about Chinese luxury consumer segmentation (Wang, Sun, & Song, 2011), and “group orientation” and “face saving” are found to be the motivations of luxury consumption. It is alleged that luxury products are bought more by “elitist” who believes that luxury is associated with image, knowledge, social status, and scarcity.

Based on key values, motivations, and behavior patterns, Ngai & Cho (2012) classify Chinese young luxury consumers into four groups: the overseas pack, the self-established cool, the luxury followers, and the spirituals. The overseas pack refers to the group of people with overseas education, high income to afford luxury goods, knowledge about luxury goods. They are quality conscious, but not price conscious. The luxury followers are passionate about luxury products and are status conscious, and they tend to follow the trend. They demonstrate collectivism, which is the core value of Confucianism.

According to the rarity principle, customers may dislike certain luxury brand because the brand is too popular, and this principle is found to be valid in the U.S. but not in Hong Kong and Singapore (Phau & Prendergast, 2000). This can be explained by Confucian philosophy which recognizes the importance of status or face, and a popular brand is considered as an indicator of social position and prestige. In addition, Xiao & Zhu (2010) find that selling at discounted price may negatively affect Chinese consumer’s loyalty toward luxury brands.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

China has come a long way to become the most important luxury travel market in terms of



number of outbound travelers and spending. While luxury travel is obviously a form of conspicuous leisure in Veblen's analysis, in China luxury travel can be considered conspicuous consumption as well. Luxury travel is a form of conspicuous leisure because it entails "waste" of time and effort, and it signals wealth and status. Traveling to unusual places with exquisite experience is conspicuous leisure, and luxury travel is also conspicuous consumption because it also "wastes" money and goods. In China, the expensiveness of travel is an indication of luxury, and shopping during travel is a tangible demonstration of consumption. The trend toward conspicuous consumption is further heightened by the urbanization in many regions resulting in high mobility of people and the demonstrating effect.

Traveling abroad and purchasing luxury brand-name goods are associated with prestige and social status among Chinese consumers. Buying popular luxury brand-name goods is an indication of prestige and social position. Conformity is an important value in Confucian philosophy, and buying popular brands is seen as a kind of conformity and is well accepted. Therefore the bandwagon effect, i.e., following other people's brand choice is common in China; whereas, the rarity principle usually does not apply. In China, luxury consumption is characterized by being conspicuous, brand conscious, and status oriented, which may be seen as irrational in Western culture.

Chinese tourists' shopping behavior is found to be motivated by various factors including status display (Tsang, Lee & Liu, 2014). Shopping has a special symbolic meaning among Chinese consumers, who are found to value interdependent self-concept as opposed to independent self-concept in Western society (Wong & Ahuvia, 1998). In such a society, visible possessions of goods and giving luxury goods as gift are accepted as the norm. This is in line with the "group orientation" of Chinese luxury consumers (Wang, Sun, & Song, 2011). Chinese shopping style is also found to be dominated by hedonism as opposed to utilitarianism in Western society.

A number of research studies have shown that destination choice is associated with status seeking, social relationship, hedonism, and the Veblen effect (phenomenon of demand increases when price increases). Given the luxury consumption behavior in China, it is reasonable to assume that such destination choice motivations also exist in China. For those who value ideal social self, they are likely to choose conspicuous destinations. According to Todd (2001), tourism is form of conspicuous consumption and there is a type of happy holidaymakers who feel good and successful, important, and powerful during vacation, and they tend to travel to unusual overseas destinations. As China ranks relatively low in terms of happiness and the country has virtually opened itself up for outbound travel, it is believed that more people will adopt luxury travel to increase their happiness.

Travel is sanctioned in Confucianism because it is considered as a way of learning and enriching oneself, and as a form of luxury consumption, it can be explained or justified by the



concept of “face” and it is also viewed as a means to re-distribute wealth. Face has slightly different meanings in different context, and the power to gather people and to command others is referred to as the maximum of face or “mien-tzu” in Chinese culture (Jacobs, Gao, & Herbig, 1995). Luxury travel and shopping are means of affirming one’s personal status and prestige or “keeping face”. Buying luxury gifts for other people to gratify or to appreciate other people is “giving face”. Face in the context of luxury travel or buying luxury gift is a measure of social power and social status.

As a conclusion, the literature review indicates that luxury travel consumption pattern in China is characterized by being conspicuous, socially oriented, and brand-conscious. As Chinese outbound continues to grow, it is expected that luxury travel grows proportionally. However as the Chinese government introduced the anti-corruption and anti-extravagance campaigns in 2013, traveling extravagantly and giving luxury gifts had been suppressed (Moshinsky, 2015). Many luxury brands and high-ticket items reported a double-digit percentage decline in sales in 2015. As government campaign is usually far-reaching and persistent in China, the development of luxury travel consumption would be shaped not just by consumer motivations and culture, but socio-political force such as the current austerity drive as well.

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**HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM RESEARCH IN SWISS HOTEL SCHOOLS:
A CASE STUDY OF RESEARCH PRACTICES AT ECOLE HÔ TELIÈ RE DE
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ABSTRACT

This study explores the institutional and regulatory obstacles to hospitality and tourism research in Switzerland and explains why scientific research is underdeveloped in Swiss hotel and tourism management schools. A case study approach is adopted to analyze the research practices pursued by Ecole hôtelière de Lausanne as a solution to combat the regulatory constraints in Swiss higher education. This study shows that the EHL experience can be an example for other Swiss hotel schools to follow, through developing academic research and innovation to consolidate hospitality and tourism education in the era of the experience economy.

Key Words: research, higher education, hospitality and tourism, Swiss

INTRODUCTION

Swiss hospitality education is grounded in the tradition of professional education, from which various hospitality and tourism programs have emerged. This has been exemplified by the intensive study of practical arts on campus and in internships off campus (Chen & Dellea, 2015; Formica, 1996). As with the majority of Swiss hospitality programs, professional education is a key feature of hospitality education programs across Switzerland and is



exported to other countries where the development of the tourism industry depends on high-qualified professionals. For instance, Ecole hôtelière de Lausanne (EHL), the world's first hotel management school, has established a worldwide education network that currently consists of eight schools abroad and exports its educational model and philosophy to China, India, the Middle East and Africa. These endeavors include delivering courses, training teachers and industrial professionals and certifying hospitality management schools abroad. Swiss hospitality education is characterized by a blend of arts, sciences and applying theory to practical situations (Chen & Dellea, 2015). This educational strategy reflects changes in the industry and contributes to the development of the industry in the experience economy (Chen & Dellea, 2015; Formica, 1996). What the hospitality industry really needs in future decades is to shift from providing services to creating experiences. The orthodox hospitality industry today is also gradually expanding to include not only hotels and restaurants but also airlines, casinos, cruises and all businesses covered by the experience economy. The hospitality industry is a pioneer in delivering services compared to traditional manufacturing industries. And today it has set a benchmark (also a pioneer) in creating enjoyable and pleasant experiences and moments that tourists (i.e. consumers) will cherish for years to come. It is therefore not surprising that the Swiss watchmaking industry—a traditional manufacturing sector—seeks to explore the essence of hospitality in order to create luxury experiences for its customers.

Despite the fact that the reputation of Swiss hospitality education has been well acknowledged and the education mode has been seen as one of the competitive advantages of Swiss higher education (Becker & Kolster, 2012), scientific research has long been underdeveloped in Swiss hotel schools. A lack of research endeavors becomes strikingly evident when the ranking of tourism and hospitality schools/programs is based on research outputs rather than educational fame in the industry. Swiss hotel schools have barely appeared in various rankings that are based on tourism and hospitality scholarship (Jogarathnam, 2005a, b; McKercher, 2007, 2008; Severt et al., 2009). Despite being the world's first and one of the best hotel management schools, EHL was not ranked top 100 best schools based on research outputs (Severt et al., 2009), not to mention the vast majority of other Swiss hotel and tourism schools. While published research is not the sole measure of the quality of institutions and programs, it is one of the more important and visible methods used to rate academic programs (Jogarathnam, 2005b). In addition, academic research can lead the intellectual development of tourism and hospitality as a field of academic endeavor and consolidate quality teaching as well (Crouch & Perdue, 2015; Frechtling, 2004; Hall, 2005). This study thus proceeds to explore the factors that may have impeded Swiss hotel schools to pursue research and outline the research practices at EHL as a solution to increase research outputs in tourism and hospitality.



LITERATURE REVIEW

Hospitality and Tourism Research and Scholarship

While the competence of tourism and hotel schools has been well recognized by the quality of educational programs, research outputs have been playing a crucial role in determining the reputation of the schools (Jogaratnam, 2005a, b; McKercher, 2007, 2008; Severt et al., 2009). A 2009 study ranked top 100 best tourism and hospitality programs/schools based on research performance (Severt et al., 2009). It evidenced the predominance of the university-level hotel and hospitality schools in North America, succeeded by their counterparts in Asia and Australia (Severt et al., 2009). While the UK-based schools have stood out in Europe with considerable research outputs over the past decades (Page, 2003; Severt et al., 2009), the rest of European schools with well-established hospitality and tourism programs rarely appeared in the lists. One of the reasons is that these schools are featured by vocational training and professional education, lacking the endeavor of practicing research (Formica, 1996; Page, 2003). However, when tourism and hospitality programs have been expanded to include postgraduate education, pursuing research objectives has become a strategy for hotel schools to keep competitive in higher education as well as to meet the needs of the industry (Horng & Lee, 2005, McKercher, 2002; Rivera & Upchurch, 2008).

The evolution of tourism and hospitality programs from the vocational level to university level stimulates research production. This is true especially for those countries with well-established programs at the vocational level. For instance, Australia saw establishing university-level tourism and hospitality education as part of national policy (McKercher, 2002). Most senior Australian tourism academics believed that postgraduate programs could be a catalyst to rejuvenate tourism and hospitality education, which saw an unstable growth in student demand (McKercher, 2002). According to Horng and Lee (2005), one of the reasons that hospitality and tourism research was strengthened in Taiwan was the transformation of a vast majority of vocational schools into universities. This transformation helped reposition hotel and tourism schools by incorporating comprehensive curriculum, advancing collaboration and strengthening tourism and hospitality research (Horng & Lee, 2005). In addition to having a huge number of university-level/postgraduate programs, the academic leadership of the United States in tourism and hospitality can be attributed to the dominance of the US-based academics (Law, Leung, & Buhalis, 2010). It is concluded that the largest share of academic journal editors and editorial board members evidenced the country's academic leadership in tourism and hospitality scholarship (Law et al., 2010).

Institutional Characteristics and Research Performance

At the institutional level, research productivity in tourism and hospitality can be largely explained by a wide range of characteristics from education system, faculty composition, to the availability of doctoral research (Hall, 2005; Jogaratnam, 2005a, b; Lee & Law, 2011; Severt et al., 2009). Lee and Law's (2011) study revealed that research productive in tourism



and hospitality was positively related to faculty size, a higher composition of senior researchers, the number of supporting staff as well as the availability of a doctoral program. Therefore, a lack of research faculty and doctoral programs in most European hotel schools can explain why these schools have far lagged behind in the race for research outputs and excellence. On the other hand, evidence from mainland China and Taiwan has shown that research outputs have been gradually increasing when tourism and hospitality programs are offered at the postgraduate level (Horng & Lee, 2005; Huang & Hsu, 2008; Tsang & Hsu, 2011). These programs help establish a research community in an institution to strengthen research capability and disseminate knowledge to the industry

The largest growth in research outputs over the period 1992 to 2006 in Asia is largely because an increasing number of universities have established research teams and faculty in tourism and hospitality (Severt et al., 2009). This is accompanied by a quick transition from professional education to university-level and even PhD level education (Horng & Lee, 2005). This conclusion is consistent with Lee and Law's (2011) argument that an institution's autonomy of offering hospitality and tourism programs can boost its research productivity. As the research community within an institution expands due to the increasing number of programs and faculty members, cross-institutional collaboration has also been consolidated (Ye, Li, & Law, 2013; Ye, Song, & Li, 2012). Over the past two decade, tourism and hospitality research has been increasingly dominated by multi-author, multi-university studies, and for this reason research productivity is significantly associated with the breadth and depth of research collaboration between institutions (Ye et al., 2012, 2013).

Education Modes and Research Performance

A number of challenges have been constantly raised by researchers regarding how to position tourism and hospitality programs and revolutionize the education modes by incorporating scientific research (Jayawardena, 2001; McKercher, 2002; Morgan, 2004; Sigala & Baum, 2003). Scientific research is necessary not only for tourism and hospitality educators to consolidate existing programs but also for the industry to fulfil the managerial objectives in the era of the experience economy (Hall, 2005; Morgan, 2004). Yet the traditional vocational ethos and professional education philosophy in tourism and hospitality education may have impeded most tourism and hospitality schools to pursue their research goals. Thus, scientific research in tourism and hospitality seems unnecessary because the knowledge is drawn from the industry and created by practitioners rather than from the disciplinary enquiries of academics (Morrison & O'Mahony, 2003). However, by the late 1990s international academics had advocated "the liberation of higher education in hospitality management from its vocational base and to explore the inclusion in the curriculum of a broader and more reflective orientation" (Morrison & O'Mahony, 2003, p. 38). The Australian experience in particular suggested that the development of research programs can be a driver for traditional tourism and hospitality programs to thrive (McKercher, 2002).



METHODS

We adopted a case study approach to analyze the obstacles that Swiss hotel schools are facing in pursuing research in general and the research practices undertaken by EHL in particular. EHL was selected as a case for three reasons. First, EHL is the first hotel school specialized in hospitality education in Switzerland and also a pioneer of hospitality education in the world. Its education mode has been adopted by other hotel schools in Switzerland. Also, a limited number of specialized hotel schools in Switzerland make the school-level quantitative analysis difficult. Second, EHL has long been cited as a world reference for hospitality education, making the analysis of EHL comparable to hospitality education at the global level. This also helps identify regulatory and governance differences of higher education between Switzerland and the rest of the world. Third, EHL has established a comprehensive programs ranging from higher diploma, bachelors, Masters to EMBA, which make it the first hotel school in Switzerland to develop research programs and practice research and innovation.

Despite being criticized for lacking theoretical underpinning, methodological rigor, and data reliability and validity in most studies (Seuring, 2006), the case study approach best suited this study because of its exploratory nature. By using the case study approach, EHL can be seen as a lens through which we can foresee the strategies that other Swiss hotel schools may take to advance research in the future. The data collected to accompany the case study approach consisted of semi-structured interviews at EHL, a content analysis of brochures that depicted tourism and hospitality programs offered by 22 Swiss hotel schools, and various governmental documents and statistics that depicted the status quo of Swiss higher education in tourism and hospitality. In particular, the semi-structured interviews were conducted with EHL faculty, staff, students and alumni, particularly for collecting information regarding EHL's research practices over the past decade. The interviews focused on three issues, namely the status quo of research at EHL, research practices undertaken at EHL, and why advancing research in traditional hotel schools might be a strategy to keep the school more competitive in hospitality education. The data were collected between June and September, 2015.

This study proceeds to outline the institutional and regulatory landscape that fundamentally determines why hospitality and tourism research is underdeveloped in Swiss hotel schools. This remains one of the obstacles to undertaking scientific research in Swiss hotel schools despite an escalating demand from the industry that needs innovation as well as from students who want to pursue a PhD in tourism and hospitality. Then, the case of EHL is used to illustrate the institutional and regulatory obstacles on the one hand and, on the other hand, set an example for other hotel and tourism schools to pursue scientific research under the regulatory constraints.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



The Governance of Swiss Hospitality and Tourism Education

Education governance in Switzerland is an institutional obstacle to conducting academic research in hospitality and tourism schools. According to the International Standard Classification of Education², higher education in Switzerland consists of two main categories (Figure 1). One is classified as “5A,” incorporating universities offering degree-granting programs. The second is classified as “5B,” incorporating schools or institutions offering professional education, which includes hospitality and tourism education. The doctoral level education, classified as “6A,” can only be offered by public universities at the Swiss federal or cantonal level³. Since 2015, all the tertiary “A” institutions⁴ have been regulated and coordinated at the federal level by the newly passed Higher Education Funding and Coordination Act (HEdA)⁵. This act sets the constitution of the Swiss Accreditation Council and the Swiss Accreditation Agency, aiming to ensure the education quality of all tertiary “A” institutions. The tertiary “B” level comprises about 150 public and private professional education training (PET) schools, which are comprised of most hospitality and tourism schools, all of which are legally authorized and regulated at the cantonal level. However, the PET schools are also subject to a common management framework at the federal level regulated by the Federal Act on Vocational and Professional Education and Training.

We identify a total of 45 institutions in Switzerland which offer hotel or tourism management programs. These schools differ substantially in terms of governance and the quality of their programs. For further investigation, we only consider 22 specialized hotel and tourism management schools that are either recognized by the Swiss authorities, accredited by a trustworthy accreditation agency or members of the Swiss Association of Hotel Schools (ASEH⁶). All 22 schools are regulated at the tertiary “B” level or above, offering a wide range of diplomas (higher diploma to postgraduate diploma) and degree-granting programs (bachelors, masters and MBA) (Table 1). Of the 22 schools, eleven are professional education

² www.uis.unesco.org

³ Switzerland, officially called the Swiss Confederation, consists of 26 cantons. The federal government delegates considerable authority regarding education regulations to the cantons, which makes the governance of the Swiss higher education highly decentralized and diverse.

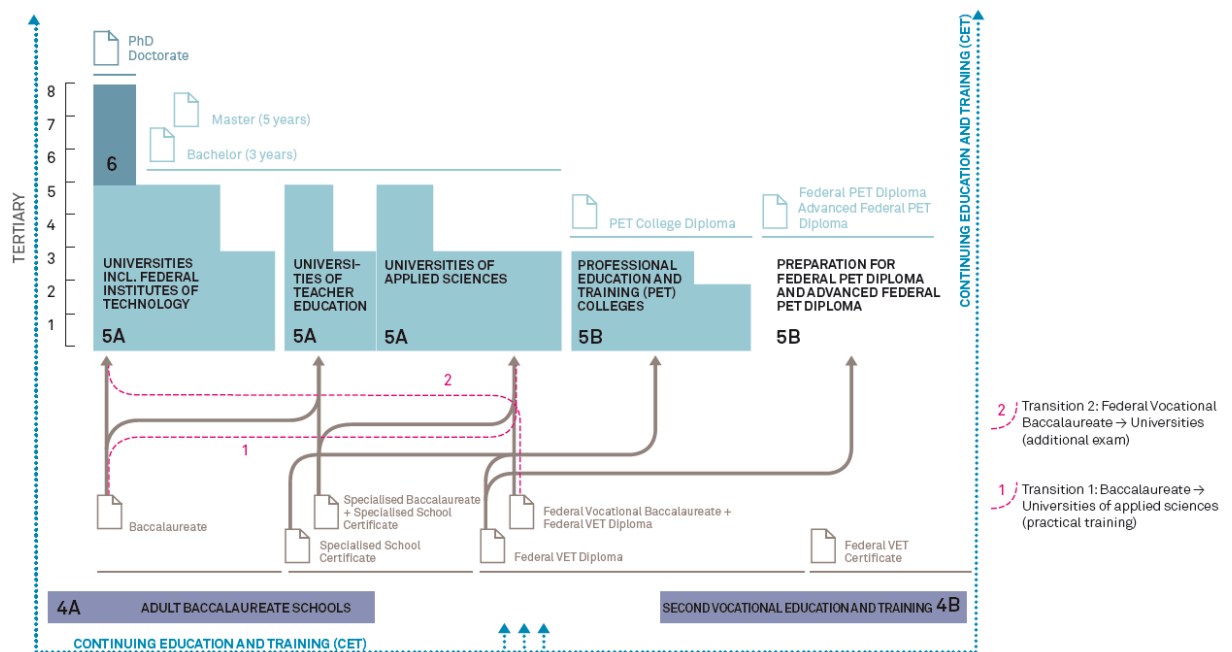
⁴ At the tertiary “A” level, there are two Federal Institutes of Technology, ten public universities, two higher education institutes, seven public Universities of Applied Sciences (UAS), two private independent Universities of Applied Sciences and 17 Universities of Teacher Education. Only the two institutes of technology are regulated by the federal government under the Federal Act on the Federal Institutes of Technology. Universities and other higher education institutions are primarily regulated by the cantonal authorities under cantonal laws.

⁵ <https://www.admin.ch/opc/en/classified-compilation/20070429/index.html>

⁶ <http://www.aseh.ch/>



and training schools in hospitality⁷ and tourism management recognized by the Swiss authorities and, in addition, five private schools offering higher diplomas (“5B” level)⁸. At the tertiary “A” level, there is one University of Applied Sciences in hospitality management (EHL), two in tourism (Institute of tourism HTW Chur & School of Management & Tourism HES-SO Valais-Wallis), and two private schools (Glion and Les Roches) owned by the American group *Laureate International Universities* as well as the recently implemented French private school Vatel. Finally, Les Roches-Gruyère is currently recognized as a private independent University of Applied Sciences, but its authorization will be ceased by 2018 at the latest.



Source: Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (EDK).⁹

Figure 1 The Swiss education system

Despite the fact that most renowned hotel and tourism management schools are either public or legally authorized, many independent schools are exclusively privately owned and can operate in Switzerland without formal authorization from either the federal or cantonal authorities. These private schools are only subject to laws and regulations pertaining to business activities and do not have any obligation related to education quality assurance. In particular, these private schools are not subject to any control or regulation from either the federal or cantonal government, nor are their diplomas or degrees recognized by the federal or cantonal authorities¹⁰. This legal loophole could undermine the reputation of Swiss hospitality

⁷ <http://www.c-es.ch/>

⁸ We only discuss private schools that are members of the Swiss Association of Hotel Schools. Source: <http://www.aseh.ch/>

⁹ <http://www.edk.ch/dyn/16833.php>

¹⁰ For public institutions or institutions recognized by the Swiss authorities, degrees are protected by Federal Law. The Swiss authorities also ensure the transferability of these degrees through bilateral agreements with other governments.



education, and quality can vary dramatically from one school to another. While these private schools contribute significantly to the Swiss economy by recruiting international students, they can be detrimental for the export of Swiss hospitality education in the long run. Therefore, stricter regulations of private hospitality and tourism education would benefit Switzerland and further enhance the competitiveness of Swiss hospitality education. Among the most important institutions legally authorized to deliver hospitality education is the University of Applied Sciences and Arts Western Switzerland (French: HES-SO, Haute école spécialisée de Suisse occidentale). The HES-SO is one of the seven regional university associations that safeguard education quality for their affiliated schools and promote scientific research in applied sciences, which include hospitality and tourism research. EHL and Ecole Suisse de Tourisme (HES-SO Valais-Wallis), also in a French-speaking region focusing on tourism, are the only two hospitality/tourism management schools affiliated with the HES-SO. Being affiliated with the HES-SO indicates that hospitality and tourism education is regarded as part of the Swiss higher education system and these schools are authorized to grant academic degrees protected by Swiss federal laws¹¹. The affiliation of these schools with the HES-SO ensures that hospitality and tourism programs stay up to date with other programs offered by public research universities. This affiliation thus sets them apart from most private hotel schools across Switzerland while strengthening the global reputation of hospitality programs offered in Switzerland.

Table 1 An overview of 22 specialized hotel and tourism management schools

<i>No.</i>	<i>School</i>	<i>Founded</i>	<i>Governance</i>	<i>Affiliation or other important accreditations</i>	<i>Major programs</i>
1	Ecole hôtelière de Lausanne (EHL)	1893	Federal and cantonal	HES-SO, NEASC, hotelleriesuisse	AAQ, BSc, MSc, EMBA
2	School of Management and Tourism (HES-SO Valais-Wallis)	1997	Federal and cantonal	HES-SO	BSc, EMBA, MAS
3	Institute of Tourism (HTW Chur)	1963	Federal and cantonal	FHO	BSc, MSc, EMBA, CAS, DAS MAS
4	Glion Institute of Higher Education	1962	Private	NEASC	BSc, MSc, MBA, Further education (postgraduate diplomas)
5	Les Roches International School of Hotel Management (Bluch & Gruyère)	1954	Private, Federal (Gruyere)	NEASC, Private UAS (Gruyère Campus)	Diploma, BSc, MSc, MBA, MAS, Postgraduate Diploma
6	Vatel Martigny	2010	French Government	CNCP, ASEH	BSc, MSc
7	Ecole hôtelière de Genève	1914	Cantonal	K-HF, ASEH, EDUQUA, Gastrosuisse	PET Diploma
8	Hotelfachschule Thun	1986	Cantonal	K-HF, ASEH	PET Diploma

¹¹ This also ensures recognition within Europe through the Bologna agreements.



9	Schweiz Hotelfachschule (SHL)	Luzern	1909	Cantonal	K-HF, ASEH, PET Diploma EDUQUA, hotelleriesuisse
10	Swiss School of Tourism and Hospitality (SSTH ¹²)		1966	Cantonal	K-HF, ASEH, PET Diploma EDUQUA, hotelleriesuisse
11	Hotelfachschule Belvoir-park		1925	Cantonal	K-HF, ASEH, PET Diploma EDUQUA, Gastrosuisse
12	Scuola superiore alberghiera e del turismo (SSAT)		1993	Cantonal	K-HF, ASEH, PET Diploma
13	Berufs-, Fach- und Fortbildungsschule (BFF)		1888 ¹³	Cantonal	K-HF, EDUQUA, PET Diploma
14	Luzern AG Höhere Fachschule für Tourismus (HFT)		2013	Cantonal	K-HF, PET Diploma
15	Internationale Schule für Touristik (IST)		1994	Cantonal	K-HF, EDUQUA, PET Diploma
16	Academia Engiadina		1995	Cantonal	K-HF, PET Diploma
17	International School of Tourism		1997	Federal and cantonal	K-HF, EDUQUA, PET Diploma
18	Hotel Institute Montreux (HIM)		1985	Private	ASEH, NEASC ¹⁴ , Swiss Higher Diploma, BSc*, EDUQUA, THE-ICE, Postgraduate Diploma, Master ¹⁵
19	Swiss Hotel Management School Caux, Leysin (SHMS)		1992	Private	ASEH, EDUQUA, Swiss Higher Diploma, BSc*, MSc*, Postgraduate Diploma, Master ¹⁶
20	School of Hotel Management Neuchâtel (IHTTI)		1986	Private	ASEH, EDUQUA, Swiss Higher Diploma, BSc*, Postgraduate Diploma, Master ¹⁷
21	César Ritz Colleges Switzerland		1982	Private	ASEH, EDUQUA, tedQual, Swiss Higher Diploma, BSc*, MSc*, MA*
22	Culinary Arts Academy Switzerland		1997	Private	ASEH, THE-ICE, Swiss Higher Diploma, BSc*, Postgraduate Diploma, Master ¹⁸

Notes: Some schools, which are not authorized to grant degrees by the Swiss federal or cantonal authorities or by their own governments and are not accredited by a reputable agency and are not a member of the Association of Swiss Hotel Schools (ASEH), are deliberately disregarded since there are serious doubts regarding the quality of their programs. Degrees granted by institutions indicated as *Private* are not protected by the federal or cantonal laws and there is no guarantee of the recognition of the degrees awarded by these schools. Degrees

¹² SSTH became a member of EHL Group in 2013.

¹³ BFF was originally a sewing school founded in 1888. Its housekeeping program was inception in 1938, making it a hospitality school.

¹⁴ At the vocational level, by the Committee on Technical and Career Institutions (CTCI).

¹⁵ No official recognitions found pertaining to these degrees.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ Ibid.



indicated with an asterisk (*) are not granted by the schools but by their partner universities abroad.

Some hospitality and tourism schools also turn to seek a variety of domestic or international accreditations, not only to attest to the quality of their programs, but also to obtain the international recognition required for attracting international students. For instance, EHL, Glion and Les Roches have been accredited by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the New England Association of Schools & Colleges, Inc. (CIHE-NEASC). At the national level, EHL's EMBA in Hospitality Administration has also been positively evaluated by the Swiss Agency of Accreditation and Quality Assurance (formerly OAQ)¹⁹. Other hotel management schools are following this trend, but since most of them are virtually at the "5B" level they do not have access to higher education accrediting agencies. For instance, the eduQua²⁰ is typically an accreditation body for the "5B" level institutions and further professional education. Seeking partnerships with foreign universities is hence a strategy that such schools adopted in order to offer programs at the tertiary "A" level and attract international students. Nonetheless, the international partners of these schools are usually poorly ranked by a verity of university rankings²¹.

Research Practices in Swiss Hotel Schools: The Case of EHL²²

Recent decades have seen the creation of an increasing number of doctoral tourism and hospitality programs offered by various institutions across the world. One of the objectives is to legitimate tourism and hospitality as a field, or even a discipline, of scientific research. Yet executing academic research in Swiss hotel management schools is difficult. This is because these schools have a long tradition and commitment to training practitioners for the industry instead of researchers. It is difficult also because most hotel schools are private and excluded from the scheme of public research universities. All hotel management schools are teaching-based and the majority of them are outside of the university system. Despite the fact that tourism and hospitality warrants scientific attention, practicing research casts doubt among stakeholders on whether scientific research (including implementing PhD programs) is necessary for specialized hotel management schools in Switzerland.

The tourism and hospitality industry has also doubted whether a master student is superior to a bachelor when it comes to handling practical and management duties. If a master's program

¹⁹ <http://aaq.ch/en/>

²⁰ http://www.eduqua.ch/002alc_00_en.htm

²¹ Some schools, for instance, offer degrees through the University of Derby: <http://www.derby.ac.uk/>

²² We discuss Swiss hospitality and tourism education programs by citing Ecole hôtelière de Lausanne (EHL) as an example.

Therefore, the readers should caution that the EHL experience may not apply to other Swiss hospitality and tourism management schools, nor represent the *status quo* of the Swiss hospitality and tourism education as a whole. While citing EHL as an example, this article does not represent the views of the school but solely of the authors.



cannot sufficiently advance students' intellectual competences in translating theory into practice, the industry may probably question whether a master's degree, not to mention a PhD, is really necessary for the industry. This, in turn, causes students to rethink whether they should pursue a master's degree in hospitality and whether it is valuable for their career development. Since scientific research has rarely been the focus of Swiss hotel schools, in what follows we aim to introduce research and innovation practices pioneered by EHL.

Academic Research: How Industrial Practice Drives Research

Academic research in tourism and hospitality has been promoted by the regional university associations. One in Western Switzerland is the HES-SO, which has 28 affiliated schools that focus on applied research in various disciplines. EHL is the only hotel management school affiliated with the HES-SO, indicating that academic research implemented by hotel management schools themselves is extremely limited and restricted. For the vast majority of hotel schools outside of the HES-SO system, academic research is by no means necessary nor a strategy for advancing their existing educational programs. Given the practical nature of hospitality and tourism programs, academic research sponsored by the HES-SO is application-oriented, aiming at fostering the transfer of theoretical applications into industry. This constitutes one of the pillars of innovation in the Swiss economy, which not only encompasses manufacturing industries and technology but also includes services and education. Academic research is also supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF) for encouraging innovation in the economy.

EHL commenced scientific research as an affiliated school of the HES-SO in 1998. Since Mr Michel Rochat, CEO of EHL, joined the school in 2010, research activities at EHL have been substantially reinforced. In December 2014, EHL established the Lausanne Hospitality Research Center (LHRC) as a concrete step to promote academic research in hospitality, tourism and business-related fields. The LHRC currently has 22 research fellows with diverse disciplinary backgrounds from economics, marketing, management, financing, accounting to tourism and hospitality. The LHRC aims to promote research that can penetrate into mainstream management disciplines, particularly marketing, strategy, management, economics, and finance and accounting. This research, which is rooted in mainstream management disciplines, should help to generate high-quality applied research for tourism and hospitality. Instead of seeing tourism and hospitality as a distinct discipline, we aim to advance applied hospitality and tourism research that can be a reference for mainstream business-related disciplines. The key to disentangling the longstanding debate of discipline or indiscipline of tourism and hospitality is to ground industry-specific research in mainstream disciplines. This helps to consolidate the theoretical foundation of tourism and hospitality research while leveraging it to a disciplinary level that can keep abreast of developments in mainstream management research.



Industrial Innovations: How Research Intelligence Fuels Industry Development

The academic endeavors at EHL are also manifested as a strategy of injecting research into its long-established teaching programs. Scientific research can help to address the lack of innovation and entrepreneurship in tourism and hospitality. It is difficult to practice innovation in service industries like hospitality and tourism. Therefore, applied research can fuel industry development by incubating innovative ideas in laboratories and turn these ideas into business solutions and entrepreneurship. In 2000, EHL established what is called Student Business Projects (SBP) as one example of cultivating innovation for the industry. These projects aim to facilitate transformation of business ideas from students and faculty to industrial practices. The concept of the SBP itself is also an innovation, which has created a new model of academia-industry collaboration. It was implemented because the hospitality and tourism industry requires various types of innovations ranging from service production to distribution management while the industry itself may not be able to generate this type of innovation.

The SBP concept works on a trilateral platform, comprised of clients, students and faculty. In order to integrate this concept into teaching and learning, the principal relationship is established between students, who provide innovative ideas and implement these ideas, and clients, who represent companies in a wide range of industries. Faculty members serve as supervisors and mentors in providing expertise and guiding students as they carry out their SBP mandate. Since faculty members are not directly involved in the project nor have direct contact with the clients, the SBP underscores the pivotal role of students as the main contributor of the innovation. A typical project works as follows. Clients suggest their problems and detail deliverables of solutions which they need. Students work in groups of 4-6 and select the problems and the client that interest them. It takes around 10 weeks for students to come up with a solution that can be implemented by the clients. A well-crafted and feasible solution requires students to clearly identify the problems, contact the clients on a regular basis and administer a series of market research studies.

SBPs are rewarding to students, the school, and the industry and count towards the bachelor's degree. The industry obtains solutions at a lower cost while quality is ensured by the school. SBPs have especially been popular with small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and startups in Switzerland, which often lack financial resources but have the same thirst for innovation as large corporations. Since 2000, the SBP concept has served 450 companies and generated a total of 750 solutions for a variety of industry sectors. This sort of innovation has grown in importance in recent decades, exemplified by new business models, such as booking.com, Uber, and Airbnb, which have redefined the landscape and the world economy. The origin of hospitality, referred to as crafting enjoyable relationships between the guest and the host, is also expanding to other industries for creating a holistic consumer experience. The



Swiss watchmaking industry started to integrate the hospitality concept into its operations as it provides a luxurious experience to its customers. The role of research and innovation in facilitating such integration becomes enticing when innovators are students. Since students are prospective guests, consumers and users, they innovate today for themselves tomorrow.

CONCLUSION

The obstacles for Swiss hotel and tourism schools to practicing research is the governance of Swiss higher education that excludes these schools from the “6A” category. The high specialization of tourism and hospitality education indicates that programs are exclusively provided by hotel schools for advancing vocational training and professional education. This governance has impeded the development of research performances in Swiss hotel schools and also undermined the capability of these schools to compete with universities in North America, Australia and Asia. For elite institutions like EHL, the inclusion of scientific research in hospitality education is a means of corroborating teaching, and thereby upgrading hospitality education from the bachelor level to the postgraduate level. Academic research, including innovation as evidenced by EHL’s SBP concept, can unleash students’ curiosity regarding innovation that is useful to the industry and complements textbook-based learning. This does not only apply to master’s or doctoral students but also to a vast majority of undergraduates who can practice user-based innovation and research. By practicing research, students can be trained to be forward-looking and to lead the industry rather than simply to deal with operations. It is also a means for hotel schools to address what the industry needs in the fast-changing business environment.

For the leading hospitality schools, practicing academic research is a strategy of differentiation, helping them compete not only with their Swiss counterparts but also with the world’s prestigious hospitality and business schools. Hospitality education has been redefined over the past decade, shifting from the bachelor’s level to a more comprehensive package that incorporates PhD programs (Severt et al., 2009). Hospitality management schools compete to provide high-quality education programs that can provide students with various learning experiences. Academic research can increase hospitality schools’ profile, which is not easy to achieve by simply focusing on teaching and vocational training. In addition, competition for students occurs not only among tourism and hospitality schools but also between hospitality schools and traditional business schools. As the hospitality industry is becoming highly integrated, traditional business schools are tailoring their programs, in particular MBAs and the like, to capture the new trend and equip students with what they need in leading the industry. For this reason, it would be risky if hospitality schools overlooked or underestimated the importance of academic research.



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**THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL VALUE, ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT ON JOB PERFORMANCE: THE DISCUSSION OF POST
90S**

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ABSTRACT

Post 90s, refers to Chinese young generation born after 1990. so far from 2012, post 90s employees has become the backbone of enterprise development. This group has become the focus of the Chinese society, mainly because of their growth environment along with the rapid development of material economy and the network media, created their unique personality: forceful character of his/her own, strong self-consciousness, and poor ability to resist stress. For managers, the changes in personality characteristics of management object will lead to chain reactions. So facing the change of social situation, the traditional theory of human resource management should be adjusted. In this paper, post 90s employees as the research object, compares with the staff of other decade from the influence of organizational value, organizational commitment on job performance, and gives some advice from the perspective of organizational value to improve the management level of enterprises to post 90s employees.

Key Words: Organizational Value, Organizational Commitment, Job Performance, Post 90s

INTRODUCTION

Workforce development has become a critical factor in the knowledge age, and employees born after the 90s (hereafter: post 90s) play an increasingly important role in enterprise construction and development. Material satisfaction cannot guarantee the quality and stability of post 90s because of their growing background and personalities; this scenario is different from that in the employees born in 70s or 80s. Traditional mental stimulation (e.g.,



recognition of honor, criticism) no longer exerts a good incentive effect. Generally, the post 90s have distinctive personalities; they do not like being restrained, have a strong sense of self, and are vulnerable to pressure. For this reason, the post 90s are diversified but have an uncertain understanding and expectation with regard to the enterprise. They pay much attention to psychological responsibility, interpersonal relationship, work environment, organizational commitment, and other non-material incentives. With the changing needs of employees, enterprises should reconsider their strategy and tactics of workforce construction, especially when dealing with post 90s.

Organizational commitment refers to members' attitudes and behavior with respect to the organization; it reflects the psychological contact among individuals, organizations, and objectives (Buchanan, 1974). Job performance reflects the results of members achieving the goals set by the organization. A large number of studies have shown that organizational commitment is closely linked to job performance. Meanwhile, studies on post 90s are scarce. In China, the generation born in 80s. Faced with the one-child policy and the change in social culture, this generation elicits much attention when they at the working age. Post 90s discussed herein have completely different background, and the three main reasons for this condition are as follows: First, the post 90s was raised during China's economic take-off. Thus, parents are highly capable of meeting the high demand for materials. As a result, the post 90s place much emphasis on spiritual needs instead of materials. Second, the post 90s was raised in the era of network boom; owing to the low cost of networks, information flows rapidly. Social networking has made virtual relationships popular and the emotional links between organizations and individuals increasingly difficult. Third, in the era of media development, short-term wealth and luxury consumption are excessively emphasized, whereas traditional loyalty and the hardworking Confucian spirit are interpreted as hedonistic.

We consider post 90s as an example. Who began to work at 18 years old and has now worked for seven or eight years and serves as the core for an enterprise. However, post 90s have a distinct personality, respect for freedom, and high turnover rate, which are not conducive to the management and long-term development of human resources. This paper mainly discusses post 90s and analyzes the effect of organizational commitment on the job performance. The goal is to help enterprises understand the psychological needs of employees; provide full play to the enthusiasm, creativity, and intelligence of employees; ensure high-level employee cohesion; reduce the cost of enterprise management; and enrich the academic study on new-generation employees and the theory of the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Post 90s specifically refers to individuals born from 1990 to 1999. Thus far, employees after the 90s have reached the lawful age stipulated in the Labor Law. Most of these employees are college and university students according to the Chinese mode of education,



and several of them have obtained a master's degree. Analysis of the growing background of post 90s and review of existing literature indicate that employees after the 90s have the following distinctive features.

- a. Overall high-level education: Compulsory education was implemented in 1990. Parents of the generation after the 90s who are after the 60s pay more attention to their children's education than parents after the 50s and 40s. Given the extensive popularization of compulsory education, the education level of post 90s is generally high. However, high-level education renders employees after the 90s impatient; they refuse to start from the grassroots or submit to management, thereby causing difficulty to the enterprise's human resource management.
- b. Ability to accept new things: With the popularization and development of China's Internet, post 90s can accept new things, leading to a wide range of knowledge and strong ability to accept things. Meanwhile, luxurious life and honor of successful people shown on the Internet caused post 90s to avert constantly from beautiful dreams and mundane reality; these employees are inevitably impatient, impetuous, and anxious.
- c. Spiritual and material requirements: Employees post 70s and 80s pay much attention to material satisfaction, whereas employees after the 90s require spiritual satisfaction aside from material satisfaction because of the continuous improvement of their material life. As a result, employees after the 90s consider spiritual satisfaction more important than material needs sometimes.
- d. Poor mental capacity: Post 90s is the only child of the family; the members of this generation were greatly spoiled during the growth process. With a highly stable living environment, minimal setbacks, and satisfaction of material needs, post 90s have poor mental capability, which means they are likely to run away from setbacks.

Currently, studies on post 90s are limited. The available literature was published between 2010 and 2014. Zheng (2012) studied post 90s in labor-intensive enterprises as well as staff and established incentives of post 90s China's labor-intensive enterprises. Lee (2012) analyzed the job characteristic of post 90s and the challenge posed to the enterprise management system and built a management system for post 90s. Chang (2013) regarded the XJ Group as an example and studied the psychological contract of post 90s and its effect on their turnover intention. Sun (2013) studied the post 90s working in production industry and conducted an empirical analysis of the influence of psychological contract violation on leave.

B. Organizational value is the core of organizational culture. Organizational value refers to the value commonly accepted, held, believed, shared, and complied with by organizational members (Hofstede, 1990; Hsu, 1977). One of the research directions of organizational value is the effect of employee behavior guidance on an employee's personal values. Wiener (1988) pointed out that when an organization has a strong organizational culture and organizational value system, employees' awareness of organizational values tends to the same, and the



difference between personal value and organizational value can be eliminated. Employees recognize and accept the organizational value. Most studies reported that organizational value can effectively influence employee attitudes toward work and the organization (Williams, 2002). O'Reilly et al., (1988) explored this topic from seven dimensions, including innovation and fairness. Denison and Mishra (1995) discussed this topic from four dimensions, namely, mission, consistency, input, and adaptation. Subsequent scholars also discussed the effectiveness of organizational value from various viewpoints (Wang, 2012). However, the objects of their studies were baby boomers born after the war. The second generation and even the third-generation experienced different social environments and personal pursuits, especially organizational commitment that connects the organization and employees; meanwhile, the values of new employees may result in different effects.

C. Organizational commitment may also be referred to as loyalty to the organization; it is defined as when individuals have uncertainty investment or goals that are related to outside interests and the consistency they strive to maintain (Backer and Petterson, 1960). Buchanan (1974) believes believed that organizational commitment is a type of belief. It is the emotional tie between organizational value and goal to individual and personal goal and value. Wiener (1982) thinks that organizational commitment reflects the personal sacrifice of organizations, individuals' attention, and input of time and effort to the organization. Scholars conducted studies on organizational commitment and found that organizational commitment can be divided into three aspects, namely, individuals' goal value to the organization, goal value related to personal role, and individuals' recognition to the organization (Buchanan, 1974). Alternatively, it can also be defined as individuals' efforts to achieve organizational benefit, individuals' acceptance of organizational goals, and strong faith of values (Porter, and Steers, 1974). Current academic studies on organizational commitment have three main directions (Yu, 2008): attitude, behavior, and integration. Studies on attitude discuss how to cultivate individuals' recognition of organizational value, their willingness to fight for organizational goals, and their wish to stay in the organization. Studies directed toward behavior mainly discuss the relationship between a particular act and organizational commitment. Studies directed toward integration discuss the two factors and their relationship (Staw and Salancik, 1977). Allen and Meyer (1990) believe that organizational commitment can be divided into normative, continued, and emotional commitment from the perspective of integration.

D. Job performance is the focus of enterprise and academic research, and the objects of job performance studies are employees and enterprises. Employees are the direct factors that affect job performance, and this paper mainly discusses the job performance of employees after the 90s. International scholars began to study job performance in the 1970s, and their studies mainly focused on assessing performance, setting performance goals, and improving



job performance. However, the definition of job performance is not unified, and the most important difference lies in whether job performance is a behavior or the determination of results.

Murphy (1995) believes that job performance is a series of behaviors that individuals complete to realize organizational goal value. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) thinks that job performance is a series of behaviors conducted by employees in the process of working for the organization to achieve organizational goals. The sharing degree of these behaviors is the criteria for judging the effectiveness of behavior. Porter and Lawler (1971) defines job performance as the quantity, quality, and input completed by employees. Oster (1991) regards job performance as the result of the work achieved by employees within a specific time. Fang and Ling (2003) divides job performance into individuals and organizations; these two pertain to individuals' completion of work assigned by the organization and the results that the organization realizes to achieve its objectives. Several scholars believe that job performance is both a behavior and a result.

E. Studies have also been conducted on the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance. Steers (1977) found that organizational commitment has a certain but insignificant effect on job performance, and no consistent relationship exists between organizational commitment and job performance. Eder and Eisenberger (2008) showed that only organizational support has a positive effect on job performance. Many scholars have also studied the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance. Different research variables have led to different study conclusions. The questionnaire study conducted by Shi (2009) showed that personality characteristics play an important role in the relationship between employee commitment and job performance. By studying credit card customer service employees, Wang (2010) found that such employees obtain a high score in ideal commitment, indicating these employees receive good promotion opportunities. Meanwhile, a low score in affective commitment indicates employees' low level of loyalty to the organization. Differentiation studies on organizational commitment concluded that a difference in gender, marital status, and education results in different levels of organizational commitment. Employees with different levels of organizational commitment exhibit different job performances; organizational commitment and job performance thus have a significant positive correlation.

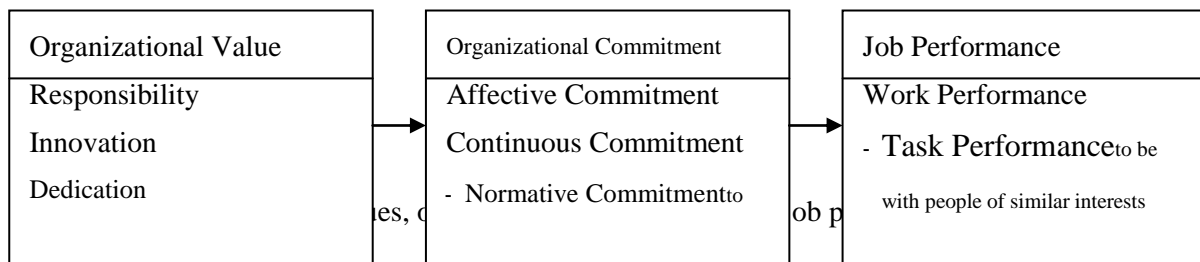
RESEARCH FRAME

The unique characteristics of employees after the 90s pose a significant challenge on enterprises' human resource management. This paper proposes the possible theoretical differences among post 90s from the perspective of traditional human resources theory. First, With regard to the concept of management, employees after the 90s pay much attention to spiritual satisfaction. They are particularly eager for understanding and respect, and they desire equal communication and exchange with colleagues. Traditional paternalistic and



passive management is unable to meet the needs of employees after the 90s, and humane and participatory management should be adopted. Second, With regard to work purpose, post 90s have poor anti-pressure ability and adaptability. They do not like working under pressure. To handle post 90s, enterprises should focus on long-term development of employees and pay attention to the development of employees instead of placing too much pressure on employees to achieve short-term benefits. Third, Post 90s are good at using the Internet, have extensive knowledge, and prefer elastic and flexible work. Thus, enterprises should establish a diversified management platform. Forth, With regard to employee relationship, employees after the 90s have a relatively high requirement of working atmosphere; they are eager to have a pleasant and personalized atmosphere and hope to become friends with their colleagues. Therefore, enterprises should establish a harmonious working environment to improve employee relationship. Based on the abovementioned points, this paper establishes the following hypotheses.

- H₁: Organizational value has a positive effect on organizational commitment.
- H_{1a}: Employees after the 90s and employees before the 90s have strong differences in terms of the effect of organizational value on organizational commitment.
- H₂: Organizational value has a positive effect on job performance.
- H_{2a}: Employees after the 90s and employees before the 90s have strong differences in terms of the effect of organizational value on job performance.
- H₃: Organizational commitment has a positive effect on job performance.
- H_{3a}: Employees after the 90s and employees before the 90s have strong differences in terms of the effect of organizational commitment on job performance.



Post90s pay different amounts of attention to organizational value and organizational commitment. As previously mentioned, Post 90s enjoy great material satisfaction; such that an enterprise's organizational value and organizational commitment cannot be measured from material value but from the spiritual dimension. This study divides organizational value into integrity, responsibility, innovation, and dedication. Organizational commitment is divided into affective, continuous, and normative commitment. Job performance is also divided into work performance and task performance. This study suggests that organizational value directly affects the job performance of employees and that this effect is implemented through organizational commitment. We also used Cronbach α as the coefficient to test the internal



consistency of the factors in the questionnaire. As we can see from the table 1, the questionnaire of this article has good reliability.

Table 1

Reliability

		Number of questions	Pre test Cronbach α	Final Cronbach α
Organizational Value		16	0.903	0.906
	Responsibility	6	0.822	0.829
	Innovation	5	0.811	0.825
	Dedication	5	0.823	0.815
Organizational Commitment		15	0.775	0.867
	Affective Commitment	6	0.822	0.843
	Continuous Commitment	6	0.658	0.653
	Normative Commitment	6	0.780	0.811
Job Performance		12	0.703	0.791
	Work Performance	6	0.779	0.828
	Task Performance	6	0.781	0.788
ALL		43	0.895	0.874

The questionnaire design is site by Zheng (1990) sixteen questions of organizational value; site by Allen and Myer (1991) fifteen questions of organizational commitment; sited by Motowidlo and Scotter (1994) twelve questions of job performance and population control variables in final. the pre test reliability is show in Table 1. According to the research of Cramer and Bryman(1997), if the internal reliability coefficient of the scale between 0.6 to 0.8, which represents a high reliability, if the coefficient more the 0.8, it shows that the scale has very high reliability. Although few coefficient of the pre-text reliability in this questionnaire is less than 0.80, but all the reliability is 0.895.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

We had distributed 413 questionnaires by network, 343 valid questionnaires were collected after deducting invalid questionnaires. The recovery rate was 83.05%. In the respondents, the percentages of Post 90s is 63.97%. The age of post 90s is 25 in 2015, so the percentages of unmarried, master and length of service more than 6 years is small. The percentages of men and women in the sample are roughly equal. The length of service of most respondents is less than two years, and the position of most respondents is the general staff. The descriptive statistics of the sample are shown in table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

	Attributes	Obs.	(%)	Obs. of Post 90s	(%)
Gender	Male	148	43.15	91	61.48
	Female	195	56.85	125	64.10
Marriage	Married	280	81.64	209	74.64
	Unmarried	63	18.36	7	11.11
Education	high school or lower	14	4.08	6	42.85



	Universities	277	80.75	195	70.39
Working Age	Master or higher	52	15.16	15	28.84
	2 years or lower	232	67.63	197	84.91
	3-5 years	54	15.74	14	25.92
	6-10 years	30	8.74	3	10.00
Position	11 years or higher	27	7.87	2	7.40
	General Staff	248	72.30	187	75.40
	Junior Manager	72	20.99	22	6.41
Age	Senior Manager	23	6.70	7	30.43
	Post 90s	216	62.97		
	Before 90s	127	37.02		

Eight factors are obtained by the principal component analysis method, The number of variables contained in each factor is not less than 3. The result were shown in table 3. The first factor consists six variables, according to the factor score big to small, the six variable is A1-1, A1-3, A1-2, A1-5, A1-4, A1-6, they are related to responsibility, so the first factor is named responsibility. By analogy, we get the second factor--innovation, the third factor--dedication. These three factors belong to the organizational value. We get the fourth factor--affective commitment, the fifth factor continuous commitment, and the sixth factor--normative commitment, these three factors belongs to organizational commitment. We get the seventh factor--work performance, the eighth factor-- task performance, these two factors belong to job performance.

Table 3

Factor Loading Matrix

	Organizational Value			Organizational Commitment			Job Performance	
	Respo nsibilit y	Innova tion	Dedica tion	Affecti ve Comm itment	Conti n uous Comm itment	Norma tive Comm itment	Work Perfor mance	Task Perfor mance
A1-1	0.794			B1-3	0.796		C1-5	0.749
A1-3	0.766			B1-4	0.776		C1-3	0.745
A1-2	0.763			B1-5	0.769		C1-1	0.724
A1-5	0.734			B1-2	0.695		C1-6	0.681
A1-4	0.708			B1-1	0.678		C1-2	0.631
A1-6	0.588			B1-6	0.654		C1-4	0.605
A2-3		0.772		B2-2		0.797	C2-1	0.800
A2-2		0.761		B2-3		0.774	C2-2	0.735
A2-1		0.752		B2-1		0.740	C2-6	0.711
A2-5		0.746		B3-4			C2-4	0.670
A2-4		0.742		B3-3			C2-5	0.658
A3-2			0.818	B3-5		0.706	C2-3	0.572
A3-3			0.817	B3-1		0.670		
A3-4			0.782	B3-6		0.666		
A3-5			0.736	B3-2		0.662		
A3-1			0.669					



Through independent sample *t* test, we analysis whether there is a significant difference in the organizational values, organizational commitment and job performances between the post 90s and before 90s. We can see from the table 4, the difference in the organizational value between post 90s and before 90s is significant ($p < 0.01$), and so in the organizational commitment (except continuous commitment, $p < 0.05$). The difference in the job performance between post 90s and before 90s is non-significant ($p > 0.05$). View from the secondary indexes, the difference in responsibility, innovation, dedication between post 90s and before 90s is significant, but least significant in the work performance. On the basis of factor analysis and difference analysis, we further study whether the impacts of organizational value on organizational commitment, organizational value on job performance and organizational commitment on job performance is significant, and whether there are difference between these impacts.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance

		Post 90s		Before 90s		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
		AVE.	STD	AVE.	STD		
Organizational Value		3.89	0.62	3.56	0.62	4.74	<0.001
	Responsibility	3.91	0.72	3.48	0.82	5.01	<0.001
	Innovation	3.97	0.67	3.64	0.70	4.34	<0.001
	Dedication	3.79	0.78	3.51	0.76	3.17	0.002
Organizational Commitment		3.48	0.51	3.32	0.52	2.80	0.005
	Affective Commitment	3.53	0.73	3.37	0.70	2.00	0.046
	Continuous Commitment	3.40	0.88	3.27	0.94	1.33	0.180
	Normative Commitment	3.46	0.67	3.29	0.75	2.21	0.028
Job Performance		3.60	0.43	3.52	0.52	1.46	0.145
	Work Performance	3.52	0.62	3.49	0.74	0.49	0.624
	Task Performance	3.67	0.63	3.55	0.69	1.67	0.096

Table 5

Regression Analysis

	Organizational Commitment		Job Performance			
	Post 90s	Before 90s	Post 90s	Before 90s	Post 90s	Before 90s
interception	1.971** (0.194)	1.707** (0.226)	2.910** (0.178)	2.388** (0.249)	2.748** (0.200)	2.2524** (0.284)
Organizational Value						
Responsibility	0.101 (0.057)	0.059 (0.063)	0.132* (0.052)	0.173* (0.069)		
Innovation	0.069 (0.063)	0.223** (0.073)	-0.081 (0.058)	0.067 (0.081)		
Dedication	0.221** (0.051)	0.168* (0.064)	0.130** (0.047)	0.081 (0.071)		



Organizational Commitment						
Affective Commitment					0.212** (0.047)	0.343** (0.078)
Continuous Commitment					-0.015 (0.031)	-0.029 (0.044)
Normative Commitment					0.043 (0.052)	0.061 (0.071)
F	24.36**	17.48**	8.79**	8.3**	14.69**	16.56**
Adj R ²	0.246	0.282	0.098	0.148	0.160	0.270
N	216	127	216	127	216	127

Note: * <0.05 , ** <0.01

From the table 5, the value of R^2 is 0.246; F is 24.36 ($p<0.01$) in the regression analysis of organizational value and organizational commitment of employees post 90s. This shows organizational value has a positive significant effect on organizational commitment in employees post 90s, and the effect of dedication on organizational commitment is the most significant. The value of R^2 is 0.282; F is 17.48 ($p<0.01$) in the regression analysis of organizational value and organizational commitment of employees before 90s. This shows organizational value has a positive significant effect on organizational commitment in the employees before 90s, and the effect of innovation on organizational commitment is the most significant ($p<0.01$), the effect of dedication on organizational commitment is significant ($p<0.05$). In conclusion, we support the hypothesis H_1 . The effect of innovation on organizational commitment is non-significant in employees post 90s ($p>0.05$), but significant in employees before 90s ($p<0.01$), so we support the hypothesis H_{1a} . Employees post 90s and employees before 90s have strong differences in terms of the effect of organizational value on organizational commitment.

The value of R^2 is 0.098; F is 14.69 ($p<0.01$) in the regression analysis of organizational value and job performance of employees post 90s. This shows organizational value has a positive significant effect on job performance in employees post 90s, so we support the hypothesis H_2 . The effect of dedication on job performance is non-significant in employees post 90s ($p>0.05$), but significant in employees before 90s ($p<0.05$), so we support hypothesis H_{2a} . Employees post 90s and employees before 90s have strong differences in terms of the effect of organizational value on job performance. The regression coefficients in the regression analysis of organizational commitment and job performance are positive. This shows organizational commitment has a positive significant effect on job performance. So we support hypothesis H_3 . But there have no significant difference in terms of the effect of organizational commitment on job performance between the post 90s and before 90s. So we reject hypothesis H_{3a} .



Conclusion

This paper makes a comparative study of the effect of organizational value on organizational commitment, organizational value on job performance and the organizational commitment on job performance. We make our conclusions:

A. Organizational value has a positive effect on organizational commitment. Employees post 90s and employees before 90s have significant differences in terms of the effect of organizational value on organizational commitment. Between the three dimensions of organizational value, the effect of innovation on organizational commitment is the most significant difference. Enterprises should be differentiated in terms of employee organizational value training between post 90s and before 90s. Enterprises should cultivate a healthy organizational value according to the characteristics of post 90s, pay special attention to the cultivation of the innovation, which will help them to make a positive commitment to the enterprises.

B. Organizational value has a positive effect on job performance. Employee post 90s and employees before 90s have significant differences in terms of the effect of organizational value on job performance. Between the three dimensions of organizational value; the effect of dedication on job performance is the most significant difference. Similarly, this also requires enterprises pay special attention to difference of the dedication training between post 90s and before 90s.

C. Organizational commitment has a positive effect on job performance. Employee post 90s and employees before 90s have non-significant differences in terms of the effect of organizational commitment on job performance. Between the three dimensions of organizational commitment; the effect of affective commitment on job performance is the most significant. Enterprises should pay special attention to cultivate employees' affective commitment and the sense of belonging to enterprises.

This paper makes a comparative study between post 90s and before 90s, which has a great significance for both the individual performance and the overall performance of the enterprise. 2016, employees post 90s have been the main force in the workplace. For enterprises, only know more about this main force, can stimulate their work enthusiasm, and promote the great-leap-forward development of the job performance.

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CUSTOMERS' EXPECTATIONS OF HOTEL GREEN MARKETING: A NEW ZEALAND CASE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates customer perceptions of green marketing strategies and activities. Focusing on the New Zealand context, the quantitative study aims to assist green hoteliers to better develop green marketing to improve such initiatives in the hotel industry. The results showed that effective strategies were those in which green products were seen as special, used internet technology to disseminate green initiatives to customers, green practices were undertaken at the premises, appropriate business partners were used, with environmentally friendly distribution channels and the overall image was believed to encourage customers to purchase green products at a green hotel.

Key Words: green hotel marketing, consumer behaviour, environmental friendly operation.

INTRODUCTION

The green marketing concept emerged in the late 1980s when people became aware of the destruction of the environment resulting from economic growth (Peattie & Crane, 2005). This destruction, caused by pollution, global warming and deforestation, resulted in the emergence of a new type of consumer concerned about the well-being of the environment. Because of increased environmental awareness, some people changed their lifestyles and decision-making to accommodate environmental concerns. These consumers also demanded products and services which support environmental conservation or at least have a minimal negative impact on the environment. Their demands encouraged companies to launch new products and services labelled 'environmentally friendly' or 'green' (Peattie, 1995). Demands for



environmentally friendly products encourage hotels to react appropriately, by participating in the ‘green movement’ (Lee, Hsu, Han, & Kim, 2010). With the stronger demand for environmentally friendly products and hotels (Kang, Stein, Heo, & Lee, 2012), actual purchasing was expected to increase, but purchasing of green products seems to have declined over time (Peattie & Crane, 2005). The inconsistency between the perceived willingness to purchase environmentally friendly products and actual purchasing habits requires further exploration.

In terms of the hotel sector, green marketing seems to be one innovation that helps promote green products sold by hotels. Thus, many hotels have a firm commitment in their green marketing strategies to convince customers to purchase their products (Chan, 2013). Another inconsistency therefore exists, between the increased commitment of hoteliers and the decreased consumption by customers. Review of previous literature shows that there is a lack of research in the green marketing area (Myung, McClaren, & Li, 2012). This study intends to add to the knowledge of green marketing, especially from a customer perspective, in a New Zealand context. It aims to identify customer perceptions and expectations of green marketing strategies used by hotels in New Zealand. The New Zealand context was chosen because there has been little (if any) research on this topic. Additionally, the reliance of New Zealand’s tourism sector on the natural environment makes this research topic particularly significant. Industry operators will gain knowledge on how best to position their marketing strategies in alignment with customer needs and also how to anticipate whether their green investments are likely to be profitable. For the wider community, the study will develop a better understanding of hotels’ green marketing initiatives. For customers, this study will assist with a better interpretation of their opinions, expectations and understandings in relation to green marketing. Consequently, the purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of customers’ perception of green hotel marketing strategies and their expectation on green marketing related activities and green practices.

This paper attempts to report the findings of a quantitative study focusing on conference delegates in Auckland, New Zealand. It first provides a review of literature on customers’ perspectives of green hotel, hoteliers’ commitment to green marketing strategies, customers’ perceptions of green marketing, green products, green pricing, green promotion and green distribution. The results are discussed after describing the methods of data collection and analysis.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The growing segment of green consumers has affected the hotel industry worldwide. Their demand for environmentally friendly products has encouraged the development of a green marketplace and environmentally responsible business (Lee, Hsu, Han, & Kim, 2010; Baker, Davis, & Weaver, 2013). This green marketplace is developing in many parts of the world,



delivering green products and services to green consumers (Hartmann & Ibanez, 2006). Hotels participating in the green marketplace are called ‘green hotels’. The concept of green hotels is articulated by the Green Hotel Association (GHA), which defines them as ‘environmentally friendly properties whose managers are eager to institute programmes that save water, save energy and reduce solid waste –while saving money – to help protect our one and only earth’ (Green Hotel Association, 2014). Additionally, green practices are seen to be irresponsible towards other operational concerns in many cases. The business agenda of preserving a high quality environment and mitigating the negative effects to the environment, has contributed to rising criticism of existing tourism practices. Many customers express their doubts about hotels’ intentions in relation to their green initiatives and the effectiveness of green practices on environmental well-being. Thus, some customers demand detailed information about the scope and effectiveness of environmental protection actions that businesses undertake (Grosbois, 2012). This detailed information about the effectiveness of green practices can be provided as part of green marketing initiatives.

Different companies have taken various approaches to green marketing. One approach is the use of marketing-mix tools in relation to product, price, promotion and place, as developed by Ginsberg and Bloom (2004). These authors suggested that green marketing strategies can be divided into four main categories: (1) the lean green strategy, (2) the defensive green strategy, (3) the shaded green strategy and (4) the extreme green strategy. These four strategies can be arranged according to the company’s commitment to engaging in an environmental conservation programme. Generally, chain-affiliated hotels or larger hotels are more likely to pay attention to environmentally friendly issues than small independent hotels (Bohdanowicz, 2005). They often incorporate environmental issues in their company policies, display statements of their environmental and social achievements, have better financial resources, and strive to maintain a good corporate brand image compared to individually owned and managed facilities (Bohdanowicz, 2005).

While some researchers have indicated that hoteliers are confident in the success of green marketing, scholarly research and the media both report that marketing green products and services to consumers is on the decline (Peattie & Crane, 2005; Jackson, 2010). Rex and Baumann (2007) highlighted the weaknesses of hotel green marketing as the main reason for poor customer support for green products. Customers are often sceptical about claims of green products or green marketing, suspicious that companies prioritise economic opportunity and profit over responsibilities to reduce pollution and comply with regulations (Hartmann & Ibanez, 2006; D’Souza, Taghian, Lamb, & Peretiatkos, 2006). Hence, this study investigates customer perceptions of this inconsistency to help hoteliers develop better green marketing strategies.

Research identifies the four Ps of the marketing mix commonly used in the marketing area since the 1960s (Perreault, Cannon, & McCarthy, 2008) as these are proven to be still suitable



for contemporary marketing applications (Anderson & Taylor, 1995). Specifically, the marketing mix, developed by McCarthy, consists of product, price, promotion and place as variables that can be used in developing a marketing strategy (Perreault et al., 2008). This study therefore applies the four Ps as the basis for consumers to review variables related to green marketing. Green products are viewed as important marketing tools, with many hoteliers competing to provide green products that attract attention from customers (Jones, Hillier, & Comfort, 2014). Customers may look for tangible and intangible offerings of green hotels. Specifically, they look for features of the products, style, brand name, quality of services, company image and corporate reputation before choosing a hotel (Kotler & Keller, 2012; Graci & Dodds, 2008). In the case of green products or practices, the literature reveals that many hoteliers merely focus on the environmental implications brought by those practices rather than on what customers look for. Green products and services are characterised by their ability to minimise environmental impacts or at least have less detrimental impacts on the environment than other similar products and services (iSustainableEarth.com, 2014).

Although several researchers have attempted to provide guidelines on which practices would succeed in convincing consumers, customers tend to compare green products with traditional products found in standard hotels. In standard hotels, hoteliers offer products or practices according to convenience, availability, features, style, and brand name, with various prices from which customers can choose according to their financial ability (Kotler, 2011). In contrast, research shows that some hoteliers focus on providing only green products that sound environmentally friendly, instead of green products that customers want (Peattie & Crane, 2005; Rex & Baumann, 2007). Hoteliers are seen to place a higher priority on profitability than reducing their operational impacts on the environment (D'Souza et al., 2006). Evidently, certain green products are viewed as a way for hotels to reduce costs, inconvenience as well as luxury (Baker, Davis, & Weaver, 2013). The use of recycled paper, options to re-use towels and linen for multiple night customers, are examples of green practices that customers view as cost-saving mechanisms that drop service standards and interfere with comfort (Baker, Davis, & Weaver, 2013; Robinot & Giannelloni, 2010).

The issue related to green pricing warrants further exploration because contradictory views are evident in the literature. Much of the literature related to green marketing investigated the customers' willingness to pay a premium price for green products, however, the findings are inconsistent and inconclusive (Myung et al., 2012). With regard to hoteliers, the implementation of green practices requires large, long-term financial investment and non-financial commitment (Ginsberg & Bloom, 2004) and accommodation with new regulations (due to the green movement) must be balanced with customers' financial willingness to pay for their products in order to ensure return on investments for investors (Kotler, 2011). Therefore, it is suggested that hoteliers should have full information regarding this issue when



developing a better pricing strategy to match with customers' readiness to pay.

An effective promotional tool is to have a green marketing strategy. According to the European Commission (n.d), an effective green promotion includes raising awareness about what companies are doing, providing information regarding a company's values, informing people about the products or services they bring to the market, and reaching the target audience. With regard to green hotels, it is important to choose the right communication tools to ensure that all of the above information, especially that which is related to green initiatives, reaches consumers. There are many ways of communicating green business practices, such as product labels (eco-labels), packaging, press relations, newsletters, issue-related events, reports (for example, yearly sustainability reports), guest books, media boards, in-house television, posters, flyers, leaflets, brochures, websites, advertisements, information packs, on-site sales activities and word-of-mouth (European Commission. n.d; Jackson, 2010). Prior to deciding which strategies to employ, the advantages of green promotional tools must be considered by the marketers. Various distribution channels have been used to attract customers. However, in this study, only two green promotional strategies will be reviewed – eco-labels and corporate websites.

The Internet is a common distribution channel used to inform people about their commitment to integrating environmental practices within their operations. One of the most common media used is a corporate website. On websites, hoteliers can present information regarding their environmental programmes, environmental policies, awards and recognition, and environmental reports (Grosbois, 2012; Hsieh, 2012). This distribution channel enables hoteliers' initiatives to be directly accessible to customers and can reduce the amount of consumers driving to hotels (Kotler, 2011). In other words, customers can retrieve and compare information about different hotels without visiting each hotel. Therefore, the ability of the Internet to quickly generate publicity is regarded an effective tool for both green hoteliers and customers.

METHODS

This study investigates customers' perceptions of green marketing strategies in the New Zealand hotel industry using a questionnaire survey. The study aims to identify hotel customers' opinions of green marketing strategies and find out hotel customer expectations of environmental best practices within green hotels. Based on the four Ps of the marketing mix, this study adopted 30 statements of green marketing-related activities established by Chan (2013a) to identify hotel customers' opinions of green marketing strategies; to explore hotel customer expectations of environmental best practices within green hotels and to identify the suitability of environmental best practices based on eleven common practices outlined in previous literature. Respondents were also encouraged to write down their additional preferences of environmental best practices. The research instrument employed in this study



was a self-administered questionnaire. A group of conference delegates were selected from Auckland, New Zealand as the target sample. The questionnaire consisted of three main parts: demographic questions, a section that required respondents to evaluate hotel green marketing practices, and a section asking respondents to identify green practices that they expect in green hotels.

This study aimed to focus only on customers' perceptions of green marketing strategies. In order to meet the research's objectives, some amendments were made to the questionnaire, and definitions of certain terms were added to improve clarity for the local population. A five-point Likert scale was used, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Convenience sampling was adopted to investigate the viewpoints of delegates attending an environmental-related conference in Auckland, New Zealand, who were therefore expected to have informed views on green marketing. Respondents needed to be employed and must have previously stayed in New Zealand hotels. This is because these respondents would have the power to select and purchase green hotel rooms. Additionally, experience in New Zealand hotels would provide them with an overview of what New Zealand accommodation is like. As their conference discussed topics related to global environmental conditions, respondents' exposure to the New Zealand hotel environment and their purchasing power of green hotel rooms were all expected to facilitate the collection of useful data for this study. It was anticipated that the selected group might have different views from average customers with respect to the green marketing of hotels and could add new knowledge in the green marketing literature.

Data collection was undertaken during a green-related conferences in April 2014. The list of New Zealand conferences held in 2014 was obtained from the Auckland Recording Service Ltd, and three conferences were selected from that list for potential participation. Organisers of the conferences were approached by email to assist with the questionnaire distribution. A questionnaire was distributed to environmental conference delegates and the selection of respondents were chosen using convenience sampling due to the accessibility to the researcher and the probability of enhancing the response rate. Delegates were expected to be more informed about global environmental conditions than ordinary customers. The questionnaire, along with the participant information sheet, was emailed to the organisers and the hotel managers (if applicable) seeking permission to distribute the questionnaire to delegates.

In total, 80 questionnaires were delivered on site at the conference registration tables. Forty questionnaires were completed and returned, providing a response rate of 50 per cent. The responses were analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20 software. Frequency distribution analysis was carried out for two parts of the questionnaire: the respondent's personal information and their expectations of green hotel practices. The mean and 95% confidence interval of the mean were calculated to determine the distribution and ranking of each of the



attributes, particularly the 30 statements of green marketing strategies. This ranking identified which statements were most important and which were least important in the eyes of the respondents. From this ranking, the important statements were regarded as effective green marketing strategies that encouraged the respondents to purchase green products. Similarly, the least important statements were regarded as green marketing strategies that might hinder their purchases. Using this analysis technique, this study was able to identify customers' opinions about each green marketing strategy implemented by green hoteliers. A measurement of association was carried out between three demographic variables and the four Ps of marketing strategy (product, pricing, promotion and place). Specifically, the analysis was carried by several types of techniques such as ANOVA, t-test and two-tailed tests. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to compare three or more groups' means of the response variable to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists between those groups (Lang & Secic, 2006). From these analyses, the possible relationship between respondents' demographic data and variables in developing a marketing strategy (product, price, promotion and place) could be compared. This relationship analysis may assist hoteliers to more effectively target their customers.

FINDINGS

The demographic characteristics showed that the sample included more females (60%). More than half of the respondents were from New Zealand (52.5%) followed by Australia (22.5%). Over one third (32%) of the respondents aged between 50 to 60 years. Most of them were in full-time employment. Results showed that respondents may choose green accommodation when travelling if (1) the green products are different from standard products; (2) hotels have green products before they launch their green marketing; and (3) hotels promote their green image and reputation. However, some respondents preferred not to choose green accommodation when travelling because they viewed green products as harmful to human health. Respondents viewed green products as special compared to equivalent traditional products. This finding is consistent with those of Manaktola and Jauhari (2007), who found that Indian respondents viewed eco-friendly products as different, which encouraged their purchases at a green hotel. Specifically, the positive impacts provided by green products towards the environment and the use of an alternative source of energy such as solar energy and waste disposal led to a differentiation of green practices (Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007).

Evidence of having or practising green practices is crucial to convince customers to purchase at a green hotel. Respondents from this study acknowledged that green marketing should begin with having actual green products in the hotel, which suggests that customers look for evidence of serious commitment by hotels in instituting green practices before deciding to stay at a hotel. This is consistent with the findings of Peattie and Crane (2005) who also noted that actual green products are needed to avoid 'green washing', the deliberate manipulation of



information to portray themselves and their products as environmentally friendly (Jackson, 2010).

In spite of tangible assets such as products offered, customers also look for intangible assets such as green image and good reputation. Findings show that respondents agreed with the statement of “the ability of green hotels to promote their green image and reputation”. In other words, green hotels convey an exceptional image due to their commitment to protecting environmental well-being. This is consistent with the findings of Han et al. (2009), who found that the overall image of green hotels plays a critical role in customers’ decision-making processes. As asserted by Graci and Dodds (2008), company image and hotel corporate reputation are two of the significant intangible assets which customers consider.

Respondents expressed their disagreement with three statements: (1) customers should be charged a premium to recover the additional costs expended by the green hoteliers; (2) customers are willing to pay a higher price for eco-facilities and (3) customers are willing to pay a higher price for eco-facilities if a part of the amount is donated to green activities. The findings in this study are similar to those of Fairweather et al. (2005), who asked visitors to New Zealand about their willingness to pay extra for green products in a hotel, and their answers indicated their unwillingness to be charged extra. This refusal is assumed to be due to several reasons. Firstly, customers view participation with green products or services (for example, linen and towel re-use programmes) as having to put up with discomfort, giving up their ‘right’ to luxury and a way for hoteliers to cut costs (Baker et al., 2013). Secondly, customers believe that the savings and benefits generated from green programmes (such as, linen and towel re-use programmes) may reduce labour and laundry expenses and the additional costs (for example, by installing and maintaining green practices and marketing costs) incurred in instituting green practices can be recovered (Kotler, 2011; Pizam, 2009). As emphasised by Pizam (2009), through green programmes, average-size hotels could save hundreds of thousands dollars per year. Thirdly, customers might adjust their lifestyle according to their current financial situation.

The results show that most respondents had little idea about the effectiveness of green promotion strategies implemented by green hoteliers except the strategy of “collaboration between green hotels and environmental groups can help to promote a green image more effectively”. The findings are perhaps due to various customers’ perceptions about the sincerity of the green hotels in offering and promoting their products and services and the lack of detailed information about the environment credentials of green products and services (Hartmann & Ibanez, 2006). The respondents acknowledged the importance of collaboration with environmental groups to promote a hotel’s green image more effectively. This is consistent with the findings of Hsieh (2012), who outlined that some hotels in the US partner with various environmentally-related organisations, which matches with their green image and recent environmental issues, in order to show their commitment to environmental



conservation efforts. Fairmont Hotels and Resorts is an example of a hotel company that forges partnerships with the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) to address carbon emission (Green Lodging News, 2010). These collaborations may attract customers' interest, as customers are interested in the overall image of green hotels (Han et al., 2009).

Findings show that most respondents were unsure about the effectiveness of eco-labels as promotional tools. Particularly, respondents were not sure about (1) the functionality of eco-labels in promotion; (2) incentives created by eco-labels to change the market and (3) eco-labels as effective promotional tools. This is consistent with the findings of Chan (2009) and Fairweather et al. (2005), who posited that customers question the standards and actual implementation of green practices and the capability of the hotels who have certifications with those eco-labels. Limited input from customers in selecting accurate distribution channels to promote green initiatives has been recorded. The findings of this study indicate that (1) the internet is an effective channel to promote green products; (2) partners with groups which are consistent with the green image of the hotels is regarded as a reliable distribution channel; and (3) the green image of a hotel influences the respondents' decision making on whether to stay at a hotel. Respondents rated the Internet as an effective channel for marketing a hotel's green initiatives directly to customers. This is consistent with findings of Chan (2013a), who found that customers evaluate the Internet as the most effective and efficient distribution channel to publicise green marketing information, as customers can access hotels' information at any time and place.

Nine out of the eleven practices in the study were generally regarded as suitable for green hotels (the two exceptions being solar power generation devices in the lobby, and organic meals). This finding is consistent with the findings of Manaktola and Jauhari (2007), who found that customers expect tangible demonstration of green practices. Over 65 per cent of respondents evaluated nine environmentally friendly practices (e.g. recycling programmes, linen re-use programmes etc.) as preferable. Leisure and business travellers in Millar et al.'s (2012) study also viewed some of these practices (e.g. energy saving light bulbs, recycling bins in the lobby and room, towel and linen re-use programmes, having green certification and key card systems), as complementary in green hotels. Hence, all nine practices are able to indicate a serious commitment of hotels to instituting green practices within their premises.

Part three of the questionnaire also encouraged respondents to express their views on environmentally friendly best practices. Firstly, several respondents suggested that green hotels should have smart air-conditioning, such as making of use of thermal mass, which encourages passive cooling. Secondly, bathroom water supplies should deliver water at a usable temperature. Thirdly, one respondent thought that solar energy was not optimal for high density buildings. Lastly, it was considered that hotels should provide non-smoking facilities on their premises. All of these suggestions are valuable for hotels in developing new green practices, as they come directly from respondents with informed knowledge about the



suitability of these practices towards the environment and have expressed their desires as customers.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As an exploratory study, this research has been able to fill the gap identified in the literature by undertaking research in a New Zealand context to provide an understanding of customers' perceptions in relation to green marketing strategies. To date there has been only limited research in this area and none that sought consumers' perceptions, who ought to have an interest in and be well informed regarding current environmental conditions and issues. Hence, this research has added knowledge to this as yet limited research area of green marketing. Both objectives were successfully met, as the following section explains.

In this study, green products or practices are seen as different compared to equivalent products. Mixed opinions were also recorded. Firstly, respondents were unsure about the effectiveness of eco-labels as promotional tools. Some viewed eco-labels as a crucial sign of assurance, whereas others viewed them as uninteresting promotional strategies. Secondly, in terms of pricing strategies, data indicated that customers are unlikely to want to pay extra for green products and services, despite justifications offered by hoteliers. Surprisingly, respondents even viewed some green products as still harmful to human health in the long term. In short, these two opinions contradict each other, and need further exploration.

Respondents considered two important aspects of green marketing strategies to be evidence of convenience and hoteliers' commitment to environmental issues. Before green hoteliers claimed to be part of an environmentally conscious company, customers are likely to seek evidence of practices carried out at their premises. This needs to be supported by a suitable selection of business partners, and appropriately chosen environmentally friendly distribution channels (starting from vendors and finishing with customers) which build a good overall image. All these are seen as evidence of a commitment to protect environmental well-being. Convenience is also an important factor. Thus, the Internet is seen as an effective promotional distribution channel as it is directly accessible to potential customers.

In terms of green practices, respondents generally favoured tangible practices. However, they mostly preferred practices in which they could participate (for example, recycling programmes, linen and towel re-use programmes), those which they were involved with at home (for example, recycling programmes, linen and towel re-use programmes, using green cleaning products) and green practices that were convenient for them while staying at a hotel. Thus, they may not warm to green practices that are unfamiliar and inconvenient. The key challenges of green marketers is to increase perceptions of individual benefits by adding emotional value to green products (Hartmann & Ibanez, 2006). In this study, although respondents viewed green products as special compared to 'non-green' products, this positive view of products may be insufficient to increase consumption of green products. As noted,



previous studies reported a decline of green consumption in the hotel industry (Peattie & Crane, 2005; Ginsberg & Bloom, 2004). The positive influence of this study's findings on product differentiation, especially in relation to customers' purchase intention and past experience of purchasing and usage of green products (Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007; D'Souza et al., 2006), is based on the unique ability of green products to protect environmental well-being. Thus, it has been reported that there is a lack of emotional benefits associated with green purchases. Several studies reported that customers are intolerant of inconvenience, unavailability, premium price charges, low quality and low performance of green products served to them (Ginsberg & Bloom, 2004; D'Souza et al., 2006). It is therefore crucial to increase the individual benefits of green products to increase customers' intention to purchase green products.

Customers may prefer to access environmental information from the Internet. On one hand, customers can reduce the amount of time spent driving to hotels to obtain information about green initiatives (Kotler, 2011). On the other hand, hoteliers can promote their responsible entrepreneurship to customers with ease and update costs effectively compared to traditional paper methods (European Commission, n.d). The Internet is, therefore, one of the most efficient and relatively inexpensive promotional methods, and benefits both customers and hoteliers. Thus, it is suggested that hotel marketers consider utilising Internet technology such as corporate websites, mailing lists, Facebook.com and Twitter to show their commitment to environmentally friendly practices.

In terms of eco-labels, whilst several respondents agreed with their significance, over-dependency on eco-labels is seen as poor advertising which could weaken interest. With regards to green practices in green hotels, customers favour green practices in which they can participate, and which do not interfere with their convenience while they are staying at a hotel. Nevertheless, individual customers might have different views on how they look at these practices. For example, Baker et al. (2013) outlined several barriers that hinder customers' purchase intentions, such as inconvenience, perceptions of cost cutting and decreased luxury. Thus, hoteliers must continually investigate current and new practices.

The findings of this study can serve as a reference for the hotel industry regarding green marketing strategies, especially in New Zealand. Green hotels will find these implications helpful to improve their understanding of the importance of different green marketing ploys and formulating a suitable green marketing implementation strategy. This research is seen as the beginning of an exploration into customers' expectations and opinions of green marketing of New Zealand hotels. Although this study analysed the views of respondents expected to have knowledge of current environmental issues, it did not take into account their actual behaviour and attitudes to eco-friendly habits in regards to green marketing related activities. Additionally, this study did not investigate hotel management perceptions of green marketing related activities and to what extent they may incorporate green marketing related activities



into an organisation's culture. Several recommendations for future researchers are recommended to obtain more accurate information regarding customers' perceptions in relation to this particular topic. Additionally, some findings were inconsistent with those in the literature. It is therefore suggested that future researchers carry out research on several important issues. A logical next step for future research is to analyse whether perceptions of green marketing related activities actually influence hotel selection, or customers' satisfaction.

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THE EFFECT OF SOCIAL MEDIA DESIGN CONCEPTS (WESTERN ORIENTED OR TRADITIONAL CHINESE ORIENTED) ON CHINESE CONSUMERS' ATTITUDE TOWARD THE BRAND

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ABSTRACT

Unlike the traditional form of the media such as newspapers, television and film, social media can not only deliver information to their readers, viewers, and listeners, but it can also attract their attention by the form and concept how the social media is designed. Many Chinese consumers are prone to be attracted by traditional Chinese design platforms of the social media, while others would like to follow more western oriented one. For the reason that traditional Chinese design concepts and form of media is no longer enough to fulfill business needs of marketing, the use of the western design conceptions is becoming more widespread. More and more business firms are starting to use it to attract more customers and get higher revenue.

At this time, social media creates a wonderful opportunity to make future business strategy for revenue managers by providing them a platform to attract more consumers. Highly accessible and distinguishable social media design platforms may also be one of the reasons that the design of the media can impact the consumer behavior.

As the country that has the largest number in population, China now has one of the largest overall hotel industries in the world, and has become a country that shows incredible development. According to the China National Tourism Administration (CNTA, 2014), by end of 2014, 12,037 star-rated hotels (about 94.02% of all star hotels in the database of China National Tourism Administration) submitted operating data and, of these, 11,180 are currently under operation. These 11,800 hotels altogether had 1,497,900 rooms and 2,624,800 beds with fixed assets of CNY 500.948 billion. Failure to properly utilize the design concept of



social media channels will result in overall missed opportunities to reach a specific customer clientele and lost revenue for the hotel.

The purpose of this study is to investigate how the valence of framed design concept and consumers' familiarity with the brand, impacts consumer attitudes toward the brand. An online study will be conducted with a sample of 126 Chinese students who were randomly assigned to one of three groups.

Based on the prospect theory, five hypotheses are going to be considered: (1): Western concept in social media advertising have a positive effect on consumers' attitudes toward the brand; (2) Traditional Chinese concept in social media advertising have a negative effect on consumers' attitudes toward the brand; (3) Traditional Chinese concept have more effect than Western concept in social media advertising on consumers' attitudes toward the brand; (4) among consumers who are unfamiliar with the brand, Traditional Chinese concept have more effect than Western concept in social media advertising on consumers' attitudes toward the brand; (5) among consumers who are familiar with the brand, Western concept in social media advertising have no significant effect on consumers' attitudes toward the brand, but for brand familiar consumers, Traditional Chinese concept in social media advertising also have an effect on their attitudes toward the brand.

The contribution of this study is to help Chinese Hotel Managers to have a better knowledge of how to attract more Chinese customers via social media designs and helping them for their digital marketing campaigns as well.

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

Social media play a very important role in people's lives. People tend to contact friends via social media, gather information through online social media, and search for products in social media. Advertisers use social media as platforms to advertise their brands and products. Facebook and Twitter, as globally well-known social media, have had hundreds of millions of users all over the world (Yu & Huberman, 2011).

As social media advertising has become more attractive for marketers and advertisers, maximizing the effectiveness of their advertisements has been recognized as a problem. According to a report of Nielsen.com (2013), "there is a gap between how marketers would like to use the medium and the current reality." Thus, investigation of how to make social media advertising more effective is essential, and gaining knowledge of consumers will also benefit them.

Social Media and Advertising



Social media, as an online platform, allows people to create visual or non-visual content, comment on what others post, and share it. Because social media are very easy to use, and reach the audience rapidly, it is widely used in areas related to the environment, politics, technology and the entertainment industry (Yu & Huberman, 2011).

According to Nielsen's report on social media advertising (2013), about 80 percent of Internet users have social networks pages, and one-seventh of the people in the world have a Facebook page. These data indicate that social media use today is so popular, and social media platforms offer huge business opportunities that marketers and advertisers could use for their brand and product promotions. Because social media platforms as online platform, it would be much easier to reach consumers. Because so many people use social media, reaching them as consumers through social media platforms should be relatively easy.

Social media, as an important factor in people's daily lives have gradually become an essential platform for consumers to meet their shopping needs. A study showed that 21% of consumers use social media to get information about a potential purchase; almost 30% of consumers are introduced to new products and have their minds changed about a brand by using social media; and 22% of consumers considered social media very important in their final purchase decision (Powers et al., 2012).

According to nielsen.com (2013), only 6% of advertisers and agencies do not use social media at all, but about 80% of advertisers and agencies would either use free tools or purchase media or sponsor content in social media. About 64% of advertisers indicated they expect to increase their paid social media advertising budget; 34% of advertisers would like to keep the same budget in social media advertising; and only 2% indicated they want to decrease their paid social media advertising budget (Nielsen.com, 2013).

The report of Nielsen.com (2013) also pointed out that marketers were willing to increase viewing and using social media advertising as an integrated platform, and "social media is no longer being viewed as its own discrete medium but instead used alongside other tactics to achieve an overall, usually branding-related, objective."

Chinese Social Media

In China, online social media have become a major platform for Chinese youth to use to contact friends and gather information. Over two-thirds of users of Chinese social media are between the ages of 18 and 30, and nearly 90% of Chinese social media users are below the age of 35. (Jin, 2008).

The Baidu.com website is the largest website in China and the fifth largest website globally, as measured by average daily visitors and page views during the three-month period



ended December 31, 2014, according to Alexa.com, an internet analytics firm. They are the most used Internet search provider in China, with their combined share of PC and mobile search page views standing at 71% in the fourth quarter of 2014, according to Analysys International, a market research firm.

The “Baidu” brand is one of the highest ranking brands in China in BrandZ Top 50 Most Valuable Chinese Brands 2014, a study published by Millward Brown Optimor, a brand strategy research firm. During the six-month period ended December 2014, approximately 92% of Chinese Internet search users have used Baidu as their Internet search engine, according to China Internet Network Information Center.

http://media.corporate-ir.net/media_files/IROL/18/188488/Baidu_20F_20150327.pdf

According to annual report 2014 of an analysis of Baidu users and Customers, it pointed out that deliver online marketing services to a diverse customer base operating in a variety of industries. In 2014, they had approximately 813,000 active online marketing customers. Their online marketing customers consist of SMEs throughout China, large domestic companies and Chinese divisions and subsidiaries of large, multinational companies. They have a diverse customer base in terms of industries and geographical locations. They had a defined industries in which their customers operate include medical and healthcare, tourism and ticketing, education, software and online games, machinery and equipment, network service, transportation, construction and decoration, financial services, business services and franchising. Customers in they top five industries contributed approximately 49% of their total online marketing revenues in 2014. Although they have customers located throughout China, the “Baidu” brand has more active and larger customer base in coastal regions, reflecting the current general economic demographics in China.

According to the report of mapping digital media-China (2012), reported that China has become one of the fastest growing advertising markets in the world, with advertising sales jumping from RMB120 million in 1981 to RMB234 billion in 2010. According to this report, the advertising industry grew at a rate 30% higher than the recorded growth in Chinese GDP over 29 years. The report predicts that in the next ten years, the Chinese advertising industry will grow at an average annual rate of 15%. Based on these findings, investigation of Chinese social media advertising would appear to be essential.

In this study, the Chinese social media Baidu was used, as the platform for searching and exploring how is the effect of the social media design concept on Chinese consumers attitude toward a brand, and level of familiarity in social media advertising influence consumers’ attitude toward a brand.



Framing Postulate of Prospect Theory as a Mechanism to Understand Consumer Response to Advertising in Social Media

Prospect theory is a descriptive theory of decision making under risk that describes how people put more emphasis on losses than on gains resulting from their decision making (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979).

In an effort to understand the effect of prospect theory, several studies have explored consumers' behavior in the online environment based on prospect theory (Shankar et al, 2002; Jiang & Rosenbloom, 2003). Marshall, Huan, Xu & Nam (2011) studied cross-cultural consumers' behavior based on prospect theory and concluded that individuals in different cultures would perceive different levels of risk aversion over both a gain and a loss frame when making a personal financial decision. Zhang & Buda (1999) explored the need for cognition on responses to positively versus negatively framed advertising messages, based on prospect theory; they found that individuals were influenced more by negatively framed advertising messages than by positively framed messages (Zhang & Buda, 1999).

Several studies have investigated the effect of online comments on consumers' attitudes toward the brand and their purchase intention. For example, Chatterjee (2001) concluded that online comments were useful for consumers when choosing an online retailer. Mudambi & Schuff (2010) found that, on Amazon.com, five star rating and comment depth were helpful to a consumer in the process of making a purchase decision.

Based on these studies, in this article we have used prospect theory to understand the effects of social media design concept on Chinese consumers' attitudes toward the brand.

Description of This Study

With a theoretical base in prospect theory, this study used an experimental design to investigate the effects of social media design concept and the level of familiarity (high/ low) in social media advertising on consumers' attitudes toward the brand.

The Chinese social medium Baidu was used as the social media platform. The results were expected to assist Chinese companies in improving their marketing promotion in Chinese social media to enhance positive outcomes. Examining Chinese consumers' attitudes toward the brand in Chinese social media would be most useful for businesses trying to expand their reach beyond the country's borders. Because China is one of the world's largest consumer markets, determining the most effective way of promoting products to Chinese consumers also would be most beneficial to other international brands. Knowing the most effective approach to persuade Chinese consumers is a step in this direction. In particular, the results provide suggestions for marketers and advertisers as to what kind of strategy they



should use in digital marketing promotion. The contribution of this study is to help Chinese companies and international companies have a better knowledge of Chinese consumers and helping them for their digital marketing campaigns.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review of this study will be composed from electronic Word-of-Month (eWOM) and social media advertising, message framing postulate of prospect theory, brand familiarity and prospect theory and attitude toward the brand.

Electronic Word-of-Mouth (eWOM) and Social Media Advertising Jansen, Zhang, Sobel & Chowdury (2009) stated that Word-of-Mouth (WOM) is “ the process of conveying information from person to person and plays a major role in consumer buying decision”; in the commercial field, “ WOM involves consumers sharing attitudes, opinions, or reactions about business, products, or services with other people.” When consumers choose products or judge products, WOM commonly has a strong effect on them (Herr et al., 1991).

Online word-of-mouth is not identical to the real world word-of-mouth. Consumers use social networking to find disinterested online reviews or comments from people outside their social networking, a form of word of mouth known as electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) (Jansen et al., 2009), defined as a “statement made by potential, actual, or former consumers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet” (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). eWOM appears on emails, blogs, consumer review websites and social media sites (Chu &Kim, 2011).

According to a study of Chu & Kim (2001), more than 70% of social media users are between 18 and 29 years old, and social media advertising induced consumers to engage in social activities, including commenting, liking or sharing product information. eWOM has great influence in consumers’ decision making for purchasing products (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004).

It offers more messages in quantity than traditional WOM, and it includes both positive and negative messages from multiple sources, in contrast to traditional WOM, which has only a single message that is either positive or negative (Chatterjee, 2001). Consumers willingly participate in eWOM communication with other members of their social networks (Lee et al., 2009).

Chu &Kim (2011) investigated the effect of eWOM on social networking sites and found that consumers’ engagement in eWOM behaviors in social networking sites influenced users’ strength, trust, normative and informational influence.

Therefore, investigation of the valence of design concepts in social media advertising will benefit a company to allow it to improve its communication strategies.

Brand Familiarity and Prospect Theory

Wirtz & Kimes (2007) stated, “Familiarity may be a boundary condition for prospect



theory.” Familiarity is defined as “the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by consumer”, and product related experiences are defined at “most inclusive level, including advertising exposures, information search, interaction with salesperson, choice and decision making, purchasing, and product usage in various situations”(Alba & Hutchinson, 1987). Brand familiarity is defined as “the accumulated related experiences that consumers have had with a brand” (Tam, 2008). Consumers would have prior attitudes and beliefs about a brand that they are familiar with (Petty & Cacioppo,1986). Brand familiarity “captures consumers’ brand knowledge structures”; consumers would have more ability to process brand information based on previous experience for consumers who familiar with the brand, and less ability if they are unfamiliar with the brand (Campbell & Keller, 2003).

Attitude Toward the Brand

Mitchell & Olson (1981) defined attitude toward the brand as “an individual’s internal evaluation of the brand.” Spears & Singh (2004) defined as “ a relatively enduring, one-dimensional summary evaluation of the brand that presumably energizes behavior.” Giner-Sorolla (1999) considered attitude toward the brand as “implicit in beliefs, feelings, behaviors and other components and expressions of attitudes.” As these definitions imply, attitude toward a brand is a kind of approach to measuring how consumers evaluate the brand. In other words, attitude toward the brand can be viewed as how consumers favor the brand.

Shimp (1981) found that structuring advertising influenced consumers’ beliefs and evaluations and thus would influence consumers’ attitude toward the brand. That is, measuring attitude toward a brand is a way to examine which kind of advertising, marketing promotion or other factors related to the brand would have the most positive influence on consumers’ attitude toward the brand. Thus, a company would know how to improve their advertising, marketing promotion or other factors related to the brand in the most effective way.

Hypotheses and Research Question

Based on the findings of these previous studies, the following five hypotheses and research question can be posed:

H1a: Western design concept in social media advertising will lead to positive effects on consumers’ attitudes toward the brand.

H1b: Traditional Chinese design concept in social media advertising will lead to negative effects on consumers’ attitudes toward the brand.



H1c: Traditional Chinese design concept will be more persuasive than Western design concept in social media advertising on consumers' attitude toward the brand.

H2: Among consumers who are unfamiliar with the brand, Traditional Chinese design concept will be more persuasive than Western design concept in social media advertising on consumers' attitude toward the brand.

RQ1: Whether Western design concept or Traditional Chinese design concept has effect in social media advertising on consumers' attitudes toward the brand among consumers who are familiar with the brand?

METHODS

Participants

A total of 126 Chinese students participated in this study. These students were randomly assigned to three groups: participants who were exposed to Baidu advertising with western design concept, participants who were exposed to the same Baidu advertising with traditional design concept, and a third group that served as a control group, not exposed to any Baidu posts or comments. <http://www.wenjuan.com/> was used as the online survey system.

Procedure

Before beginning the questionnaire, participants were asked if they agreed to participate in this study, if they are Chinese, and if they use Baidu.

If their answer to any question was "no," they were directed to the end of the questionnaire; if not, then the three groups of participants were given different questionnaires.

The participants in the group with no frame message were shown a brand logo; then the questionnaire asked them to rate their familiarity on a seven scale. After that, this group of participants was asked to rate on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) their attitude toward this brand.

The other two groups of participants, after being asked to rate their familiarity with the brand, they were shown a Baidu post of this hotel brand's service from this brand's official page in Baidu, as well as either Western Design Concept or Traditional Chinese Design Concept. These two different design concepts were manipulated, and a question about the manipulation check in the questionnaire asked participants to rate the valence of these design concepts.

After reading all the stimuli, these two groups of participants were asked to rate their attitude



toward this brand on a seven- point scale. For all three groups of participants, the same items were used to measure their attitude toward the brand. Finally, all participants were asked questions on their demographics, including their gender, their age, and whether they were enrolled in university or college now.

Variables and Measures

The independent variable in this study was the valence of social media design concept (western, traditional); level of familiarity (high, low). Consumer familiarity was a self-reported measure (Tam, 2006). Level of familiarity measured by a seven-point Likert scale referred to the degree to which participants were familiar with a brand, how often they had heard of it, and how often they had experienced it. Three items were used for familiarity (Lin, 2013; Wirtz &Kimes, 2007). For these participants who rated less than 4 on the seven-point scale were considered the low familiarity group; all others were the high familiarity group (Dawar & Lei, 2009).

The dependent variable, attitude toward the brand, was measured by how participants think and feel about the brand shown in the Baidu advertising. Based on studies of attitude toward the brand, it was measured as good/bad, favorable/unfavorable, desirable/ undesirable, useful/not useful, interesting/ not interesting, good value for the money/ not good value for the money, attractive/ not attractive (Spear &Singh, 2004; Herr et al, 1991). Most of the articles that measure feelings and evaluations of advertisements use Likert scales. For example, in an article by Madden, Allen & Twible (1988), it was used a Likert scale from “very much so” to “not at all” to answer the question of how people felt about the commercials. In this study, participants were asked to respond to the questions through use of a 7-point scale. The two groups of participants exposed to the social media advertising content as well as comments were then asked to rate their agreement with the advertising recommendation, and the degree of their attitude toward the brand.

Stimulus

Mizerski (1982) identified two criteria for choosing a stimulus product in an experiment:

1. The product should be one that participants would use and purchase.
2. The product should be one that participants would be interested in seeking other consumers' opinions about.

In addition to the study of investigating the postings, the types of expressions and sentiment in brand's official page, MARRIOTT was chosen as the major brand in the consumer hotels



industry.

Based on the above studies, the hotel official web page was used in the experiment. An official web page post was chosen from Baidu by MARRIOTT official account.

Manipulation Check

To ensure that the valences of design concepts are successfully manipulated, participants were asked to rate the valence of comments, using Likert scales (Lee et al, 2009). After a Baidu post and either Western or Traditional design concept was shown to participants, participants were asked to rate the valence of design concepts shown in the Baidu post, using seven-point Likert scale.

Data Analysis

To test these hypotheses, independent sample t-tests and one-way ANOVA were conducted.

For H1a and H1b, an independent sample t-test was conducted between the no- framed social media design concept group and Western / Traditional framed design concept groups.

For H1c, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to test for differences among the three groups and a pairwise t-test was conducted to compare the mean difference between the no-frame message group and the Western / Traditional framed design concept groups.

For H2, a one-way ANOVA was conducted for participants unfamiliar with the exposed brand among the three groups, and a pairwise t-test was conducted to compare the mean difference between the no-framed message group and Western / Traditional framed design concept groups for participants unfamiliar with the brand.

To test RQ1, an independent sample t-test was conducted for participants familiar with the brand between the no-framed message group and the Western / Traditional framed design concept groups.

RESULTS

Sample Characteristics In this study, 1500 ISU email addresses of Chinese students were randomly selected from 1800 email addresses of Chinese students, and 126 participants of the 1500 students who received the invitation email submitted the questionnaire, which means the rate of response was 8.40 percent. Of these participants who participated in this study, 5 of participants did not complete the questionnaire, and 14 of participants did not use Sina Weibo. Therefore, a total of 107 questionnaires were valid (Table 1): 37 representing participants



randomly assigned to the control group, 34 of participants assigned to the group with a positive message, and 36 in the groups exposed to a negative message. A total of 26 (24%) males and 81 (76%) females participated in this study. There were 106 participants age 18-29, and only one aged older than 29.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 107) **Frequency Percentage**

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	26	24%
Female	81	76%
Age		
18-29	106	99%
up to 29	1	1%

Descriptive Statistics

Participants were asked about their familiarity with the brand to which they were exposed and their attitude toward the brand. The results are shown in the Table 2, which presented the means and standard deviations of these two variables. The variable of familiarity was obtained as the average value of three items: the degree of your familiarity about the brand (M= 5.22, SD= 1.53), how often have you heard about this brand (M= 4.68, SD= 1.40), and how often have had experience with this brand (M = 3.79, SD = 1.55). The mean of familiarity was 4.60 (SD = 1.40), which was above the mid-point of the seven-point Likert scale. The computed indices represent the high reliabilities (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.93).

Another variable attitude toward the brand, it was calculated by the average of the values of seven items that mentioned before, which were anchored on the bipolar adjectives: bad/good (M= 4.40, SD=1.25), favorable/unfavorable (M= 4.11, SD=1.26), desirable/undesirable (M= 4.12, SD= 1.29), interesting/ not interesting (M=4.07, SD=1.28), useful/not useful (M= 3.63, SD=1.10), good value for money/not good value for money (M=3.54, SD= 1.19), and attractive/not attractive (M= 3.82, SD=1.09). These seven items were measured by Likert scales from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The mean of attitude toward the brand was 4.00 (SD=1.09), which were slightly above mid-point on the seven-point Likert scale. These items measured attitude toward the brand were found to be highly reliable (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.96).



Table 2. Descriptive Statistics (N = 107)

Variables SD	Mean	
Familiarity	4.60	1.40
The degree of your familiarity about this brand (A)	5.22	1.53
How often you have heard about this brand (B)	4.68	1.40
How often you have experienced this brand (B)	3.79	1.55
Attitude toward the brand	4.00	1.09
I feel good about this brand (C)	4.40	1.25
I think the service of this hotel brand always favorable (C)	4.11	1.26
I think the service of this hotel brand always desirable (C)	4.12	1.29
I think the service of this brand is fascinating (C)	4.07	1.28
I think the service of this brand is very suitable (C)	3.63	1.10
I think the service of this hotel brand is value for the money (C)	3.54	1.19
I think the service of this brand is attractive (C)	3.82	1.09

(A) Responses were coded as 1= Not familiar at all to 7= Very familiar

(B) Responses were coded as 1= Never to 7= Always

(C) Responses were coded as 1= Strongly disagree to 7= Strongly agree

Table 3 indicated the mean and standard deviation of attitude toward the brand in different groups. For participants in the Traditional Chinese Design Concept Group, who received Traditional Design Concept via Weibo post, the mean of attitude toward the brand in this group was 2.99 (SD= 0.99, n= 36); the mean of attitude toward the brand of participants exposed to Western Design Concept was 4.73 (SD = 0.64, N = 34), and for the no-framed



message group M = 4.19, (SD = 0.83, N = 37).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics Among Different Groups (N = 107)

	Traditional	Western	No-framed
Attitude	2.99 ^a	4.73	4.19
	(.99) ^b	(.64)	(.83)
N	36	34	37

^a Treatment means

^b Standard deviation

Table 4 showed the means and standard deviations for the different groups on the basis of familiarity. Since familiarity is a self-measured variable, those participants with familiarity rated less than 4 constitute an unfamiliar group (N=34), and participants with familiarity equal to or greater than 4 constitute a familiar group (N=83).

Thus 32% of participants were not familiar with the exposed brand, and 68% of participants were familiar with the exposed brand. Among participants familiar with the brand, 24 participants were exposed to a Traditional Chinese Design Concept (M=3.53, SD=0.68), 25 were exposed to a Western Design Concept (M= 4.47, SD= 0.51), and 24 participants were not exposed to any Design Concept (M= 4.37, SD= 0.79). Among participants unfamiliar with the brand, 12 participants were exposed to a Traditional Chinese Design Concept (M=1.92, SD= 0.51), 12 participants received a Western Design Concept (M=5.33, SD= 0.50) and 10 participants did not receive any Design Concept (M= 3.82, SD= 0.81).

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics Among Different Groups by Familiarity (N = 107)

	Familiar			Unfamiliar		
	Traditional	Western	No-framed	Traditional	Western	No-framed
Attitude	3.53 ^a	4.47	4.37	1.92	5.33	3.82
	(.68) ^b	(.51)	(.79)	(.51)	(.50)	(.81)
N	24	25	24	12	12	10



a Treatment means

b Standard deviation

Manipulation Check

To ensure that the valences of Design Concepts were successfully manipulated, participants were asked to rate how Western Design Concept, or Chinese Traditional Design Concept about the exposed brand were on a seven-point Likert scale. An independent sample t- test revealed a significant difference in the perceived valence of the comments ($t= 16.68$, $df= 67$, $p<0.001$).

Participants who received a Chinese Traditional Design Concept ($M= 2.27$, $SD= 0.77$) rated the valences of design concept more negatively than participants who received a Western design concept ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 0.83$). Similarly, the Western Design Concept group participants rated the design concept more positively than participants from Traditional Design Concept group. Thus, the manipulation of design concepts in the Baidu.com post was judged successful.

Hypotheses Test

Hypothesis 1a - stated that Western Design Concept in social media advertising would have a positive effect on consumers’ attitude toward the brand. The results showed as Table 5, an independent samples t-test was conducted to test this hypothesis, assuming equal variances between the groups (the results of test for equality of variances was not significant). The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the Western Design Concept Group and the no-framed design concept group ($t = -3.01$, $df = 69$, $p = 0.003$) in terms of participants’ attitude toward the brand. That is Western Design Concept affected the attitude toward the brand positively, in social media advertising ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 0.64$), compared with the effect of no framed design concept in social media advertising ($M = 4.19$, $SD = 0.83$). Thus, H1a was supported.

Table 5. Independent Sample t-tests for Attitude Toward the Brand by Different Groups

Comparison	t	df	Sig.
Attitude (Western D.C. vs. No-framed D.C.)	-3.01	69	0.003



Attitude (Traditional D.C. vs. No-framed D.C.) <0.001	5.62	71
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Hypothesis 1b - stated that Traditional Chinese Design Concept in social media advertising would have a negative effect on consumers' attitude toward the brand. An independent sample t-test was conducted to test this hypothesis for the Traditional Chinese Design Concept Group and the no-framed group hypothesis assuming equal variances between the groups (the results of test for equality of variances was not significant). The results in Table 5 indicated a significant difference between these two groups ($t = 5.62$, $df = 71$, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, with regard to the attitude toward the brand, Traditional Chinese Design Concept in social media advertising ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 0.99$) led to a more negative effect than no comments in social media advertising ($M=4.19$, $SD=0.82$). Thus, H1b was supported.

Hypothesis 1c - stated that Traditional Design Concept would be more persuasive than Western Design Concept in social media advertising in terms of consumers' attitude toward the brand. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test this hypothesis, assuming unequal variances between the groups (the results of test for equality of variances was significant). The results shown in table 6, indicated that the attitudes toward the brand among these three groups were significantly different, $F (2,104) = 39.84$, $p < 0.001$. Thus, participants who received that Traditional Design Concept in social media advertising, Western Design Concept in social media advertising, or did not receive any design concepts would have different attitudes toward the brand.

To determine whether Traditional D.C. is more persuasive than Western D.C. in social media advertising with regard to attitude toward the brand, a pairwise t- test was conducted (Table 7). The results showed that the mean difference between the no-framed group and the Western D.C. framed group was 0.53, and the mean difference between the no-framed group and the Traditional D.C. framed group was 1.20. Thus, the mean difference between Traditional D.C. framed group and no-framed group was greater than that of the Western D.C. framed group and the no-framed message group. This indicated that the Traditional Design Concept had a greater effect than the Western Design Concept in social media advertising. Therefore, H1c was supported.

Table 7. Pairwise t-test for Differences in Group Means

Group Comparison	Difference between means	df	Sig.
(Western D.C. Group vs. No-framed D.C.G.)	0.53	-0.31	0.003



(Traditional D.C. Group vs. No-framed D.C.G.) <0.001	1.20	5.62
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H2 stated that among consumers who are unfamiliar with the brand, Traditional D.C. would be more persuasive than Western D.C. in social media advertising in terms of consumers’ attitude toward the brand.

Using participants’ self-measured familiarity, as a basis, for those participants who were not familiar with the exposed brand ($M < 4.0$), a one-way ANOVA was conducted to test this hypothesis, assuming equal variances between the groups (the results of test for equality of variances was not significant). As results showed in table 8, there was a significant difference in attitude toward the brand for those participants unfamiliar with the brand to which the three groups were exposed, $F(2,31) = 81.33, p < 0.001$.

Table 8. One-way ANOVA Test Among the Three Groups

	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	66.538	2	32.269	81.33	<0.001
Within Groups	12.300	31	0.396		
Total	76.838	33			

Summary of Findings

Most of the Chinese students studying in the Hangzhou use Baidu as one of the social media platforms. In this study, participants used self-reported measurement of their familiarity with the brand to which they were exposed. For the target brand in this study, more than half of the participants were familiar with the brand.

The independent sample t-test results showed that Western D.C. in social media advertising had a positive effect on consumers’ attitude toward the brand. In addition, Traditional D.C. in social media advertising led to a negative effect on consumers’ attitude toward the brand.

Based on the one-way ANOVA test, the results revealed that Traditional D.C. in social media advertising is more persuasive than Western D.C. on consumers’ attitude toward the brand.

Based on participants’ self-measured familiarity, results of a one-way ANOVA suggested that among consumers who were unfamiliar with the brand, Traditional D.C. is more persuasive



than Western D.C. in social media advertising in terms of consumers' attitude toward the brand.

However, the results of the independent sample t-test indicated that for consumers who were familiar with the brand, Western D.C. had no significant effect in social media advertising in terms of consumers' attitude toward the brand. In contrast, for consumers who were familiar with the brand, Traditional D.C. still had a significant effect in social media advertising on consumers' attitude toward the brand.

DISCUSSION

This study examined how different valences of Design Concept in Chinese social media advertising influenced consumers' attitude toward the brand. It also examined, for consumers with different levels of familiarity with the brand, how the different valences of design concept in Chinese social media advertising influenced consumers' attitude toward the brand. Among the five hypotheses proposed in this study, four of these hypotheses were supported, and one hypothesis was rejected. It supported that in social media advertising, western design concept would have positive effect on consumers' attitude toward the brand, traditional design concept would have negative effect on consumers' attitude toward the brand. Besides, in social media advertising, traditional design concept would have greater effect than western design concept on consumers' attitude toward the brand. For unfamiliar brand consumers, traditional design concept would have greater effect than western design concept. This study not supported that for familiar brand consumers, western and traditional design concept had no effect on consumers' attitude toward the brand.

This study provided support for the application of prospect theory in Chinese social media advertising, which compared the different effect of valence of design in social media advertising. For consumers with different levels of familiarity with a brand, the design of the media also had an effect on consumers' attitude toward the brand.

Implication of the Findings to Professional Practice

The results of this study could give marketers and advertisers very specific suggestions for digital marketing promotion in social media advertising. Nowadays, as more and more consumers use social media for shopping and to gain product and brand information, getting more of consumers' attention through social media advertising is a problem that should concern a marketer or an advertiser. Even though the population of this study focused on Chinese consumers, the results could help Chinese marketers and advertisers with their digital marketing campaigns. Moreover, this study also can help international companies understand Chinese consumers better when these companies plan digital marketing



campaigns.

In particular, what could a company do if it had a budget for a digital marketing campaign? Based on the results of this study, one could argue that using the budget to avoid negative reviews or comments to which consumers would be exposed would be more beneficial than using the funds to present more positive reviews or comments to consumers. Because western design concept may have little effect on consumers, and consumers who see these designs do not stand for they would have a more positive attitude toward the brand. This response can also be based on their familiarity with this brand. However, if consumers see traditional design concept in social media advertising about a particular brand, their attitude toward this brand is likely to be influenced negatively, whether or not they are familiar with this brand. Moreover, the effect of traditional design concept appears to be more persuasive than the effect of positive comments. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that, improve consumers' attitude toward a brand, marketers and advertisers should first try their best to avoid causing consumers to develop a negative attitude toward the brand.

Limitation of the Study

This study has taken a step toward explaining the effect of valences of design concepts in social media advertising to consumers' attitude toward the brand, but there still are some limitations.

Second, this study chose Chinese Baidu as a target social media platform, this means that this study was limited to a Chinese social media platform, and other platforms all over the world (e.g. Twitter, Facebook) might not fit the result of this study.

Third, the sample size of this study may have been too small. A larger sample size of Baidu users could get more generalizable results. In this study, female participants were much more than male, so if the proportion of female and male were equal, that would be better.

Fourth, the variables of both familiarity and attitude toward the brand were through self-reported measurement. This measurement would be easily prone to bias, so that would lead to the data distortions.

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SMOKE-FREE SUPPORT HOTEL CONCEPT: A NEW TOURISM MARKETING STRATEGY FOR CHINA?

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ABSTRACT

The Smoke-Free Supportive Hotel Concept makes provision for stop smoking services in an innovative setting. Linking marketing and health research, we determined the profile of Chinese smokers for the marketing of the concept. The target population for the promotion of the concept consists of Chinese men living in cities, namely, Beijing, Shenyang, Shanghai, Changsha, Guangzhou and Yinchuan, within the age group 30-44, having immediate intentions to quit smoking and previous quit attempts. From a business perspective, this innovative concept offers a unique opportunity to develop a niche market which has never been explored by the hospitality industry.

Key Words: Smoke-Free, Hotel Concept, Profile of Smokers, Tourism Marketing, China.

INTRODUCTION

Hospitality marketing and health research are two sets of activities which have been intricately choreographed for the design of the Smoke-Free Supportive (SFS) Hotel Concept. The SFS Hotel Concept is a hotel package which protects non-smokers from second-hand smoke, offers help for smoking cessation to smokers who want to stop smoking and prevents



uptake of tobacco use among children (Chan Sun and Nunkoo, 2016). This three-in-one package to attract both smokers and non-smokers, with a particular focus for couples with children, has three positive health outcomes. The SFS Hotel Concept relates to a business strategy which also has environmental and financial consequences: It is a business strategy for small island developing states to present a competitive advantage over those islands which keep the Sea, Sand, Sun marketing strategy (Chan Sun and Nunkoo, 2016).

This new concept which can nonetheless be developed in various places in the world is expected to perform well, especially in countries where bans on smoking in public places are being enforced in the context of global tobacco control policies. As a matter of fact, this concept is in line with the World Health Organization (WHO) Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC), which is the first international treaty on health which has become one of the most successful treaties in United Nations history (WHO, 2015). Considering Article 8 of the FCTC about protection from exposure to tobacco smoke, Parties recognize that scientific evidence has unequivocally established that exposure to tobacco smoke causes death, disease and disability (WHO, 2003). Article 12 calls for public awareness about the health risks of tobacco consumption and exposure to tobacco smoke. Article 14 emphasizes the need for treatment of tobacco dependence and counseling services for smoking cessation in national strategies, with the participation of various categories of workers as appropriate (WHO, 2003).

With this new hotel concept based on the above-mentioned articles of the FCTC, clients are given the choice and thus can avail themselves of an innovative hotel package with three positive health outcomes as opposed to the traditional role of marketing for compulsive consumption. In that sense, the villain role of the tobacco industry for addictive behavior is to be deplored. This is because not only is tobacco use dangerous but second-hand smoke is also a real public health hazard, which causes diseases such as asthma, bronchitis, cot-death and glue ear in children, and causes lung cancer and heart disease in non-smoker adults (United States Surgeon General, 2014). In this context, a call for action is being made to hospitality marketing stakeholders to join hands with public health advocates to consider the implementation of the SFS Hotel Concept so as to protect non-smokers from tobacco smoke and to help smokers to stop smoking. The benefits to the hospitality industry will be clients who come back as healthy and happy clients.

From the perspective of marketing research, there is need to search for information with respect to the clientele to be targeted. For that purpose, it is pertinent to note that the number of daily smokers in the world increased from 721 million in 1980 to 967 million in 2012 (Ng M et al., 2014). In China, there are over 350 million smokers which represents nearly one-third of the smoking population of the world (Feng et al., 2010). Tobacco use has reached such high prevalence in the world that it is commonly referred to “tobacco epidemic” as compared to vector-borne infectious diseases. On the other hand, the WHO in response to this



tobacco epidemic has been able to mobilize 180 countries in the world which has ratified the FCTC for global tobacco control (WHO, 2015).

In order to evaluate the impact of the implementation of FCTC policies among the ratifying countries, the International Tobacco Control (ITC) Policy Evaluation Project was mounted (Fong et al., 2006). As a consequence, there have been several investigators of ITC countries which have participated in the cohort studies of tobacco use. Considering smoking cessation, some investigators have focused on the profile of smokers so as to obtain relevant information for the design of smoking cessation strategies tailor-made to smokers' needs. As a matter of fact, studies have shown that smokers with intention to quit smoking and smokers attempting to quit have a particular socio-demographic characteristics. Thus, marketing research will have to identify these characteristics for the design of marketing strategies for the SFS Hotel Concept.

As China has nearly one-third of the smoking population of the world (Feng et al., 2010), this research work will aim at developing the profile of Chinese smokers who will be most responsive to the marketing efforts of the hospitality sector adopting the SFS Hotel Concept. Its objectives are (1) to determine the characteristics of smokers who have the intention to quit smoking and (2) to identify the predictors of smoking cessation behaviors among Chinese smokers. This study which links public health data with marketing research will be crucial to empower marketing specialists for the development of relevant communication materials to target the appropriate clientele.

2.0 Methods

This research work consisted of a literature review focused on smoking cessation studies undertaken within the ITC Framework. This is because the ITC framework ensures the prospective surveys of nationally representative samples of participants with consistent methods and similar questionnaires which can be used across countries (Thompson et al., 2006) and across cities in the particular case of China (Wu et al., 2010).

The longitudinal design of ITC surveys, with re-contact of the same persons at the different waves of survey in the country (Fong et al., 2006) constitutes yet another strength of the ITC framework. Longitudinal surveys, as compared with cross-sectional studies, have higher internal validity (Cook and Campbell, 1979). As a matter of fact, the parallel multiple country surveys benefit from the advantage of sharing similar measures through specific equivalent questions of the ITC questionnaire used in all ITC countries (Fong et al., 2006).

The literature review work was performed through PubMed, as search engine, to access the MEDLINE database of abstracts on medical, biomedical and paramedical fields, which is compiled by the [United States National Library of Medicine](#) at the [National Institutes of Health](#). PubMed was preferred over Google Scholar as search engine because the former



specializes in the medical field. The latter provides access to a wide range of academic literature from journal publishers, university repositories, to scholarly websites, but there is need to check the source for peer-reviewed academic papers accessed by Google Scholar (NCSU Libraries, 2014).

The key words used for the literature search were ITC China, factors and smoking cessation behaviors. It is noted that smoking cessation behaviors include quit attempts and smoking cessation (Hyland et al., 2006). The period under scrutiny was from 2006 to date. This is because the first paper by the ITC team was published in 2006 with the ITC Conceptual Framework. Relevant studies, by China ITC team, pertaining to factors associated with quit intention, quit attempts and quit success were identified for content analysis so as to extract the profile of smokers to target for the SFS Hotel Concept.

3.0 Findings

Five papers were found appropriate and relevant to address the aim and objectives of this research work. The research studies were undertaken by the following group of ITC China investigators: Feng et al. (2010), Jiang et al. (2010), Li et al. (2011), Li, Borland, Yong et al. (2013), Li, Hyland, O'Connor et al. (2010).

3.1 Factors associated with Intention to Quit

Feng et al. (2010) used data from the first wave of the ITC China Survey, which was conducted in 2006, through face-to-face survey of a randomly selected sample of adult smokers in Beijing and five other cities of China, namely Changsha, Guangzhou, Shenyang, Shanghai and Yinchuan. Through stratified multistage sampling of households, about 800 smokers were surveyed in each selected city. Of the total 4815 respondents, more than half of the Chinese smokers surveyed (53.1%) had attempted to quit smoking before, and almost one-quarter (23.6%) planned to quit. Past quit attempts, duration of past attempts, outcome expectancy of quitting, worry about future health, overall opinion of smoking and Heaviness of Smoking Index were found to be independently associated with intention to quit smoking. However, demographic characteristics were not associated with intention to quit (Feng et al., 2010c).

Jiang et al. (2010), using relevant data from the same wave of the ITC China Survey, revealed that the majority of the 4732 adult urban smokers randomly selected from six cities in China (75.6%) had no plan to quit smoking; Over half (52.7%) of respondents had ever tried to quit smoking. Few respondents thought that they could successfully quit smoking (26.5%) and the principal reason for thinking about quitting smoking in the previous 6 months was concern for personal health (55.0%) while most smokers also believed that the government should do more to control smoking (75.2%) (Jiang et al., 2010a).

Li et al. (2011) working on data from two waves showed that 25.3% smokers reported having made at least one quit attempt between Wave 1 and Wave 2 and 21.7% of them were still abstinent at Wave 2. Moreover, they identified previous quit attempts, more immediate



intentions to quit, higher quitting self-efficacy, longer time to first cigarette upon waking, negative opinion of smoking and having smoking restrictions at home as independent predictors of making quit attempts. On the other hand, older age, longer previous smoking abstinence and more immediate intentions to quit were classified as independent predictors of staying quit; Intentions to quit are related to both attempts and staying quit (Li et al., 2011).

Li, Borland, Yong et al. (2013) analyzed the longitudinal data from smokers who completed at least one of the first three waves (2006-2009) of the ITC China Survey. Overall exposure to anti-smoking messages was low and in China. However, the authors showed that exposure was associated with subsequent quit attempts. It was thus concluded that anti-smoking warning messages have the potential to stimulate Chinese smokers to make quit attempts. Recommendations for the adoption of evidence-based international practices, which include pictorial health warnings on cigarette packages and prominent point-of-sale warnings, were made (Li et al., 2013).

3.2 Predictors of Quitting Attempts

Li et al. (2011) showed that 25.3% Chinese smokers reported having made at least one quit attempt between Waves 1 and 2 and 21.7% of them were still abstinent at Wave 2. Older age, longer previous smoking abstinence and more immediate intentions to quit were classified as independent predictors of staying quit; Intentions to quit are related to both attempts and staying quit (Li et al., 2011). Moreover, Li et al., (2011) identified previous quit attempts, more immediate intentions to quit, higher quitting self-efficacy, longer time to first cigarette upon waking, negative opinion of smoking and having smoking restrictions at home as independent predictors of making quit attempts (Li et al., 2011).

Li, Borland, Yong et al. (2013) who analysed longitudinal data from 6,509 adult smokers who completed at least one of the first three waves (2006-2009) of the ITC China Survey showed that exposure to anti-smoking messages was associated with subsequent quit attempts. They thus concluded that anti-smoking warning messages have the potential to stimulate Chinese smokers to make quit attempts. Recommendations for the adoption of evidence-based international practices, which include pictorial health warnings on cigarette packages and prominent point-of-sale warnings were made (Li et al., 2013).

Li, Hyland, O'Connor et al. (2010), on the other hand, put forward the popularity of smoke-free policies and also the considerable support for smoke-free policies which was observed in the six cities in China where the ITC Surveys were undertaken. The level of public knowledge about the adverse health effects of SHS was associated with support for smoke-free policies (Li et al., 2010).

3.3 Profile of smokers to be targeted

This study shows that the smokers to be targeted have the following characteristics:



1. Chinese smokers with immediate intentions to quit, in the age group of 30 – 44 years, who live in one of the six cities of China, namely Beijing, Changsha, Guangzhou, Shenyang, Shanghai or Yinchuan.
2. Chinese smokers with previous quitting attempts who have concerns for personal health and expect health benefits from smoking cessation.
3. Chinese smokers with previous quitting attempts who appreciate smoke-free policies in public places.
4. Chinese smokers with previous quitting attempts who wish to have support for increased self-efficacy.
5. Chinese smoker who have a significant non-smoker partner and/or have at least one child of less than 12 years.
6. Chinese smokers with previous quitting attempts who have negative opinion of smoking and/or having smoking restrictions at home

3.4 Examples of advertisement

3.4.1 Targeting the smoker in Shanghai

A Chinese man of 40 years is walking down Nanjing Road, Shanghai. He is accompanied by his wife and his son of 5 years. Advertisement content can include one of the following: *“If you want to stop smoking, check for the Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept for your next holidays”*; *“If you have concerns for your personal health, choose a Smoke-Free Support Hotel to get support for smoking cessation”*; *“If you appreciate smoke-free policies in public places, you will surely enjoy hotels promoting the Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept during your next holidays”*.

There will be a note at the bottom of the page on the Hotels implementing the Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept.

3.4.2 Targeting the smoker in Beijing

With the Tiananmen Square, Beijing as setting, the advertisement depicts a male character of 42 and female character of 40 years, with daughter 8 years. The bubble speech by man includes the following: (1) I want to stop smoking because of my dear ones; (2) I can try to quit with the Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept. There will be a note at the bottom of the page on the Hotels implementing the Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept.

3.4.3 Targeting the smoker in Guangzhou

With the Sun Yat Sen University as background, the characters in the advertisement are a man of 30 with his girl friend of 28 years at Graduation Ceremony of the young man. The bubble speech are of the man is as follows: I am smart, except for smoking. I want to quit this year. The bubble speech are of the female partner is: Yes before I get pregnant! There will be a note at the bottom of the page on the Hotels implementing the Smoke-Free Support Hotel Concept to help smokers quit.



4.0 Discussion

4.1 Marketing Strategy

This research work has achieved its aim of developing the profile of smokers to be targeted during the design of marketing tools to attract consumers for the SFS Hotel Concept. As a matter of fact, there is need to increase awareness of the dangers of smoking, to provide cessation support for smokers and to have physicians encourage smokers to quit (Jiang et al., 2010b). These three recommendations are in line with the SFS Hotel Concept as they form part of the concept. On the other hand, smoke-free policies were found to be popular as there was considerable support for smoke-free policies in the six cities of China (Li et al., 2010). This data indicates that the SFS Hotel Concept which applies smoke-free policies will be appreciated by Chinese smokers and non-smokers as well.

As a matter of fact, the SFS Hotel Concept provides the means to attract, to a smoke-free environment, non-smokers as well as smokers who want to stop smoking. By attracting clients who indulge in smoking cessation behaviors, the concept will develop a growing loyal clientele because it helps them to quit and prevents them from relapse. They will thus become repeater clients. With reference to the Transtheoretical Model of behavior change, smoking cessation comprises of several stages from Precontemplation to Action and Maintenance, with Relapse being an event which can occur on a probabilistic point of view (Prochaska and Velicer, 1997). Therefore, clients will be given information on the need to be loyal to the concept which will help them to maintain smoking cessation in a sustainable manner, by prevent relapse.

From a business perspective, the SFS Hotel Concept offers a unique opportunity to develop a niche market which has never been explored by the hospitality industry worldwide. The challenge for marketing specialists is to seize this opportunity as a gateway to tap on this niche market. Hotels which take up this challenge need to stake out this unique market *territory*, as those “*sweet spots*” will resonate so strongly with target consumers that they are willing to pay a premium price (Clemons et al., 2010). The application of the right marketing principles taken together will allow the hotels implementing the SFS Hotel Concept to reap superior profitability through successful niche marketing (Clemons et al., 2010).

The SFS Hotel Concept is put forward for initial implementation as business strategy for small island developing states, like Mauritius, to present a competitive advantage over those islands which keep the traditional Sea, Sand, Sun marketing strategy. Finding niche market is especially difficult in these tough economic times in this era of global competition. Policy-makers in such countries thus need to seize the opportunity to pioneer the SFS Hotel Concept. Otherwise, hotel chains in China itself can implement the SFS Hotel Concept for inbound tourism, in view of the forthcoming national ban on smoking in public places. The SFS Hotel Concept can also be implemented, for instance, in European countries, for both outbound and



inbound tourism. This is because many smokers in these countries want to quit smoking because of public place smoking bans which have been implemented in these countries.

4.2 Additional business benefits

Hospitality workers who smoke have to take several breaks per day for cigarette smoking in a hidden place; thus productivity and service towards hotel clients may not be up to the highest standard. Allowing tobacco use in the workplace *imposes a variety of costs on businesses, including the lost productivity resulting from smoking breaks, absenteeism, and premature deaths; higher health care and other insurance costs; increased maintenance and cleaning costs; and potential costs of litigation* (IARC, 2009). In fact, the SFS Hotel Concept will present benefits to the business by reducing the costs associated with workplace smoking. This is because the implementation of the concept goes through the preliminary phase of helping staff to quit smoking, prior to the offer of this service to hotel clients.

Employees benefiting from this service will experience improved health and social wellness which will empower them to relate better with clients, colleagues and other people. They will also enjoy occupational wellness as they develop the ability to achieve personal fulfillment from their jobs while maintaining balance in their lives and contributing to the health of the hotel clients (University of California Riverside, 2014). Thus the SFS Hotel Concept, if adopted and implemented, will be beneficial to both hotel employees and employers, in terms of work productivity. The concept will be beneficial to the business in terms of customer satisfaction as satisfied employees become motivated and committed to delivering quality services. The importance of effective people management for employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction and business success has been recognized since long (Oakland and Oakland, 1998). This is now being highlighted in the context of escalating expectations from clients of the hospitality and tourism sector.

4.3 Health promotion

In addition to staff fulfillment, customer satisfaction and business boost, the health benefits to clients and staff deserve attention. Health promotion will be revamped through this innovative concept which is in line with the Ottawa Charter of Health Promotion, an international agreement signed in Ottawa, Canada, in November 1986 (WHO, 1986). The SFS Hotel Concept provides smoke-free environment to support smoking cessation and provides health education. The SFS Hotel Concept needs to be developed as a public health policy to be adopted by hospitality, tourism and health stakeholders through consultation, participation and political will. This concerted political decision should be driven by the *case made by Munro (2008) for business action on the socio-economic determinants of health to achieve "Healthy People, Healthy Performance, Healthy Profits"* (Munro, 2008).

4.4 Significance of the study



This study contributes to advance knowledge in the field of marketing by being the first one to determine the profile of smokers to be targeted for the marketing of the SFS Hotel Concept. It unveils evidence-based data which empowers hospitality marketing specialists to deploy marketing strategies towards the right profile of outbound tourists from China. Nonetheless, the non-exhaustive method used in this study involving only ITC studies in China can be perceived as a limitation. However, it presents the advantage of having a common framework which allows comparison across countries because of similar measures through equivalent questions across countries. Therefore, this process can be used for other countries. Findings obtained from the ITC surveys in China are particularly relevant to this work, because many countries ambition to conquer the market of Chinese tourists. However, there are other emerging countries, namely India and Russia, to target. There is thus the need to undertake studies using the same methods as in this study, to define the profile of clients to be targeted from these countries. There is also the need for market research among Chinese tourists with the collaboration of tour operators in China.

5.0 Conclusion

The SFS Hotel Concept offers an innovative means to smokers willing to smoke quit smoking to benefit from smoking cessation services within a non-traditional attractive environment. The determination of the profile of Chinese smokers contributes to the profiling of clients to be targeted and to the design of tools to be used during the marketing strategies of the SFS Hotel concept. From a business perspective, the SFS Hotel Concept offers a unique opportunity to develop a niche market which has never been explored by the hospitality industry. The challenge is there for hospitality marketing specialists to seize this opportunity as a gateway to tap on this niche market. The marketing benefits for the hospitality and tourism industry will definitely be positive if marketing strategies in collaboration with public health experts are well-oriented.

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**THE EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON
ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND JOB SATISFACTION: THE
HOTEL SAMPLE**

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ABSTRACT

Job satisfaction and organizational identification perceptions of employees are essential in tourism. To create this perception not only management applications but also employees' personal differences, working environments, the relationship between employees and safety climate environment is needed. The purpose of this study is to determine how employees were affected by organizational climate and how their results affect organizational identification and job satisfaction perceptions. This study has been conducted by 300 employees who have been working at 4 and 5 star hotels. Data were collected through questionnaire by applying convenience sampling method. To test the hypothesis structural equation modeling was used.

Key Words: Hotel, Organizational Identification, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Climate, Safety Climate.

INTRODUCTION

Productivity is absolutely necessary for businesses. The employee is the most important actor in productivity. Recently, organizational climate in employee productivity and how the employee perceive the organizational climate has become important. Therefore, it's decided to investigate organizational climate and what to do according to employees' opinions, if there isn't a positive climate.

Organizational climate, which is important in productivity also affects the perceptions of organizational identification and job satisfaction. Individual's level of commitment to the organization indicates the level of organizational identification of an individual. Organizational identification and job satisfaction are perceptions that are affected by the organizational climate.

2-Organizational Climate



Organizational climate is a concept that shapes the behavior of the employees. The definition obtained from a variety of organizational climate researches is as follows; how the employee perceive the business environment, whether they work in a secure environment or not, whether they are supported or not by the management, whether they are rewarded when necessary or not, perceptions that are formed according to psychological structures of the employee such as organizational unity and sincerity. The Employee want to work in a healthy environment. Healthy environment, which is called courtesy, sincerity, reward, orientation activities forms the healthy organization climate (Tutar & Altınöz, 2010), (Madera vd. 2013). In some cases, a negative organizational climate may occur in the workplace and the employee show negative behavior, most of the time management implements punishment, but it is more appropriate to consider to change conditions related to the security (Brondino et al, 2012). "The International Labour Organization (ILO) stated in the 1950s that each employee should receive health services and that it is a human right to work in a healthy and safe environment and that this right is in the limits of the right to live and every country should abide this (cited in Ozkan and Emiroğlu, 2006).

3-Organizational Identification

The individual's self-perception of being a basic or a symbolic member of the group is defined as Social Identification. This definition has been developed for organizations, Ashforth and Mael (1989) have defined the concept of organizational identification as "perception of being a unity in an organization of belonging to an organization". An individual's commitment degree of the organization membership indicated the level of the individual's level of organizational identification. Since the perceptions of the organizational identifications are different, the level of the employee's level of organizational identification are also different (Dutton, et al 1994). Organizational Commitment and Organizational Identification are very close notions and they are confused with each other. While organizational commitment is a notion focused on the loyalty of employees to the organization, the eagerness to be a part of the organization and the behavior; organizational identification is a cognitive and a psychological process (Ketchand & Straws, 2001).

4-Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described as, when the work life is evaluated, the pleasing or positive sentimental condition (Locke 1976) ve (Dunnette 1970). Fisher (2001), also defines the job satisfaction as "Pleasure or a positive feeling as a result of an employee's evaluation on their work or life". Job satisfaction is closely related to organizational climate like organizational identification. A negative environment reduces the level of job satisfaction. If the employee gets the job satisfaction they need from their job, they will have a positive attitude towards their job and the work environment. Job satisfaction, the employee's reaction towards their



work condition. Job satisfaction usually is affected by factors such as determining whether the expectations are met or not, wages, promotion opportunities, management style and colleagues.

5-The Interaction Among Organizational Identification, Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction is affected by organizational identification and organizational climate and that the organizational climate also affects organizational identification. The positive organizational climate cause job satisfaction by providing organizational identification. To achieve this result is difficult at each business, because it occurs a positive organizational climate due to management style.

6-Methodology

6.1. Research Model and Hypotheses

Research model has been formed based on literary scan and variables used during researches. Models and hypotheses which are formed according to the results of the literary scans and optimal to the aim of the research are shown below:

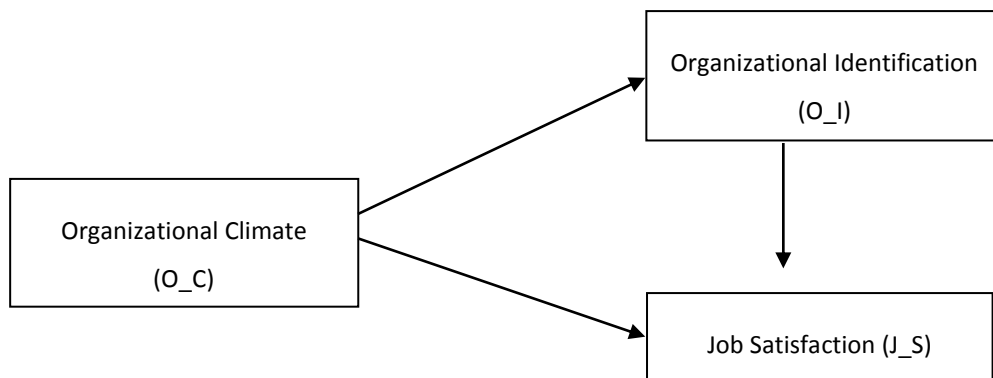


Figure 1. Research Model

Hypothesis 1:Organizational climate affects organizational identification positively.

Hypothesis 2:Organizational climate affects job satisfaction positively.

Hypothesis 3:Organizational identification affects job satisfaction positively.

Hypothesis 4:Organizational climate affects job satisfaction through organizational identification.

Variables of Research

In order to measure organizational climate variable, a scale was developed by Türen et al. (2014) and contains of 14 expressions. In order to measure organizational identification variable, a scale was developed by Mael & Ashforth (1992) and contains of 6 expressions. In order to measure job satisfaction variable, a scale, which shows Arnet (1999), Judge et al. (2009) as references, was developed by Chen et al. (2009). It was translated to Turkish by Turunç and Çelik (2012) and contains of 5 expressions.

Sampling Process

As Altunışık et al. stated, in Sekaran's chart named as "Acceptable Sample Sizes for Specific Universes", it has been expressed that the largest population size of universe is 10 million, while the sample size required for this universe is 384. In this study the sample size is stated as 384.

In the studies in which each person involved in the universe doesn't have the equal chance to take part in the sample, it is better to use the sampling techniques not based on probability. Hence, it has been evaluated that convenience sampling is an appropriate sampling technique among the sampling techniques not based on probability (cited in Altunışık et al 2012).

Data Collecting Method

As data collecting method on the research, survey method that contains closed ended and prepared beforehand questions has been used. The survey has two parts and 32 questions. In the first chapter, there are 7 questions orientes to demographical information such as gender, marital status, age, education, income, duration of work at the current workplace and duration of work in the sector. In the second chapter, there are 14 questions measure organizational climate, 6 questions measure organizational identification and 5 questions measure job satisfaction: 25 questions in total. Attendees were asked to agree or disagree to the statements using 5-point Likert scales (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Undecisive, 4= Agree, 5=Strongly Disagree).

Testing of the Scales Used for the Survey

In order to test the validity of the scales, confirmatory factor analysis has been performed by AMOS 22 program. Since compliance measurement values produced by the model created for the scale of the validity of the tests is not within acceptable limits therefore modifications suggested by the program have been made. As a result of modifications; 3 expressions were removed from the organizational climate scale, 1 expression from the organizational identification scale and also 1 expression from the job satisfaction scale so total 5 expressions were removed from the scales. Adaptive values have been produced by the measurement models are within the limits of acceptable so one factor that all variable structures were



confirmed. In order to determine the reliability of the scale Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated with SPSS 22 program. Coefficients was realized as 0.96 on the organizational climate scale; 0.79 on the organizational identification scale and 0.70 on the job satisfaction scale. This score shows that they are reliable quality scale.

Findings

Demographic Features of the Attendee

%48 of the attendee are female (N=144); %52 of them are male (N=156). %61 is married (N=183); %39 is single (N=117). %23,7 is between 31-35 ages (N=71); %48,3 is graduated from high school (N=145), %70 hasbetween 1001-2000 TL income (N=210). %42,3 have been in the same workplace for between 0-3 years (N=127), %35 have been working in this sector for 11 yearsor more (N=105).

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling formed in order to test the hypothesises of the research is shown on the Figure 2.

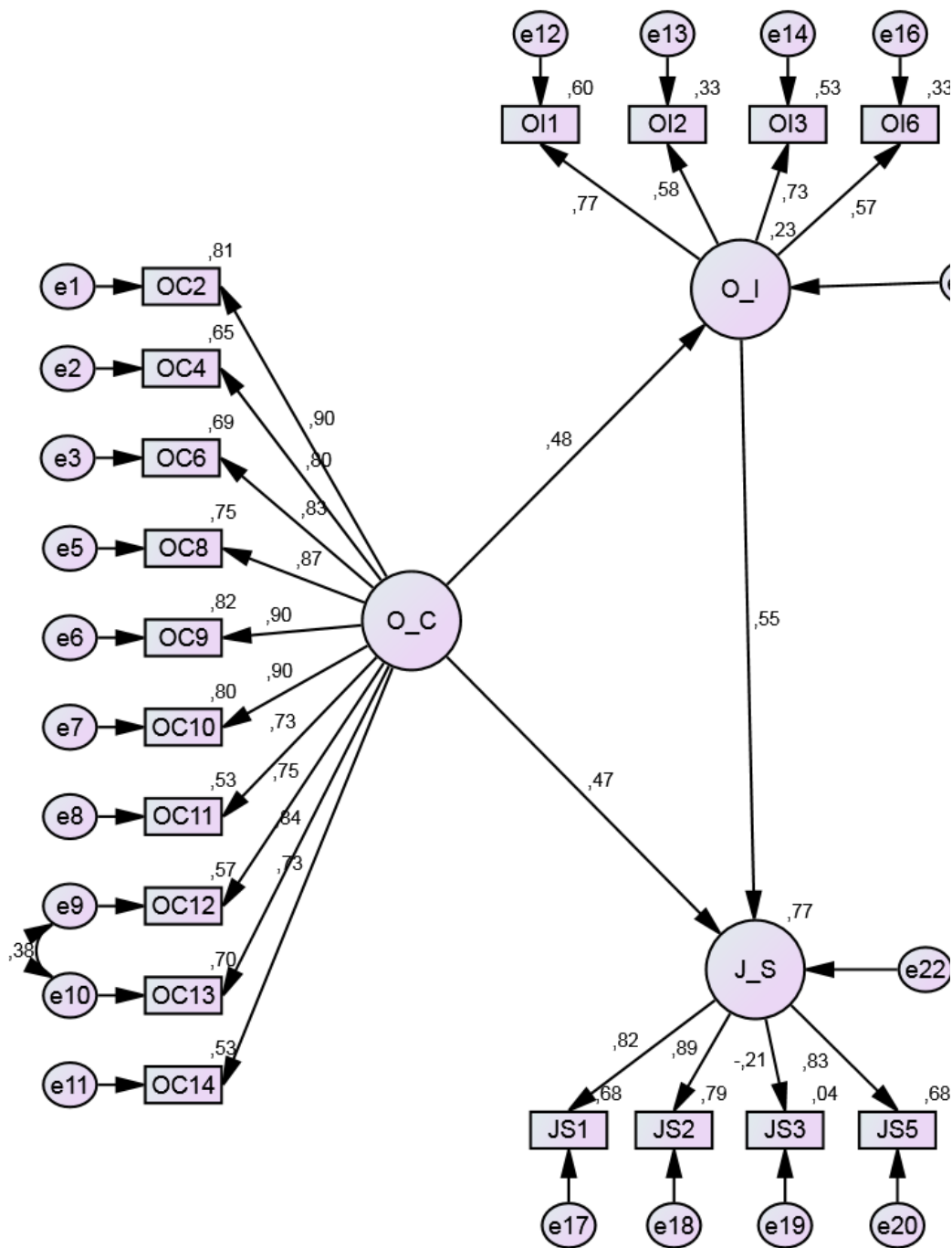


Figure 2 Structural Equation Modeling

Figure 2 shows adaptive values of the structural model is not in compliance with acceptable limits, the results of modification by suggested of the program 1expression was removed from the organizational climate scale and 1expression from the organizational identification scale. Modification results adaptive value (X2: 501,981.940; DF: 131; X2 / df: 3,832; GF: 0.85; CFR: 0.94; RMSEA: 0.080) were observed to be within acceptable limits. Organizational climate affect organizational identification ($\beta = 0.48$; $p < 0.05$); organizational

climate affect job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.47$; $p < 0.05$) and organizational identification affect job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.55$; $p < 0.05$). According to this results of the research 1, 2 and 3 hypothesis are supported. The total impact of organizational climate on job satisfaction, $\beta = 0.73$ was observed. The direct effect is $\beta = 47$ of this effect, $\beta = 26$ is realized indirectly. No. 4 hypothesis of the research are also supported according to the findings. When Squared multiple correlations (R^2) values belonging to the model were analyzed, 23% of organizational identification with variable climate organization, 77% of job satisfaction with organizational climate and organizational identification were determined.

Conclusion

Scientific researches conducted to increase employee performance in the context of efficiency in the hotel businesses, indicate that, organizational climate is efficient in accommodation businesses, like other sectors feature labor-intensive features. In this study, it's been observed that the job satisfaction is affected by organizational identification and organizational climate and that the organizational climate also affects organizational identification. According to these results, hypotheses of the research are supported. Results give essential hints on the hotel personnel's motivation for the hotel management. Creating a positive organizational climate in hotel is always an essential topic for employees' productivity and hotel success. For a positive organizational climate, job health and security should always be a top priority topic and it should be considered that the job satisfaction is affected by organizational identification and organizational climate and that the organizational climate also affects organizational identification.

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SMART TOURIST DESTINATIONS: A DUAL APPROACH

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ABSTRACT

The results of an exploratory research on the concept of Smart Tourist Destination (STD) are presented. It has been carried out using two panels of experts, trying to contribute to the definition of its still fuzzy profile, with a fragmented and very limited scientific literature. In addition to the corresponding literature review, within which a particular emphasis has been made in the approach provided by the complexity theory, the content of this paper covers a number of features of a STD: key aspects; definition; dimensions; functions of the management entity; areas of activity or services to provide; technologies...

Key Words: Smart Destinations, Innovation, Sustainability, Information and Communication Technologies, Complexity Theory.

INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this paper is to contribute to the definition of a Smart Tourist Destination (STD) and its profiles, still fuzzy due to a fragmented literature in the professional side and still very scarce in academic means.

In general, smartness (or intelligence) is related to the ability to understand and solve problems using knowledge (based on data and information) in the best possible manner. Nevertheless, in practice this is still a confusing word often utilized in political agendas and by tech companies to sell their solutions. Therefore, its conceptualization is essential, together with its implications on the tourism governance, once assumed that “despite these concerns, smart tourism is an incredibly promising scenario that results in more convenient, safe, exciting and sustainable living spaces for both residents and tourists, more personalized and therefore more relevant tourism experiences, and even greater opportunities for new services, business models and markets to emerge as a result of more flexible structures and different perspectives on value creation” (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang & Koo, 2015). Or, more synthetically, “a strategic tool for tourism development” (Gretzel, Koo, Sigala & Xiang, 2015).

In this line, this work has been structured as follows:

-Firstly, a review of the literature published in scientific outlets on STD is presented, which is still scarce and very recent; a subsection is devoted to the complexity theory, particularly used in the strategic management field in spite of being rooted in hard sciences such as physics and biology. This theoretical approach is helpful for a better understanding of the functioning of a



STD, which could be considered one of the innovative contributions of this paper.

-The methodology implemented in the empirical part of this research is presented next.

-The following epigraph is devoted to the findings gathered, with regard to key aspects of a STD, its definition, its dimensions, its managing body and the corresponding functions, a list of services and areas of activity in which a STD is expected to be involved, and for closing this section a mention to a number of technologies, which form its backdrop.

-Finally, the concluding section, followed by the full bibliographic references inserted in the text.

SMART TOURIST DESTINATIONS: LITERATURE REVIEW

“Smart” has become a new buzzword fuelled by technology developments, being wider and wider used by practitioners and researchers, but still poorly conceptualized, that is, without an established understanding on its meaning. As stated by Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang & Koo (2015), “in practice ‘smart’ has become a very fuzzy concept often utilized to drive specific political agendas and to sell technological solutions. This is especially true in the case of ‘smart tourism’, where it is frequently used in the context of open data initiatives or for rather trivial projects such as promoting free wifi or the development of mobile applications”. From this starting point, in our opinion, and in agreement with Höjer & Wangel (2015), “it is not so much the individual technological advances but rather the interconnection, synchronization and concerted use of different technologies that constitutes smartness.” Lazer et al. (2009) refer to new modalities of communication, new ways for data collection, analysis and exchanges, and thus, new opportunities for value creation and management.

For bridging this gap, López de Ávila (2015) has defined the smart destination as “an innovative tourist destination, built on an infrastructure of state-of-the-art technology guaranteeing the sustainable development of tourist areas, accessible to everyone, which facilitates the visitor's interaction with and integration into his or her surroundings, increases the quality of the experience at the destination, and improves residents' quality of life.”

Another definition is provided by Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang & Koo (2015): “smart tourism is defined as tourism supported by integrated efforts at a destination to collect and aggregate/harness data derived from physical infrastructure, social connections, government/organizational sources and human bodies/minds in combination with the use of advanced technologies to transform that data into on-site experiences and business value-propositions with a clear focus on efficiency, sustainability and experience enrichment.”

Generally speaking (Gretzel, Koo, Sigala & Xiang, 2015), smart tourism aims to develop information and communication infrastructure and capabilities in order to: improve management/governance, facilitate service/product innovation, enhance the tourist experience, and, ultimately, improve the competitiveness of tourism firms and destinations.

The intensive use of that technological infrastructure should lead to the reinforcement of their



consumer's perspective, enhancing the tourism experience of visitors in terms of its co-creation and customization, playing them the double role of consumers and producers of data/information. The implementation of technological advances is the backdrop of a smart tourism destination, but this is just the tip of the iceberg. In fact, its marketing rationale and its implications for its governance are equally critical aspects. Without them, its technological dimension would not have any clear direction and would be unable to provide sustainable competitive advantages.

In this line, Wang, Li & Li (2013) illustrate how the notion of smart destinations has changed the way some Chinese destinations support their processes of tourist experience creation, communication strategy with consumers and management of destination competitiveness, suggesting that service-dominant logic permeates this initiative. Collectively, the service-dominant logic highlights customer-defined and co-created value, operant resources (knowledge and skills) as the fundamental source of competitive advantage, as well as two-way communication with customers and relationship management (Merz, He, & Vargo, 2009). In fact, Governments in China and South Korea are heavily funding initiatives mostly focused on building the technological infrastructure that supports smart tourism (Hwang, Park & Hunter, 2015). In Europe, many of the smart tourism initiatives were born out of smart city projects, and their focus is more on innovation, competitiveness and developing smart end-user applications that support enriched tourism experiences (Lamsfus, Martín, Alzua-Sorzabal & Torres-Manzanera, 2015). In Australia, however, the emphasis is on smart governance and specifically open data (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang & Koo, 2015).

From its managerial and governance perspective, a smart destination can empower destination management organizations, local institutions and tourism companies to make their decisions and take actions based upon the data produced in within the destination, gathered, managed and processed by means of the ICT infrastructure, encompassing intelligent systems, cloud computing, Linked Data, Social Networks, the Internet of Things and mobile applications (Lamsfus, Martín, Alzua-Sorzabal & Torres-Manzanera, 2015). Context-awareness of mobile systems has also been emphasized in connection with smart destinations (Lamsfus, Xiang, Alzua-Sorzabal & Martin, 2013).

Within this environment, stakeholders of tourism are to be dynamically interconnected through technological platforms to collect, create and exchange information that can be used to enrich tourism experiences in real-time (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2014). The sharing economy, for example, has boomed as a result of the availability of these platforms (Airbnb, Uber, etc.).

Recently Gretzel, Werthner, Koo & Lamsfus (2015) conceptualize the smart destination within the broader idea of a smart tourism ecosystem, formed, also and jointly, by smart technologies and smart cities. That ecosystem nourishes new business models, new interaction paradigms and even new species of tourism businesses, making very hard the



delineation of its boundaries. For instance, touristic consumers have resources and because of their ability to tap into the digital ecosystem can organize among themselves or mingle with the closely related residential consumer species and act like producers (a phenomenon often referred to as the sharing economy). In addition, tourism suppliers and/or other business-focused species (with lines among industries becoming increasingly blurred in an open system) can connect through smart technology and create new service offerings (in medical tourism, for example).

According to Gretzel, Werthner, Koo & Lamsfus (2015), it is important to recognize that a smart tourism ecosystem cannot be created, but the necessary technological foundations have to be available for the tourism ecosystem to become smart, such as mobile and wireless technologies, social media, location-based and sensor technologies... Definitely, intelligent systems are needed to support the complexity of interactions within the tourism ecosystem, which surpass human processing capacities (Gretzel, 2011). Another issue is the regulatory side of these ecosystems, being unclear till which extent governments have to interfere.

If smart tourism requires an ecosystem approach, and this calls for complex, adaptive systems supported by intensive technological endowments which interact in multiple ways and on multiple levels to create value and foster innovation, leading, supposedly, to smarter decisions, the foundations of the complexity theory could be applied for a better understanding of this phenomenon, as detailed in the following subsection. This approach can be presented as innovative, as no evidences have been found on the application of this theoretical framework to tourism destinations and its smartness.

To sum up, the smart destination remains an emerging topic in tourism research that requires the integration of knowledge from a number of relevant fields such as information systems, travel behavior, marketing, urban planning, destination management and governance, as well as the increasingly important data analytics and data sciences. Although it is a phenomenon of growing significance, scholarly work on it is lacking, both conceptually and empirically. Therefore, the establishment of a research agenda is critical to fill the many gaps still existing in this new field of study.

In this sense, and as “we are still only at the beginning of developing and understanding the full potential of smart tourism” (Werthner, Koo, Gretzel & Lamsfus, 2015), the contribution of Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang & Koo (2015) is worthy of note, with their proposal of a smart tourism research agenda. The main research areas identified by these authors are summarized in table 1, emphasizing the currently most overlooked gaps in understanding the potential of smart tourism and its possible drawbacks.

Table 1

Research agenda

Smart Tourism Aspect
Consumption

Research Topics

Privacy concerns. Attitudes toward co-creation. Value derived. Physiological consequences of ubiquitous



Service Provision	connectivity. Need/desire for escape from technology. Technology access Value of data/information. Exploitable technology-market combinations. Suitable business models. Innovation capacity. Human resources implications. Collaboration/coordination mechanisms. Market dynamics
Facilitation	Information governance. Infrastructure requirements. Social and environmental cost. Artificial intelligence

Source: Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang & Koo (2015).

As an addition to this list, recognized by its authors as a research agenda far from being comprehensive, and going beyond the mentioned topic of “information governance”, the definition of the new roles to be played by the managing body of a destination with merits to be recognized as smart (usually named as Destination Management Organization, or DMO) is another outstanding challenge. In other words, what should a DMO do to encourage and push forward the smart character of a tourism destination? Or how should a DMO be reshaped to be consistent with the idea of smartness? The problem is, as stated by Gretzel, Werthner, Koo & Lamsfus (2015) that “smart tourism initiatives around the world are seeking to build viable smart tourism ecosystems, but the complexity of the sector makes it extremely difficult to go beyond very specific platform-, technology- or service-specific innovations.” Sheehan, Vargas, Presenza & Abbate (in press) offer an organizing framework to clarify the DMO’s role as an intelligent agent, based on its position as a boundary spanner between the internal destination environment and the external competitive environment, which requires higher capabilities in knowledge management. More specifically, some prescriptions are proposed: managers must be adept at stakeholder identification; they must invest in stakeholder relationship management; they must ensure that they have the human and technological resources configured to gather data, analyze it, and create knowledge that supports strategic decision-making and sustainable actions; they must have effective communication collaboration-building capabilities to acquire and disseminate knowledge on both sides of the destination boundary; they must maintain organizational flexibility and be open to partnerships, networks and clusters that continually change; to maximize the intelligence of the DMO, a culture of learning must pervade the entire organization.

SMART TOURISM DESTINATION UNDER THE COMPLEXITY THEORY APPROACH

Complexity theory emerged as scientists across a range of disciplines recognized that detailed research on isolated parts of complex systems (such as tourism destinations) could reveal only limited information about the behavior of the system as a whole. Attention to complex systems as holistic entities, influencing and being influenced by the surrounding environment, means that meta-level patterns of change could be observed.



Significantly, complex theory challenges both the source and characteristics of order in complex systems, traditionally associated with linear relationships and incremental progression governed by globally optimized decision making. Instead, complexity theory argues that adaptive strategies not dependent on rational choice or full information hold sway. The consequences are emergent changes or self-organization as a result of localized decisions by operating agents in the system, which deny the traditional prediction capacity, since in complex adaptive systems “small inputs can lead to dramatically large consequences and very slight differences in initial conditions produce very different outcomes” (Lewin, 1993). This is the so-called “butterfly effect”, which basically means that small causes can have large effects. As an example, a simple comment made by a very popular personality about a particular place can generate an unexpected and unusual curiosity in many people for visiting that place, boosting massively the tourist inflow.

Therefore, complexity theory challenges modes of governance based on the assumption of predictability and controllability, such as ‘command and control’, “predict and plan”, or comprehensive rational approaches. Governing complex adaptive systems requires awareness of and attention to “non-linear dynamics, threshold effects and limited predictability” (Duit & Galez, 2008). This means that the outcome of policy interventions cannot be known in advance as policy effects are themselves emergent properties (Wagenaar, 2007).

Planning in general is a process that is concerned with shaping the future trajectories of complex systems, which are systems with emergent properties. In other words, we cannot generate an understanding of the nature of the system and its past, present, and potential future trajectories by an analytical process in which we reduce the system conceptually to its elements and model it in terms of those elements. More important than these elements in themselves are the interactions among them. This phenomenon can be clearly watched in a STD, where interactions, facilitated and magnified by its tech endowment, are critical as a source of new opportunities.

In a nutshell, complexity theory is concerned with complex adaptive systems (CAS) governed by non-linear causality that have “the ability to adapt and co-evolve as they organize through time” (Urry, 2005). More specifically, these CAS meet the following requirements, which fully fit the profile of a tourism destination (Stacey, 2003): they consist of numerous interconnecting parts (tourism agents); each agent (both private and public) acts on its own ideas (schemata) and rules, and on its local context; and the interactions among the parts generate novel properties that cannot be predicted by a simple sum from those of individual parts. For example, interactions among complementary companies able to produce a new tourist offer; or the interaction among government agencies, business associations and knowledge agents (such as researchers in universities) have the potential for the creation of a new meaning and direction for the whole destination (coined as the triple helix concept).

According to the literature (Palmberg, 2009), complex adaptive systems have unique



properties, among them:

*Co-evolution. In the complex systems context, co-evolution is referred if interactions influence the dynamics of the individual systems, leading to irreversible patterns of change within each of the interacting system. Therefore, co-evolution means that a complex system co-evolves with its environment, as happens in the tourism ecosystem: its individual systems are interdependent and co-evolve.

*Emergence. This feature has been defined as the generation of novel and coherent structures, patterns and properties during the process of self-organization in complex systems.

*Self-organization. It refers to the ability to develop a new system structure as a result of the system's internal constitution and not as a result of external management (Prigogine & Stengers, 1984). In essence, self-organization refers to systems that organize themselves without external direction or control. Therefore, in CAS emergence and self-organization occur together. If so, and with specific regard to tourism destinations, a new question mark raises: is the existence of a DMO relevant, or even necessary?

Following Chiva-Gómez (2003), a CAS is defined as a system "...composed of interacting 'agents' following rules, exchanging influence with their local and global environments and altering the very environment they are responding to by virtue of their simple action."

As a result, it is worth to be emphasized that complex adaptive systems have the capacity to change and learn from experience, an obvious evidence of smartness. In other words, they are able to respond to and adjust themselves to changes in their environment, constantly adapting nonlinear relationships. Ecosystems are typical examples of CAS, and, as indicated, destinations have been characterized as a smart tourism ecosystem.

Management, in the context of complexity theory, means influencing the process of change of a CAS from one state to another, through anticipation and adaptation. Being more specific about these two dimensions, adaptive management consists of adjustments while the structure of a system is changing; while anticipative management means directing and guiding while taking the possible future behavior of the system into account (Van der Brugge & Van Raak, 2007). Transition management is based on this conceptualization of "governance of complexity" (Loorbach, 2010).

In CAS, governance systems have been characterized by five elements:

- 1.-An adaptive system embraces an undefined set of interrelated agents or elements. These agents influence each other in mutual and multiple ways. At the same time, all agents are assumed to have relative autonomy. This means that each agent is capable to respond to external events and pressure in an individual way (Eldelson, 1997; Chiva-Gómez, 2003).
- 2.-Complex adaptive systems are nested, in the sense they have a hierarchy of embedded layers, which are, however, hard to define. The layers and subsystems co-evolve with each other.
- 3.-The external context can be of great importance for the evolution process. Adaptive system



development depends upon the interaction between the composing agents and their surrounding systems. The interaction between a nested governance system and its context can be visualized as a set of negative and positive feedback loops.

4.-A complex system will normally develop in a non-linear pattern. The interactions between agents will be changing over time and this will create a whimsical pattern. It is almost impossible to predict the dynamics in interaction, because each agent can decide to change course.

5.-The course of development of complex systems depends upon the initial conditions of each new step of action. Relatively small changes in those conditions may generate a significant system leaps.

If we assume that these characteristics can be applied to any tourism destination, its smart character would lead to a type of governance according to these features, in which the reinforcement and continuous update of its technological base is essential, but by no means the only factor to consider.

In this sense, applying complex adaptive system theory to governance not only will have consequences for the analysis of stability and change, but also for the view on leadership. Traditionally, leadership is about one person and one single actor in charge. In CAS, leadership in a multifocal way can be incorporated. However, when the focus is on system change, the concept of leadership will become more multiple. McKelvey (2008) describes how leadership can build adaptive tension into a social system that moves it to the edge of chaos, even a specific edge, with the precise aim of proactive adaptation and harmonic co-evolution with the environment. He argues, like Ullrich, Bien, Marion & McKelvey (2007), that leadership in complex systems necessarily must be shared in the form of distributed intelligence. Thereby, in tourism destinations, only by way of distributed intelligence adequate assessments of external and internal change can be made.

As a conclusion, for a tourism destination become smart, the governance system should be perceived as a living organism and not as a mere instrument that should be made suitable for business climate adaptation. Below, as a result of the exploratory findings of this empirical research, we will see how the experts conceive this issue.

METHODOLOGY

The results presented here, from this exploratory study, have been gathered after carrying out a survey to two panels of experts: the first one consisting of 15 Spanish and Portuguese researchers on tourism, belonging to 8 higher education institutions; the second made up by 15 Spanish professionals at senior management level of tourism companies and organizations. The questionnaire was developed by the author in successive iterations, debugging its contents through its contrast to elements in the limited existing literature (of a nature more professional than academic) and the personal experience. Finally, it was formed by a mix of



open questions and a number of items (corresponding to a list of selected services and areas of activity) to be valued in a five-points semantic differential scale in order to prioritize their relevance in a STD. Nevertheless, this a priori defined list was presented as an open-ended question, as the informant was allowed to propose and value new items. This process extended from August to November 2013.

The academic panel was the first to be explored. The questionnaires were administered via email during the period between November and December 2013. The processing of data obtained was done in January 2014.

The second round was carried out with the collaboration of Spanish professionals to senior management level in: travel agencies; hotel and restaurant associations; areas of professional studies and of research in sectorial associations; areas of tourism in public institutions; consortia of tourist towns; corporations / centers / technological institutes connected to tourism; hotels; Spanish offices of tourism abroad; convention bureaux.

After sending an explanatory letter with the objectives pursued and a commitment of confidentiality, the questionnaires to this group of experts was administered by the same procedure (via email) between May and July 2014, being August devoted to the corresponding statistical treatment, in the same line as in the case of the academic panel, using the SPSS software.

FINDINGS

They have been organized in six blocks: key aspects; definition; dimensions; the managing body and its functions; services and areas of activity; technologies. In this manner a better understanding of a STD is tried to be presented.

KEY ASPECTS

A number of key aspects have been underlined by the experts questioned:

- The new technologies. At this point, the professionals emphasize the need for an integrated management of systems and platforms; that is, the creation of an advanced digital space through the integration of data.
- A more effective and efficient accessibility to products / services, adding value through customization. This promotes tourist's interaction (before, during and after the visit) with the destination and his/her integration in it. In short a better marketing and management for the destination.
- Economic, social and environmental sustainability of the destination. This means that the beneficiaries are not tourists only, but also residents in the local community.
- Generation of new knowledge, innovation and differentiation.
- To the previous items, the academics add the importance of the existence of a shared vision, if possible through a consensus among the main actors in the destination. In other words, what



we look for with the use of cutting edge technologies, where we want or need to go, which kind of customer we aim to attract, etc.; what is our tourism model, in short.

DEFINITION

Once all these key aspects have been put together, the following definition was raised:

A STD is one that, from a shared vision by the actors involved in it, is based on an extensive use of cutting edge technologies in order to create an advanced digital space through an integrated network of management systems, platforms and, in short, of all kind of data (on mobility, energy consumption, etc.) in order to improve the whole management of the destination and, therefore, its differentiation and competitiveness. This will enable a more effective and efficient accessibility to products / services that make up the offer, adding value through their customization and promoting tourist's interaction (before, during and after the visit) with the destination and his/her integration in it. A STD is built on the values of innovation and sustainability, working to improve the tourist's experience and enhance the quality of life of local communities (residents).

DIMENSIONS

As technology alone is not a carrier of sustainable competitive advantages, which is broadly supported by the scientific literature, a number of complementary dimensions were identified both by academics and professionals.

It is worth to underline here the professional approach, which was based on the following dimensions:

-Strategic: it refers to the commitment of governments, private entities and residents to give priority to the tourist vocation of the place into consideration. This public-private commitment is to ensure a sustainable destination management (economic, social and environmental) and the enhancement of what defines and differentiates it (branding management).

-Operational: it includes the specific functions of each agent involved in the destination. For example, institutional support to carry out a task of communication/dissemination within the local society (among citizens, SMEs and institutions) to bridge the technological gap in the digital age.

-Technological: it includes design, integration and implementation of the diverse technologies able to add value and maximize customer satisfaction.

-Accessibility to and management of information, which in turn has two facets: with regard to that provided to tourists in the full cycle of consumption, so that the interaction of tourists with the technological tools (web, apps, social networks ...) occurs in the most natural way (without "technological stress ") and securely; the storage, management and exploitation of which is obtained through the above mentioned cycle (CRM, Open/Big Data, etc.) to



determine demand profiles and needs, offering innovations, new business models, etc. The academic group proposed four dimensions as well, but using dissimilar denominations. Nevertheless, as stated in Vargas (2015), both are interrelated and could be integrated.

THE MANAGING BODY AND ITS FUNCTIONS

This section is devoted to the governance system and the implications inducted by the intended implementation of a STD.

As defined by the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2010), “Tourist governance is a practice of government capable to be measured, oriented towards efficiently direct the tourism sector at its various levels of government, through forms of coordination and cooperation between them in order to achieve the goals shared by networks of actors involved in the industry, aiming to achieve opportunities and solutions based on agreements sustained in the recognition of interdependences and shared responsibilities”.

The academic panel structured the functions of a STD’s managing body rather neatly, into three sections: those related to demand; those related to supply and the alignment or coupling between supply and demand.

-Functions from the point of view of demand include: understanding the incoming markets; studies of tourists’ behavior and satisfaction (research); monitoring and analysis of demand (particularly the new technological and more informed tourist); market segmentation.

-Functions from the point of view of supply would be: exhaustive knowledge of resources and products; coordination and internal communication among destination’ stakeholders (fostering networking and cooperation); public leadership; development and innovation of products/tourism experiences; training and awareness (quality).

-Functions from the point of view of the interaction between both: knowledge and abilities for the implementation of technological tools (social networks, big data, etc.); marketing (promotion, communication, etc.); maintaining balance between industry changes and changes of the tourism model desired by the local community (residents); information system: measurement through indicators (scorecard); improvement plans.

Complementarily, professionals see the need to go beyond, attributing direct competence in the development and implementation of the strategic plan of the destination (including urban development of the territory and its infrastructure), covering its management in all its aspects, with an integrated and systemic capacity able to generate synergies and resolve contradictions. This means that it should perform an extensive coordination effort among the various players that make up the tourist mesh of the corresponding territory.

SERVICES AND AREAS OF ACTIVITY

Thanks to the contributions of both panels, eight blocks were identified: safety and



environment; mobility / transport infrastructures; co-creating products with tourists; servicing; information management at the destination; tourist information before traveling; tourist information while traveling; tourist information after the trip.

After providing priorities, both panels agreed in the top three:

*The management of information at the destination, which includes aspects such as internal management (integrated planning of information by the managing body of the destination, scorecard, etc.); external management (on tourism operators in the destination); availability of public information (open data) for companies and other recipients; and management of social platforms/networks.

*The tourist information before traveling: information on products / attractions; booking systems (for hotels, restaurants, shows, etc.).

*The co-creation of products / services together with tourists: routes, complementary supply, destination marketing.

In addition, as less important in both panels, aspects relating to "safety and environment" and "mobility/transport infrastructure" emerged.

TECHNOLOGIES

Concerning the bunch of technologies implemented by a STD, the panel of professionals classified them into three areas: Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), Energy, and Mobility. In addition, many tools were mentioned, among others and in alphabetical order: big data; business analytics; business intelligence; data visualization software; fast data²³; machine learning; interactive devices with the destination (apps, augmented reality); open data; semantic information discovery²⁴; system dynamics models.

CONCLUSION

The light shedding by this exploratory research shows us that a new look of tourism governance is necessary, based on four elements: managing body, technological capital (ICTs), human capital and values.

With regard to the managing body, in the transition from a traditional tourism destination into a STD, its Destination Management Organization (or DMO), which is in charge of the governing system, should pay attention to a number of changes, identified in Sheehan, Vargas, Presenza & Abbate (in press).

²³ More info at:

<http://www.infoworld.com/t/big-data/fast-data-the-next-step-after-big-data-244102>

<http://www.tecnotur.es/ponencias/victorayllon.pdf>

²⁴ More info at:

http://aran.library.nuigalway.ie/xmlui/bitstream/handle/10379/552/YTbjuZCm_1.pdf?sequence=1

Oracle, 2013, Oracle's Endeca Information Discovery: A Technical Overview, Oracle.



Not very much to say about the importance of the Technological Capital, but more emphasis should be paid to the core values of a destination (what it means for potential tourists), and on its human side. In this venue:

-The traditional competencies of planning and coordination are seen reinforced by strategic leadership skills aimed at creating meanings and the network of relationships / connections (at all levels) most suitable for the objectives of the destination.

-Not so much to control it as to bring about change in it from the proactivity that allows access to information, taking innovation and sustainability as core values that should be injected into his work and that of destination actors.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTERNATIONAL TOURISM RECEIPTS AND ECONOMIC GROWTH IN THE CHINA ECONOMY

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ABSTRACT

This study applies a bootstrap panel Granger causality test to examine the causal relationship between international tourism receipts and economic growth in 31 China's major regions for the period from 2000 to 2014, which accounts for both dependency and heterogeneity across regions. The empirical results of this study support evidence for the growth hypothesis in the regions, such as Hebei, Anhui, Hubei, Hunan, Guangxi, Tibet and Shanxi. A reverse relationship supports evidence on the conservation hypothesis for the regions, such as Liaoning, Zhejiang, Fujian, Shandong, Guangdong, Shanxi, Henan, Chongqing, Sichuan, Guizhou and Yunnan. A reciprocal causal relationship was found for Guangxi and Tibet, while the result of a neutrality hypothesis supported 13 of these 31 regions (i.e., Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Hainan, Jilin, Heilongjiang, Jiangxi, Inner Mongolia, Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia and Xinjiang). The empirical findings of this study provide important policy implications for 31 China's major regions.

Key Words: International tourism receipts; Economic growth; China's major regions; Dependency and heterogeneity; Panel causality test

INTRODUCTION

Arslanturk, Balciare, and Ozdemir (2011) indicate that, over the past several decades, international tourism has been increasingly becoming important, and the tourism industry has begun to play an important role in the economies of many countries. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2014) report, travel and tourism continues to be one of the world's largest industries. It has long been recognized that tourism can have an impact on economic activity (e.g. Dwyer, Forsyth, & Spurr, 2004; Khan, Phang, & Toh, 1995; Lee & Kwon, 1995; Nunkoo, 2015). Tourism is perceived as increasing overall economic activity, and this increase in the activity is generally understood to be desirable; namely, the positive



impact of tourism on economic activity is frequently described.

Tourism is recognized to have a positive effect on long-run economic growth through different channels. First, tourism is a type of foreign exchange earner in term of inbound tourism that attracts foreign tourists who consume the products of local markets and businesses, allowing the country to pay for imported capital goods or basic inputs used in the production process. Second, tourism motivates governments and firms to invest in the new infrastructure and business environment, fostering the ability of local firms to compete with firms in other tourist countries. Third, tourism stimulates other economic industries through the direct, indirect, induced and spillover effects. Fourth, tourism contributes to the employment generation and income increase. Fifth, tourism can result in the positive exploitation of economies of scales in national firms. Finally, tourism is an important factor in the diffusion of knowledge, stimulating learning, and the accumulation of human capital. Tourism has become a common development focus in many countries (see Andriotis, 2002; Fagance, 1999; Lin & Liu, 2000; Schubert, Brida, & Risso, 2011). In general, tourism development has been considered to be a positive contribution to economic growth. The Asia Pacific region has become a rapidly growing tourism destination and has even surpassed the Americas to become the world's second largest tourist-receiving region since 2001 (Lee & Chien, 2008).

It is important for policy-makers to identify the nature of causal linkages between economic growth and tourism consumption. From a theoretical perspective, it has been argued that in the existing literature, there are four hypotheses to exhibit the relationship between tourism consumption and economic growth, namely, growth hypothesis, conservation hypothesis, feedback hypothesis and neutrality hypothesis. Before making proper government policies, authorities need to identify the relationship between tourism and economic growth to make an appropriate strategy. The growth hypothesis means that the tourism activities will positively contribute to economic growth. In this situation, the government should put more effort into refining the infrastructure, such as transportation, public security and accommodation.

This study is organized as follows. Section 2 outlines the literature review while section 3 focuses on the data used in this work. Section 4 describes the econometric method and Section 5 presents the empirical results of this study and some policy implications. Section 6 concludes this study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is an important issue to study the relationship between tourism and economic growth over the past few years (Arslanturk et al., 2011; Kim, Chen, & Jang, 2006). The policy-makers desiring to create wealth in the country concern not only the overall industrial development but also the appropriate resource. When the tourism industry booms, it will create employment opportunity and increase civil and government income. Many researchers argue that the positive relationship exists between tourism and economic growth (Khan, Phang, &



Toh, 1995; Lee & Kwon, 1995). Previous studies have not offered a consistent response to the explanation of the relationship in different countries.

Tourism-led growth means that tourism plays an active role in an economy. By attracting more tourists to consume in a region, tourism causes catalytic reaction and spillover effects in economic growth. Because of tourism development, more jobs have been created and many people engaging in tourism activities have more income to consume. Furthermore, tourism income tax increases government income which affords government expenditure. Both of civil consumption and government expenditure create the multiplier effect in economic growth. In sum, the tourism industry has a positive effect on economic growth (Khan, Phang, & Toh, 1995; Lee & Kwon, 1995; Oh, 2005).

From a macroeconomics formula: $y = c + i + g + (x - m)$, all of civil consumption, business investment, government expenditure and net export may increase when the tourism industry is booming in a country. Subsequently, tourism development contributes to the national income. As a result, the economic growth increases. Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002) examine the relationship between tourism and long-term economic growth in Spain. The results indicate that tourism influences the economic growth. Gunduz and Hatemi (2005) find the one-way causality from the tourism industry to economic growth. Dritsakis (2004), Durbarry (2004), and Oh (2005) support the aforementioned results.

The research findings of Lanza, Temple and Urga (2003) also support this perspective. Oh (2005) indicates that when the ratio of GDP in tourism is low, more probability will exist within the economic-driven tourism growth. Some researchers have found that the reciprocal relationship exists between tourism and economic growth. Kim, Chen, and Jang (2006) indicate that there is a long-run equilibrium between the tourism and economic growth in Taiwan. Tourism and economic growth reciprocally affect each other. Chen and Chiou-Wei (2009) apply the Taiwan and Korea data, finding that Taiwan is tourism-led economic growth and Korea is a reciprocal relationship between tourism and economic growth. Dritsakis (2004) and Durbarry (2004) also find a reciprocal relationship in Greece and Mauritius. Furthermore, Arslanturk, Balçilar, and Ozdemir (2011) find that there is no relationship between tourism and economic growth. In addition, they employed the Granger causality test from 1963 to 2006, finding that the relationship between tourism and economic growth did not exist. Oh (2005) argues that so far there are not enough research findings to clearly identify the relationship between tourism and economic growth. It may be because of the limitation of the data and methodology.

DATA COLLECTION

In this study, we used the tourism statistics of National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) of the People's Republic of China. Annual data of tourism receipts index and per capita real GDP index in 31 China's major cities from 2000 to 2014 were adopted from the official website of the NBS. The NBS has collected and announced the tourism statistics since 1995.



The annual data employed in this study included the period from 2000 to 2014 for 31 China’s major cities or regions (i.e., Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Liaoning, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Fujian, Shandong, Guangdong, Hainan, Shanxi, Jilin, Heilongjiang, Anhui, Jiangxi, Henan, Hubei, Hunan, Inner Mongolia, Guangxi, Chognqing, Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan, Tibet, Shannxi, Gansu, Qinghai and Ningxia). Table 1 displays that the samples are classified by regions, including 31 China’s major cities or regions. Thus, in this study, all of China’s regions were divided into three groups according to regional levels. Subsequently, the eastern, central and western areas within 31 China’s regions were selected.

Table 1
List of Regions Classified into the Three Area Groups for 31 China’s Regions

Eastern areas (11 regions)	Central areas (8 regions)	Western areas (12 regions)
Beijing	Shanxi	Inner Mongolia
Tianjin	Jilin	Guangxi
Hebei	Heilongjiang	Chognqing
Liaoning	Anhui	Sichuan
Shanghai	Jiangxi	Guizhou
Jiangsu	Henan	Yunnan
Zhejiang	Hubei	Tibet
Fujian	Hunan	Shannxi
Shandong		Gansu
Guangdong		Qinghai
Hainan		Ningxia
		Xinjiang

METHODOLOGY

Testing cross-sectional dependence

To test cross-sectional dependency, the Lagrange Multiplier (LM hereafter) Breusch and Pagan (1980) test has been extensively used in empirical studies. The procedure to compute the LM test requires the estimation of the following panel data model:

$$y_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_i'x_{it} + u_{it} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, N ; t = 1, 2, \dots, T \quad (1)$$

In equation (1), y_{it} is per capita real GDP (*PRGDP*), i is the cross-sectional dimension, t is the time dimension, x_{it} is $k \times 1$ vector of explanatory variables (such as *PRGDP* and *TR*), and α_i and β_i are the individual intercepts and slope coefficients that are allowed to vary across regions. In the LM test, the null hypothesis of no-cross sectional dependence,

$$H_0 : Cov(u_{it}, u_{jt}) = 0 \text{ for all } t \text{ and } i \neq j - \text{ is tested against the alternative hypothesis of cross-}$$

sectional dependence, $H_1 : Cov(u_{it}, u_{jt}) \neq 0$, for at least one pair of $i \neq j$. To test the null

hypothesis, Breusch and Pagan (1980) develop the LM test as follows:

$$LM = T \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N \hat{\rho}_{ij}^2$$

(2)

where $\hat{\rho}_{ij}$ is the sample estimate of the pair-wise correlation of the residuals from an

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimation of equation (1) for each i .

Pesaran (2004) proposes a cross-sectional dependency test (called the CD test) for panel data models where $T \rightarrow \infty$ and $N \rightarrow \infty$ in any order. However, the CD test is subject to decreasing power in certain situations where the population average pair-wise correlations are zero, although the underlying individual population pair-wise correlations are non-zero (Pesaran, Ullah, & Yamagata, 2008). Furthermore, in stationary dynamic panel data models the CD test fails to reject the null hypothesis when the factor loadings have zero mean in the cross-sectional dimension (Sarafisidis, Yamagata, & Robertson, 2009). To address these problems, Pesaran et al. (2008) propose a bias-adjusted test, which is a modified version of the LM test, using the exact mean and variance of the LM statistic. The bias-adjusted LM test is as follows:

$$LM_{adj} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2T}{N(N-1)}\right)} \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^N \hat{\rho}_{ij} \frac{(T-k)\hat{\rho}_{ij}^2 - \mu_{Tij}}{\sqrt{v_{Tij}^2}} \quad (3)$$

where μ_{Tij} and v_{Tij}^2 are the exact mean and variance of $(T-k)\hat{\rho}_{ij}^2$, which are provided by

Pesaran et al. (2008). Under the null hypothesis where first $T \rightarrow \infty$ and then $N \rightarrow \infty$, the LM_{adj} test is asymptotic standard normal distribution.

Testing slope homogeneity

The second issue in panel data analysis is to decide whether the slope coefficients are homogeneous. Causality running from one variable to another one due to the imposition of a joint restriction for the whole panel is the strong null hypothesis (Granger, 2003). Moreover, the homogeneity assumption for the parameters is unable to capture heterogeneity due to country-specific characteristics (Breitung, 2005).

The most common method to test the null hypothesis of slope homogeneity- $H_0 : \beta_i = \beta$ for all i -against the hypothesis of heterogeneity- $H_1 : \beta_i \neq \beta_j$ for a non-zero fraction of pair-wise slopes for $i \neq j$ - is to apply the standard F test. The F test is valid for cases where the cross-sectional dimension (N) is relatively small, and the time dimension (T) of the panel is large, the explanatory variables are strictly exogenous, and the error variances are homoscedastic. Through the relaxation of the homoscedasticity assumption in the F test, Swamy (1970) develops the slope homogeneity test on the dispersion of individual slope estimates from a suitable pooled estimator. However, both the F and Swamy tests require panel data models where N is small relative to T (Pesaran & Yamagata, 2008). Pesaran and



Yamagata (2008) propose a standardized version of Swamy’s test (called $\tilde{\Delta}$ test) for testing slope homogeneity in large panels. The $\tilde{\Delta}$ test is valid as $(N, T) \rightarrow \infty$ without any restrictions on the relative expansion rates of N and T when the error terms are normally distributed. In the $\tilde{\Delta}$ test approach, the first step is to compute the following modified version of Swamy’s test:

$$\tilde{S} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{\beta}_i - \tilde{\beta}_{WFE})' \frac{x_i' M_{\tau} x_i}{\tilde{\sigma}_i^2} (\hat{\beta}_i - \tilde{\beta}_{WFE}) \tag{4}$$

where $\hat{\beta}_i$ is the pooled OLS estimator, $\tilde{\beta}_{WFE}$ is the weighted fixed effect pooled estimator, M_{τ} is an identity matrix while the $\tilde{\sigma}_i^2$ is the estimator of σ_i^2 . Thus, the standardized dispersion statistic is developed as follows:

$$\tilde{\Delta} = \sqrt{N} \left(\frac{N^{-1} \tilde{S} - k}{\sqrt{2k}} \right) \tag{5}$$

Under the null hypothesis with the condition of $(N, T) \rightarrow \infty$, as long as $\sqrt{N} / T \rightarrow \infty$ and the error terms are normally distributed, the $\tilde{\Delta}$ test has asymptotic standard normal distribution. The small sample properties of $\tilde{\Delta}$ test can be improved under the normally distributed errors using the following bias-adjusted version:

$$\tilde{\Delta}_{adj} = \sqrt{N} \left(\frac{N^{-1} \tilde{S} - E(\tilde{z}_{it})}{\sqrt{\text{var}(\tilde{z}_{it})}} \right) \tag{6}$$

where the mean is $E(\tilde{z}_{it}) = k$ while the variance is $\text{var}(\tilde{z}_{it}) = 2k(T - k - 1) / T + 1$

Panel causality analysis

The presence of both cross-sectional dependency and heterogeneity across 31 major regions of China requires a panel causality method that can account for such dynamics. The bootstrap panel causality approach proposed by Kónya (2006) is able to account for both cross-sectional dependence and country-specific heterogeneity. This approach is based on the seemingly unrelated regression (SUR) estimation of the set of equations and Wald tests with individual, country-specific bootstrap critical values.

The system to be estimated in the bootstrap panel causality approach can be expressed as follows:



$$\begin{aligned}
 y_{1,t} &= \alpha_{1,1} + \sum_{i=1}^{ly_1} \beta_{1,1,i} y_{1,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{lx_1} \delta_{1,1,i} x_{1,t-i} + \varepsilon_{1,1,t} \\
 y_{2,t} &= \alpha_{1,2} + \sum_{i=1}^{ly_1} \beta_{1,2,i} y_{2,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{lx_1} \delta_{1,2,i} x_{2,t-i} + \varepsilon_{1,2,t} \\
 &\vdots
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{7} \text{ and}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 y_{N,t} &= \alpha_{1,N} + \sum_{i=1}^{ly_1} \beta_{1,N,i} y_{N,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{lx_1} \delta_{1,N,i} x_{1,N,t-i} + \varepsilon_{1,N,t} \\
 x_{1,t} &= \alpha_{2,1} + \sum_{i=1}^{ly_2} \beta_{2,1,i} y_{1,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{lx_2} \delta_{2,1,i} x_{1,t-i} + \varepsilon_{2,1,t} \\
 x_{2,t} &= \alpha_{2,2} + \sum_{i=1}^{ly_2} \beta_{2,2,i} y_{2,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{lx_2} \delta_{2,2,i} x_{2,t-i} + \varepsilon_{2,2,t} \\
 &\vdots \\
 x_{N,t} &= \alpha_{2,N} + \sum_{i=1}^{ly_2} \beta_{2,N,i} y_{N,t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^{lx_2} \delta_{2,N,i} x_{N,t-i} + \varepsilon_{2,N,t}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8} \text{ where } y \text{ denotes } PRGDP$$

(per capita real GDP), x refers to TR (international tourism receipts), and l is the lag length. As each equation in this system has different predetermined variables while the error terms may be contemporaneously correlated (i.e. cross-sectional dependency), these sets of equations derive from the SUR system.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Empirical results

In order to investigate the existence of cross-sectional dependence, we conducted four different tests and presented the results in Table 2. It is clear that the null of no cross-sectional dependency across the countries is strongly rejected at conventional significance levels, implying that the SUR method is more appropriate than region-by-region OLS estimation (Zellner, 1962). This finding implies that a shock that occurs in one of these three groups seems to have been transmitted to the other areas. Table 2 also reports the results from the two slope homogeneity tests. Both tests reject the null hypothesis of slope homogeneity, supporting country-specific heterogeneity. The rejection of slope homogeneity implies that a panel causality analysis imposing a homogeneity restriction on the variable of interest results in misleading inferences.

The results from the bootstrap panel Granger causality analysis are reported in Tables 3 through 5.

To have a clear picture, the different results for international tourism receipts and economic growth of the sample are shown in Table 6. A comparison for 31 China's regions of Granger causality between international tourism receipts and economic growth is made. First, the empirical results of this study indicate that in the regions, such as Hebei, Anhui, Hubei, Hunan, Guangxi, Tibet and Shannxi, tourism receipts stimulates economic growth, and economic growth is thus dependent on international tourism receipts, implying that negative



travel shocks and travel reduction policies may depress economic growth. The governments of these regions need to emphasize the tourism industry to increase economic growth. The results provide evidence for the tourism-led-growth hypothesis for these regions. Second, a relationship between economic growths to international tourism receipts was found in the regions, such as Liaoning, Zhejiang, Fujian, Shandong Guangdong, Shanxi, Henan, Chongqing, Sichuan, Guizhou and Yunnan, indicating that economic growth can increase the demand for international tourism receipts and then lead to the development of tourism sectors in these countries. The results provide evidence for the conservation hypothesis for these regions.

Table 2
Cross-sectional Dependence and Homogeneous Tests of 31 Areas

Methods	Eastern areas	Central areas	Western areas
Cross-sectional dependence test			
CD_{BP}	175.695***	108.732***	222.200***
CD_{lm}	11.508***	10.788***	13.596***
CD	11.727***	8.874***	12.821***
LM_{adj}	11.8529***	14.8372***	12.8356***
Homogeneous test			
$\tilde{\Delta}$	3.0801***	7.6739***	17.3530***
$\tilde{\Delta}_{adj}$	3.4436***	8.5797***	19.4012***
Swamy Shat	25.4469***	38.6957***	97.0118***

- Note:1. *** indicate significance at the 0.01 level, respectively.
 2. CD_{BP} , CD_{lm} , CD and LM_{adj} are the cross-sectional dependence tests of Breusch and Pagan (1980), Pesaran (2004), and Pesaran et al. (2008), respectively.
 3. $\tilde{\Delta}$ and $\tilde{\Delta}_{adj}$ are slope homogeneity tests of Pesaran and Yamagata (2008).
 4. Swamy (1970) develops the slope homogeneity test that allows cross-sectional heteroscedasticity (Pesaran & Yamagata, 2008)

Table 3
Granger Causality Between TR and RPGDP for Eastern Areas

Regions	H_0 : TR does not Granger Cause RPGDP				H_0 : RPGDP does not Granger Cause TR			
	Wald Statistics	Bootstrap Value		Critical Value	Wald Statistics	Bootstrap Value		Critical Value
		1%	5%			1%	5%	
Beijing	32.7712 17	3354.64 5	2037.78 3	1138.34 8	24.904900	126.67 5	60.6441 6	45.066
Tianjin	469.820 72	5194.14 2	1546.07 3	762.481 3	85.249455	2534.7 82	1731.76 5	766.971 4
Hebei	2196.80 43*	7658.39 2	2307.75 7	1350.97 7	206.15804	1379.9 8	756.952 8	344.071 6



Liaoning	28.320418	4355.416	1702.375	987.5831	1840.2231***	1015.499	389.8829	278.1142
Shanghai	1036.4165	9800.791	2011.799	1083.809	2.9563045	188.5697	97.5519	68.24358
Jiangsu	136.86333	3443.345	1773.358	873.6079	48.435107	125.0709	83.55658	38.18381
Zhejiang	32.390866	4913.45	1953.002	752.5061	1433.4468***	1374.721	611.3254	496.7147
Fujian	108.79372	10814.33	3125.837	1570.497	817.23044**	3801.921	698.3972	503.7538
Shandong	8.1642863	3086.285	953.6155	662.9921	1613.9485***	1214.022	350.2076	238.469
Guangdong	132.90911	5146.163	1497.412	689.6787	1082.0284**	2440.65	1233.794	804.8694
Hainan	180.28962	4399.074	1024.196	692.9253	17.01156	142.6071	84.24831	41.94006

Note: 1. Bootstrap critical values are obtained from 10,000 replications.
 2. *Significance at the 0.1 level. **Significance at the 0.05 level. ***Significance at the 0.01 level.

Table 4
 Granger Causality Between TR and RPGDP for Central Areas

Regions	Wald Statistics	H_0 : TR does not Granger Cause RPGDP			Wald Statistics	H_0 : RPGDP does not Granger Cause TR		
		Bootstrap Critical Value				Bootstrap Critical Value		
		1%	5%	10%		1%	5%	10%
Shanxi	0.98641165	100.066	55.63489	33.49767	68.473166*	304.4199	102.4606	67.32126
Jilin	132.61489	155.6316	51.00334	31.2372	55.654337	281.3471	134.0719	87.28303
Heilongjiang	0.17303175	261.856	78.3236	48.318	0.64652093	35.90655	15.62994	11.42419
Anhui	87.792342*	323.5293	75.47726	43.00155	56.051635	309.9052	101.1283	56.60205
Jiangxi	24.216065	137.2678	57.75722	38.07099	34.679293	142.3122	66.43137	47.07845
Henan	1.0567089	190.7169	69.76524	38.83675	60.358989**	127.7669	60.35556	43.82055
Hubei	59.033503*	189.1444	84.56323	45.4943	43.8620119	166.469	84.39351	56.50462
Hunan	125.72374**	220.0954	96.56245	61.39603	6.2621994	42.50578	20.1131	15.21241

Note: 1. Bootstrap critical values are obtained from 10,000 replications.
 2. *Significance at the 0.1 level. **Significance at the 0.05 level. ***Significance at the 0.01 level.

Table 5
 Granger Causality Between TR and RPGDP for Western Areas

Regions	Wald Statistics	H_0 : TR does not Granger Cause RPGDP			Wald Statistics	H_0 : RPGDP does not Granger Cause TR		
		Bootstrap Critical Value				Bootstrap Critical Value		
		1%	5%	10%		1%	5%	10%



Regions	Wald Statistics	1%	5%	10%	Wald Statistics	1%	5%	10%
Inner Mongolia	342.88850	1699.774	1441.158	772.8766	142.82018	4887.832	1761.157	828.5574
Guangxi	764.78832**	989.6293	256.1549	194.9744	15407.621***	12047.18	2286.234	1030.867
Chongqing	3.5126495	4409.149	1127.012	208.5957	13636.178**	16375.46	2968.188	1017.595
Sichuan	2.8527777	1504.006	818.5968	405.8627	526.34039***	347.4982	142.3964	57.59501
Guizhou	0.32675157	1088.192	315.3505	250.6125	1704.2388**	7360.748	165.6026	106.2202
Yunnan	27.974163	1727.174	592.6284	227.4302	429407.89***	116007.22	4577.912	1639.251
Tibet	1174.9604**	1880.965	663.6021	335.8224	2168.5455***	321.7284	124.2724	33.39154
Shanxi	255.23567*	374.4512	339.6971	232.779	1.06850	4701.578	1254.789	820.8205
Gansu	2.0441140	43351.05	1049.2	464.6993	0.4456	86.29569	56.67577	37.68807
Qinghai	206.02667	12888.46	807.5264	469.978	0.715825	981.0474	192.3145	103.2834
Ningxia	103.72637	6246.606	837.285	382.8802	0.819672	784.4897	319.1631	177.8023
Xinjiang	3.258935	14.50419	8.26485	5.26835	1.00283	76.29959	46.67637	37.68552

Note: 1. Bootstrap critical values are obtained from 10,000 replications.
 2. *Significance at the 0.1 level. **Significance at the 0.05 level. ***Significance at the 0.01 level.

Table 6
 The Result Comparison for 31 China's Regions

Eastern areas	TR Versus RPGDP	Central areas	TR Versus RPGDP	Western areas	TR Versus RPGDPss
Beijing	None	Shanxi	RPGDP→TS	Inner Mongolia	None
Tianjin	None	Jilin	None	Guangxi	TS←→RPGDP
Hebei	TS→RPGDP	Heilongjiang	None	Chongqing	RPGDP→TS
Liaoning	RPGDP→TS	Anhui	TS→RPGDP	Sichuan	RPGDP→TS
Shanghai	None	Jiangxi	None	Guizhou	RPGDP→TS
Jiangsu	None	Henan	RPGDP→TS	Yunnan	RPGDP→TS
Zhejiang	RPGDP→TS	Hubei	TS→RPGDP	Tibet	TS←→RPGDP
Fujian	RPGDP→TS	Hunan	TS→RPGDP	Shanxi	TS→RPGDP
Shandong	RPGDP→TS			Gansu	None
Guangdong	RPGDP→TS			Qinghai	None
Hainan	None			Ningxia	None
				Xinjiang	None

Notes:
 “→” denotes Granger causality from the left-hand side variable to the right-hand side variable.



“←” denotes Granger causality from the right-hand side variable to the left-hand side variable.

“←→” denotes a feedback of Granger causality between the right-hand side and the left-hand side variable.

Third, a reciprocal causal relationship between international tourism receipts and economic growth implies that excessive travel protection and reduced travel consumption may result in pressure on economic activity. We found a reciprocal hypothesis for both Guangxi and Tibet. This result suggests that for both Guangxi and Tibet, tourism development and economic growth are endogenous, indicating that these two factors mutually influence each other, and that this reinforcement may have important implications for the conduct of economic or tourism development policies in these two countries. This result implies that excessive travel protection and reduced travel consumption may result in pressure on economic activity in these two regions.

Fourth, the findings for the remaining 13 regions (i.e., Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Hainan, Jilin, Heilongjiang, Jiangxi, Inner Mongolia, Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia, and Xinjiang) seem to support the neutrality hypothesis, indicating that neither international tourism receipts nor economic growth is sensitive to the other. The neutrality between international tourism receipts and economic growth suggests that travel conservation policies do not exert an adverse impact on economic growth, and an international tourism receipt is not affected by economic performance. The neutrality between international tourism receipts and economic growth is attributed to a relatively small contribution of international tourism receipts to overall output. Thus, international tourism receipts may have little or no impact on economic growth in these 13 areas. 31 China's major regions are investigated in this study. Most of them (i.e., 13 of 31) show that there is no direct relationship between tourism and economic growth. The result may be shocked or bemused for this high proportion result. Many previous studies have indicated the positive relationship between international tourism receipts and economic growth. It is dangerous for a region to make a policy using the positive relationship to formulate industrial strategy.

CONCLUSION AND RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

This study applied the bootstrap panel Granger causality approach to examining whether international tourism receipts and economic growth used the data from 31 China's major regions over the period from 2000 to 2014. The empirical results of this study provide evidence for the growth hypothesis in Hebei, Anhui, Hubei, Hunan, Guangxi, Tibet and Shannxi. A reverse relationship support evidence on the conservation hypothesis for Liaoning, Zhejiang, Fujian, Shandong Guangdong, Shanxi, Henan, Chongqing, Sichuan, Guizhou and Yunnan. A reciprocal causal relationship was found for Guangxi and Tibet, while the result of a neutrality hypothesis supported 13 of these 31 regions (i.e., Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Hainan, Jilin, Heilongjiang, Jiangxi, Inner Mongolia, Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia and



Xinjiang). The empirical findings of this study provide important policy implication for the 31 China's major regions.

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A STUDY OF TRAVEL MOTIVATION, SATISFACTION, RE-VISITING WILLINGNESS: A CASE OF LOTUS LAKE OF KAOHSIUNG ZUOYING

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate the Lotus Lake Culture Park travel motivation, satisfaction and re-visiting willingness among the current status, as well as different background variables in travel motivation, satisfaction and re-visiting willingness meaning the difference between the situations and to explore travel motivation, satisfaction and re-visiting willingness relevant circumstances. This research is a quantitative research, a questionnaire to collect data to Lotus Lake Culture Park for the study, a total of 272 valid questionnaires; recovery was 90.6%. Questionnaire data to SPSS 21.0 version, descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, independent sample T-test, one way ANOVA, Pearson correlation analysis, Scheffe analysis and other methods for data processing.

Key Words: travel motivation, satisfaction, re-visiting willingness, Lotus Lake

INTRODUCTION

1. The background and motivation of study

Since 2001, the five-day work week has been implemented in Taiwan. Citizens of Taiwan now have more leisure time traveling, therefore the idea of tourism and leisure are taken more and more serious. According to the statistics of Tourism Bureau, the travel statistics in 2013 had raised 9.57% in 2014. Thus, the tourism and leisure are getting increasingly popular. The World Games 2009 was conducted perfectly, And highly appreciated by International World Games Association (IWGA), which let the Kaohsiung City set a landmark of its own history(Wang,2014). What's more, the Lotus Lake has been chosen as one of the World Games' competition arena. It contains water skiing, dragon boat and canoe polo(Kaohsiung Organizing Committee,2009). There are about 20 temples around the west coast of Lotus Lake, Confucius temple, Beichi Xuantian Shangdi temple, Qiming temple, Chunqiu pavilion, Wu li pavilion, Dragon tiger tower from north to south(Kaohsiung City Government Tourism Bureau,2015). Lotus Lake is a place which has various native cultures. In order to promote



local sightseeing, the government had found the Lotus Lake Visitor Center in the end of 2015. Moreover, there is an annual festival called “Wan Nain Festival” which is held in every October. The “Wan Nain Festival” is a popular custom event that represents south Taiwan culture. The Lotus Lake culture park contains the old Zuoying junior high school, Confucius temple, the old civil service development institute, Zhou Zai wetland tribe and other old town tribes. The government aggressively rebuilt the old Zuoying junior high school into the five-star Hotel-Garden Villa Hotel. Furthermore the old Sheng Li elementary school was incorporated into Lotus Laker Culture Park. The government was looking forward to make the tourism in Zuoying better and promote the economy growth. Lotus Lake is one of the popular spots in Kaohsiung, however, according to the statistics of Tourism Bureau. In 2014 the numbers of tourist reached 1.26 million passengers, Yu(2009)mentioned the importance of visitor’s behavior that the most important is to investigate the motivation and the satisfaction. It’s the only way can explain their behavior. Only this way can we correspond to service and supply for the demand. This study will be focusing on travel motivation, satisfaction, re-visiting willingness, and this study will be offered to Lotus Lake tourism department for reference eventually.

2. Research Purposes

- (1)To understand the Lotus Lake Culture Park’s tourists background , travel motivation, satisfaction and re-visiting willingness.
- (2) To investigate the difference among travel motivation, satisfaction and re-visiting willingness of tourists with distinct background.
- (3) To understand the relationships between the travel motivation, satisfaction and re-visiting willingness.
- (4) To recommend the suggestions to the government and the related industries with the conclusion of empirical research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.Travel motivation

According to the dictionary of Ministry of Education, motivation means the strength and the thought that initiate people to act, Chang(1994) points out that the word" motivation" is to cause individual action then maintain the action and keep the action to the goal. Chen , Song &Lin(2001) point out that in the process of a tourism event, motivation is considered as the fundamental driving power of tour behavior. Lin (2004) points out that the travel motivation has a diversity form which composes a diversified feature, and when the visitor traveling, the motivation becomes the driving power of tour behavior, through reaching a better understanding, we can not only reach the cause of tourism, but also speculate the behavior of tourist. Lee (2011) points out that the meaning of travel motivation is to satisfy the demand of travel and to initiate the action of visiting destination. Xu (2013) points out that the birth of motivation coming from a person who approves a destination, or from the raising of value of



personal status, satisfying these different demand, yet the travel motivation still has some other related cause(e.g., influence of society, budget, distance). These causes compose the consideration of tourist and drive them traveling to destination. Lin (2014) points out that individuality is content to action, so the driving power is called motivation. Through these research and theory, now we know that the motivation is also a driving power to make people continuously behave, it also affects one's tourism behavior with other characteristic. The purpose of tourism is to satisfy the inner demand, but the inner demand needs a motivation, different motivation cause different demand, so motivation won't be filled with just one surface.

2. Satisfaction

“Customer Satisfaction” can be trace back to 1965(Cardozo's theory), He point out that if customers didn't get great experience as expectation of product or service, then the customers will not be satisfied, on the other hand, if the experience is as good as expectation, it can not only push up sales but push up the repurchase. Now we are going to discuss other related literature with Cardozo's theory, Yu(2009) mentioned that tourists measure their travel experience with their psychological feelings, so the supervisor can take customer satisfaction as reference, Su(2010)also mentioned that he viewed travel service as production, the supervisor can improve the service with the customer satisfaction; Huang (2011) pointed out that customer satisfaction is the aftermath of the tourism and the entirely attitude, the satisfaction will affect the willingness of re-visiting; Lin (2014) mentioned that the definition of travel satisfaction is a feeling that produce positive or negative feeling after travel, the most important is to focus on satisfaction so that the sustainable operation can be achieve, company's life time depends on the like and dislike of customers. Yu (2009)&Chen(2014)pointed out that customer satisfaction degree is a view from customers who travels to the destination; it depends on personal difference, studying process, tourism expectation, motivation, service, the view and building of the destination. Viewed in their totality the scholar's research and theory show us that As time progresses, the production and the way of service are getting new and original, it makes customers doing comparison inside, and if supervisors want to maintain sustainable operation, the tourism environment and quality are required, and the satisfaction degree is the best way to directly affect tourists and visitors, but the satisfaction is a subjective feeling, these subjective feelings are dissimilar.

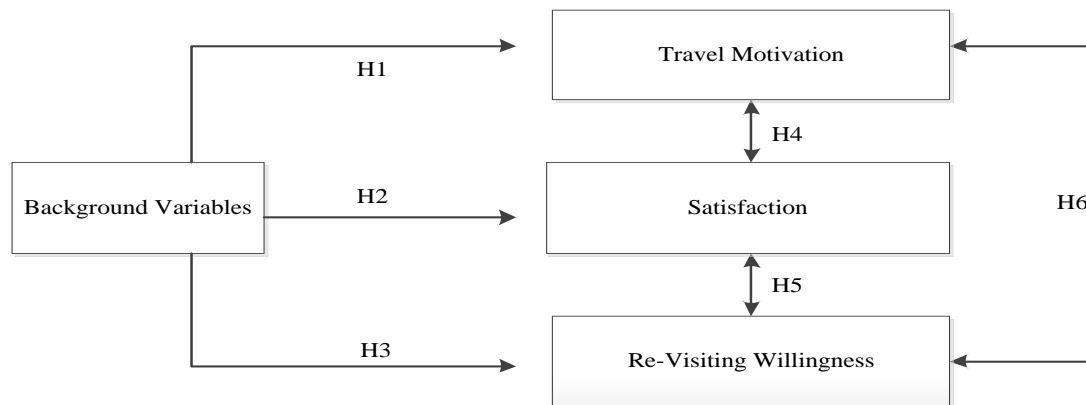
3. Re-visiting Willingness

Kuan(2013) said re-visiting willingness means whether customers are willing going back to the destination, same as customer loyalty. By the way of understanding the demand and the opinion we can correctly elevate the re-visiting willingness. Lin(2014) defined re-visiting willingness as an aspiration of being satisfied which makes customers returning to the location or the willingness of recommendation.

RESEARCH METHOD



1. Research framework and hypothesis



H1: The visitors with distinct background appeared significant difference in travel motivation.

H2: The visitors with distinct background appeared significant difference in satisfaction.

H3: The visitors with distinct background appeared significant difference in re-visiting willingness.

H4: The Lotus Lake Culture Park tourist travel motivation and satisfaction positively affected.

H5: The Lotus Lake Culture Park tourist travel satisfaction and re-visiting willingness positively affected.

H6: The Lotus Lake Culture Park tourist re-visiting willingness and travel motivation positively affected.

2. Survey objectives and sampling

This research is a quantitative research, a questionnaire to collect data to Lotus Lake Culture Park's visitor for the study. A pilot test was conducted from September 10th, 2015 until October 10th, 2015, a total of 90 valid questionnaires; recovery was 69%.The formal questionnaires was conducted from November 1st, 2015 until December 1st, 2015, a total of 271valid questionnaires; recovery was 91%.

3. Questionnaire design and measurement

There are eight attributes listed in personal information section, including gender, age, education level, occupation, marital status, family structure, residence and monthly income. Travel motivation are consist of 12 items, items are adopted from several sources (Lin, 2004; Yeh, Liu & Chang 2012; Lee, 2013; Liao, 2013; Chen, 2013 ; Hoang , 2013;Lin,2014). Satisfaction are consist of 14 items, items are adopted from several sources (Lin, Gau&Chen, 2009; Xu, 2013; Lin, 2014; Chen, 2014). Re-visiting Willingness are consist of 4 items, items are adopted from several sources (Liao, 2013; Lin, 2014; Chen, 2014). Five-point Likert scale is applied to the items, with 5 level of agreement, from 1 = totally disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

4. Data analysis methods



The data collected is analyzed through the statistic software, SPSS 21.0, and the following analyses are conducted, descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, independent sample T-test, one way ANOVA, Pearson correlation analysis, Scheffe analysis and other methods for data processing.

RESULTS

As shown in Table 1. In different background factors, the highest number is [relax] in travel motivation (M=4.15), on the other hand the lowest number is [purchase souvenir and specialty goods] (M=3.75). As shown in Table 2. In different background factors, the highest number is [abundance of historic relics and temple] in satisfaction (M=4.18), on the contrary, the lowest number are [air quality] and [hygienic standard for toilet] (M=3.49). As shown in Table 3. In different background factors, the highest number is [tourist's willingness of recommendation] in re-visiting willingness (M=3.96), on the contrary, the lowest number is [choose the same location to visit even though the cost are expensive in future] (M=3.15).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and reliability analysis of travel motivation

Dimension/Items	Mean	SD	Factor loading	Cronbach's α
Travel motivation				.817
relax				.703
This trip can make me release the pressure of work	4.02	.690	.748	
This trip can make me keep away from noisy city.	3.82	.945	.736	
This trip can make me release the fatigue mentally.	4.15	.594	.650	
This trip can release the fatigue Physiologically.	4.05	.709	.605	
culture characteristic				.677
You can experience local custom in this trip.	4.11	.743	.701	
You can buy purchase souvenir and specialty goods for this trip	3.75	.856	.698	
You can taste local snacks in this trip.	4.00	.773	.692	
You can know more history and culture of Kaohsiung	4.08	.730	.582	
leisure motivation				.684
This trip can share the experience to your friends and family.	4.03	.731	.763	
This trip can enrich my traveling experience.	4.01	.783	.700	
This trip can make me enjoy everything here.	3.98	.713	.617	
You can satisfy pursuing needs of leisure entertainment.	3.78	.794	.529	

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and reliability analysis of satisfaction



Dimension/Items	Mean	SD	Factor loading	Cronbach's α
satisfaction				.882
public facilities				.799
How is the facility of sidewalk?	3.94	.769	.760	
How is the facility of bikeway?	3.93	.770	.747	
How is the trash can position and cleaning?	3.68	.887	.659	
How is the environment of toilet hygienism?	3.49	.964	.613	
How is the content of sign?	3.70	.767	.586	.807
cultural ecology				
How is the richness degree of natural landscape?	3.94	.771	.792	
How is the richness degree of plant ecosystem?	3.87	.762	.767	
How is the abundance of historic relics and temple?	4.18	.729	.686	
How is the richness of animal ecosystem?	3.81	.795	.680	.734
How is special lay of ground?	3.94	.754	.539	
recreation surroundings				
How is the price of restaurant?	3.60	.845	.724	
Is the public transportation convenient in this trip?	3.65	.952	.700	
How is the air quality?	3.49	.964	.676	
How is the accessibility facilities?	3.63	.854	.531	

Table 3. Descriptive statistics and reliability analysis of re-visiting willingness

Dimension/Items	Mean	SD	Factor loading	Cronbach's α
re-visiting willingness				.770
Do you still choose to Lotus Pond Cultural Park for traveling if the price is raised?	3.94	.769	.661	
Are you still participate Lotus Pond Cultural Park for traveling in future?	3.93	.770	.850	
Will you select Lotus Pond Cultural Park at the top priority?	3.68	.887	.844	
Will you recommend your friends or family to participate Lotus Pond Cultural Park for traveling?	3.49	.964	.744	

The profile of respondents was shown in Table 4. Among 272 respondents, 58.5% were females while 41.5% were males, 46.3% were in their 21~30 year-old, 76.1% were unmarried,



38.2% were in industry and commerce services, 65.4% were graduated from college, 38.6 were with 20,001~40,000 monthly income, 64% were live in south, 51.8% were in small families.

Table 4. Respondents' profile(n=272)

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender			Marital Status		
Male	113	41.5%	Unmarried	207	76.1%
Female	159	58.5%	Married	65	23.9%
Age			Family structure		
Under 20	51	18.7%	Single person family	22	8.1%
21-30	126	46.3%	Nucleus families	141	51.8%
31-40	38	14%	Three generation family	75	27.6%
41-50	35	12.9%	Single-parent Families	29	10.7%
51-60	18	6.6%	DINKS	5	1.8%
Over 61	4	1.5%	Average Income/month		
Residence			No stable income	71	26.1%
Northern Taiwan	33	12.2%	Under NTD. 20,000	40	14.7%
Middle Taiwan	44	16.2%	NTD. 20,001-40,000	105	38.6%
Southern Taiwan	174	64%	NTD. 40,001-60,000	37	13.6%
Eastern Taiwan	5	1.8%	NTD. 60,001-80,000	11	4%
Off-shore Islands	2	0.7%	Over NTD. 80,001	8	3%
International	14	5.1%	Occupation		
Education level			Student	86	31.6%
Under junior school	5	1.8%	Military Services and Teachers	38	14%
High school degree	58	21.3%	industry and commerce services,	104	38.2%
Bachelor's degree	178	65.4%	Agricultural, forestry, fishery and husbandry	8	2.9%
Over Master degree	31	11.3%	Freelance	26	9.6%
			Other	10	3.7%

One-way ANOVA analysis as shown in Table 5 to 9. The visitors “family structure” appeared significant difference in travel motivation(P<.05). The visitors “gender”, “family structure”, “monthly income”, “residence” appeared significant difference in satisfaction(P<.05). The visitors “age” appeared significant difference in re-visiting willingness(P<.05). The



“Education level”, “Marital Status” and “Occupation, all of them didn’t appeared significant difference in this study($P>.05$).

Table 5. Results of t-test on Demographics to gender

Items	Gender	Mean	SD	t-value	p-value
satisfaction	Male	3.68	.516	-2.00	.046*
	Female	3.81	.526		

Note: * $P \leq 0.05$

Table 6. One-way ANOVA analysis (age)

Items		SS	df	MS	f-value	Sig.	Scheffe
re-visiting willingness.	Between Groups	6.091	5	1.218	3.578	.004**	Over 61>51-60 、 Under 20
	Within Groups	90.563	266	.340			
	Groups	96.654	271				
	Total						

Note: ** $P \leq 0.01$

Table 7. One-way ANOVA analysis (family structure)

Items		SS	df	MS	f-value	Sig.	Scheffe
travel motivation	Between Groups	2.74	4	.699	3.644	.007**	Three generation family>Nucleus families
	Within Groups	51.179	267	.192			
	Groups	53.973	271				
	Total						
satisfaction	Between Groups	8.176	4	2.044	8.190	.000***	Three generation family>Nucleus families 、 Single person family
	Within Groups	66.634	267	.250			
	Groups	74.810	271				
	Total						

Note: ** $P \leq 0.01$ *** $P \leq 0.001$

Table 8. One-way ANOVA analysis (residence)

Items		SS	df	MS	f-value	Sig.	Scheffe
satisfaction	Between Groups	4.519	5	.904	3.421	.005**	Middle Taiwan > Southern Taiwan
	Within Groups	70.290	266	.264			
	Groups	74.810	271				
	Total						

Note: ** $P \leq 0.01$

Table 9. One-way ANOVA analysis (monthly income)

Items		SS	df	MS	f-value	Sig.	Scheffe
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satisfaction	Between	3.556	5	.711	2.655	.023*	NTD. 20,001-40,000>
	Groups	71.253	266	.268			Under NTD. 20,000
	Within	74.810	271				
	Groups						
	Total						

Note: * $P \leq 0.05$

Correlations are relationships between two or more variables or sets of variables, according to Chien(2015). A positive value for the correlation implies a positive association. A negative for the correlation implies a negative or inverse association. As shown in Table 10. The Lotus Lake Culture Park travel motivation and satisfaction positively affected. The Lotus Lake Culture Park travel satisfaction and re-visiting willingness positively affected. The Lotus Lake Culture Park travel re-visiting willingness and travel motivation positively affected.

Table 10. Pearson Correlation

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.Travel motivation	1								
2.relax	.796**	1							
3.culture characteristic	.782**	.397**	1						
4.leisure motivation	.807**	.524**	.423**	1					
5.satisfaction	.632**	.493**	.520**	.491**	1				
6.public Facilities	.510**	.352**	.452**	.406**	.854**	1			
7.cultural ecology	.558**	.430**	.432**	.468**	.807**	.545**	1		
8.recreation surroundings	.533**	.461**	.432**	.375**	.863**	.610**	.534**	1	
9.re-visiting willingness	.400**	.335**	.316**	.303**	.464**	.395**	.379**	.398**	1

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In this study, the amount of south tourists accounted 64%, so the related industries may be able to exploit the protental customers of other area. The result of study shows that the secondary factor is three generation family, and the tourists are dissatisfied with the configuration of accessible environment in the customer satisfaction, so the government may be able to plan policy. According to the survey, the main ethnicity are females and small families, therefore we suggest Lotus Lake Culture Park to focus on these two groups to design travel package. Lotus Lake is one of the important attractions in Kaohsiung and it is surrounded by numerous historic relics and temples. Lotus Lake is a precious classroom of



nature and historic relics in south; therefore we should increasingly put on event and show, and combine the product and historic relics, for instance, Dragon Tiger Tower charm. In order to perk up the Lotus Lake Culture Park, we must improve hygienic standard for toilet and air quality. The result of hypotheses testing are summarized in Table 11.

Table 11. Hypothesis and result of empirical test

Items	Research hypotheses	Result
H1	The visitors with distinct background appeared significant difference in travel motivation.	partially significant differences
H2	The visitors with distinct background appeared significant difference in satisfaction.	partially significant differences
H3	The visitors with distinct background appeared significant difference in re-visiting willingness.	partially significant differences
H4	The Lotus Lake Culture Park tourist travel motivation and satisfaction positively affected.	positive effect
H5	The Lotus Lake Culture Park tourist travel satisfaction and re-visiting willingness positively affected.	positive effect
H6	The Lotus Lake Culture Park tourist re-visiting willingness and travel motivation positively affected.	positive effect

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**MOVING AWAY FROM MASS TOURISM TO CREATIVE TOURISM –
HOW TO GET STARTED A CASE STUDY: CREATIVE TOURISM
DEVELOPMENT OF TRAT PROVINCE, THAILAND**

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ABSTRACT

The primary objective of this research focused on developing creative tourism patterns for Trat Province based on the potential of the destinations and the travel motivations and behavior of tourists towards creative tourism. From this study, three themes of creative tourism routes were presented, including “creative historical and cultural tourism”, “creative community-based tourism”, and “creative gastronomic and agro-tourism”. The strategic plan for creative tourism development of Trat Province was proposed illustrating how the ideas can be implemented. Additionally, for sustainability, the optimum level of tourism that will not result in environmental, social and cultural impacts must be concerned. Finally, participatory management is needed.

Key Words: tourism development; creative tourism; Trat province; Thailand



INTRODUCTION:

Creative tourism has been developed rapidly in recent years and continuously takes an important role in global tourism industry. Creative tourism has been considered to be a new generation or new form of tourism that involves more interaction, in which the visitor has a participative interaction with the place, local culture, and the local people (Richard G , 2011). As community development tool, creative tourism is the important development strategy to apply tourism in order to support the identity of the destination and also promotes the traditional tourism resources and mode by means of art, science and technology (Richard & Wilson, 2006). Not only a combination of creativity and tourism, creative tourism is relying on people's inspiration and imagination. It pays more attention to encourages and inspires tourists to create special personalize experience emphasizing communication and learning between tourists and local community that tourists visit (Richard , 2011; Zhang, 2013)

Presently, in many countries, creative tourism has become significant tool for achieving regional economic and cultural appreciation. In 2004, the UNESCO Creative Cities Network (UCCN) was created to promote the cooperation of creative alliance based on the common objective that places the creativity and unique cultures at the core of the development plan for their local and move forward to the international level. Currently, there are 116 Members from 54 countries in the UCCN covering different seven creative fields including 1) crafts and folk art, 2) design, 3) film, 4) gastronomy, 5) literature, 6) music, and 7) media arts (UNESCO, 2006). For Asian countries, creative travel has been agreed upon Southeast Asia target market segments by Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) as a major component of the ASEAN tourism marketing strategy during 2012-2015 (The ASEAN Secretariat, 2012).

Thailand has long been considered as popular tourism destination. Presently, Thailand has attempted to restructure tourism industry in the country to support the dynamic of tourism that are more sophisticated than before. Nowadays, tourists more concern about the quality of tourism experience and they expect to feel the authentic experience of the destination. Thus, the concept of creative tourism has been considered as potential strategy and, then, applied to develop new tourism products of the country. Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) and Designated Areas for Sustainable Tourism Administration (DASTA) have promoted creative tourism as new form of tourism for niche travelers and made culture and community tourism more attention by encouraging visitors participate in local culture attractions – arts, local cuisines, natural and heritage sties, and various of creative activities. Tourists can create their own individual experiences and knowledge from the real life of the communities they visit. To promote creative tourism in Thailand, TAT has set creative tourism campaign asking the



travelers to vote the Top 20 Creative Villages in Thailand. These 20 villages represented excellent examples of the best of Thailand creative tourism destinations. These communities have set creative tourism as a tool to conserve and create value of local wisdoms for in-house tourism and benefits to communities in terms of economy and sustainable development. Additionally, the 13 outstanding creative tourism activities of the country which entail hands-on involvement and derive from inherited cultural traditions, drawing on arts, crafts, agriculture, religion, and local customs were selected to promote the campaign “Creative Tourism Thailand” (DASTA, 2015; TAT, 2012)

Trat Province is one of the famous tourist destinations of Thailand. With its beautiful marine tourism resources, each year, more than a million visitors travel to Trat. In 2002, Trat welcomed about 532,000 visitors, and the number rose to 832,000 in 2005, to 1,685,537 in 2013 (Trat Province, 2013). Based on these figures, tourist arrivals in Trat have increased by 19 to 25 percent annually. However, tourism in Trat is often concentrated in famous islands and coastal area, such as Koh Chang, Koh Mak, and Koh Kood, leaving limited opportunity for inland tourism destinations to benefit. Especially Koh Chang (the country's third largest island, after Phuket and Ko Samui), this island is booming in the tourism industry, following the Government’s drive to promote Koh Chang as a world-class tourist destination. Consequently, tourism impact has become a significant issue for coastal destinations. The islands have become economically over-dependent on tourism. Tourists visiting Koh Chang Island left behind more than 30 tons of garbage during the long weekend. Tourism seems to be threat for sustainable tourism. In this manner, Trat Government and Tourism Authority of Thailand attempted to promote new forms of tourism to increase the quality of tourism in the province.

The primary objective of this research focused on developing new tourism pattern based on the potential of tourist destinations and the travel motivations and behavior of tourists towards creative tourism. The concept of creative tourism has been applied for developing new tourism products for Trat Province - focusing on inland tourism destinations, as the alternative management strategies to promote and increasing value of tourism in the province.

METHODS:

Study Site: Trat Province, Thailand

Trat is Thailand’s eastern-most province, with Chantaburi Province to the northwest, Cambodia to the east, and the Gulf of Thailand to the south, located 315 kilometers approximately from Bangkok (Figure 1). Trat is best known for the 52 islands off its coast,



including Koh Chang, Koh Mak and Ko Kood, with long, white, sandy beaches and unspoiled coral reefs. For tourism destination, Trat offers delightful scenery and a number of tranquil hideouts for beach and nature-lovers. Additionally, the province also serves as a major fishing region and seafood products. For fruit-lovers, Trat is also famous for tropical fruits such as rambutan, durian, santol, pineapples and sweet sala. Moreover, Trat is most famous for gemstone mining and trading, especially “King Ruby” (Trat, 2015).

Trat Province is subdivided into seven districts, including Mueang Trat, Khlong Yai, Khao Saming, Bo Rai, Laem Ngop, Koh Chang, and Koh Kood District. Tourism development and benefits provided limited opportunity mainly on Koh Chang, and Koh Kood District, the major tourism destinations of the province and the country. As the dynamic of tourism, tourism patterns in Koh Chang, and Koh Kood have increased more mass tourism. Tourism impact has become a significant issue to be concerned. Consequently, the government has considered a distribution of tourism development and economic benefits to other sites in the province. The transition has been placed on expanding to inland districts under a new label — Creative Tourism Trat. Five mainland districts of Trat (Mueang Trat, Khlong Yai, Khao Saming, Bo Rai, Laem Ngop) were targeted for this research. These locations are blessed with abundance of natural resources, local communities and their local wisdom, history, local cuisine, and unique culture.

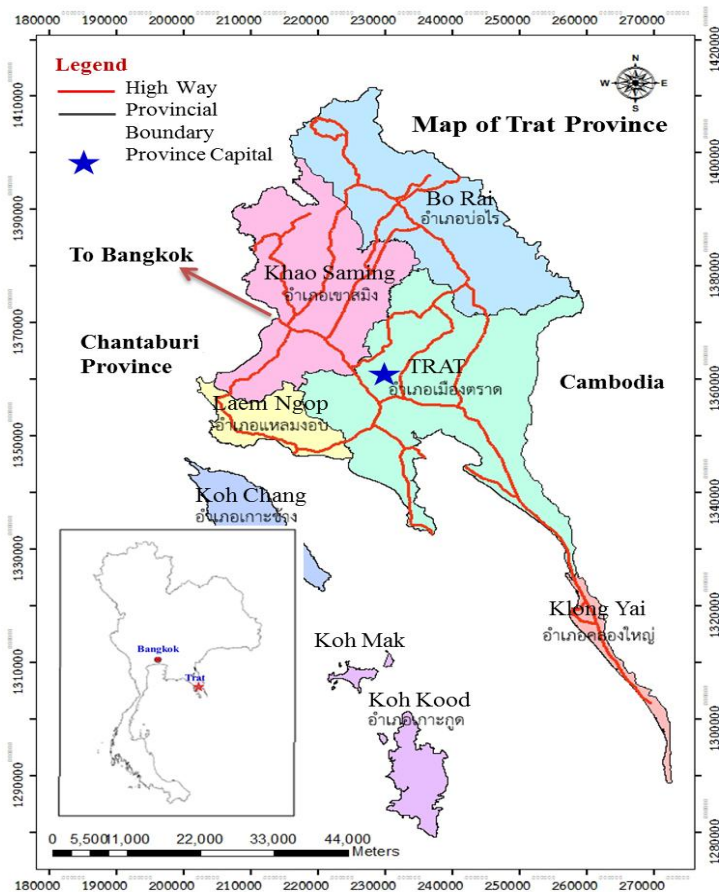




Figure 1: Map of Trat Province, Thailand, showing the location of the province and districts under study

Study Framework:

To answer the question of how to set creative tourism of Trat Province, this research was conducted in 3 main parts, including 1) tourism destination assessment, 2) study of behavior and demands of tourists, and 3) evaluation of sustainability (Figure 2).

1. Assessing potential of tourist destinations for creative tourism development

This part focused on assessing the potential tourist destinations for creative tourism development. An inventory of existing tourism destinations and available resources supporting creative tourism development in the study area was explored. The potential of tourist destinations was conducted through a set of indicators and standards for creative tourism destination potential. A set of 20 creative tourism development indicators applied in this study was developed based on the concept of creative tourism (Richard & Wilson, 2006), Global Sustainable Tourism Council Criteria for Destinations (Global Sustainable Tourism Council, 2013), Standard criteria for tourism destination (Thailand)) Department of Tourism - Thailand, (2015, and a model of creative example in creative tourism (Tan, *et al.*, 2013). A set of indicators to demonstrate creative tourism development potential was showed in Table 1.

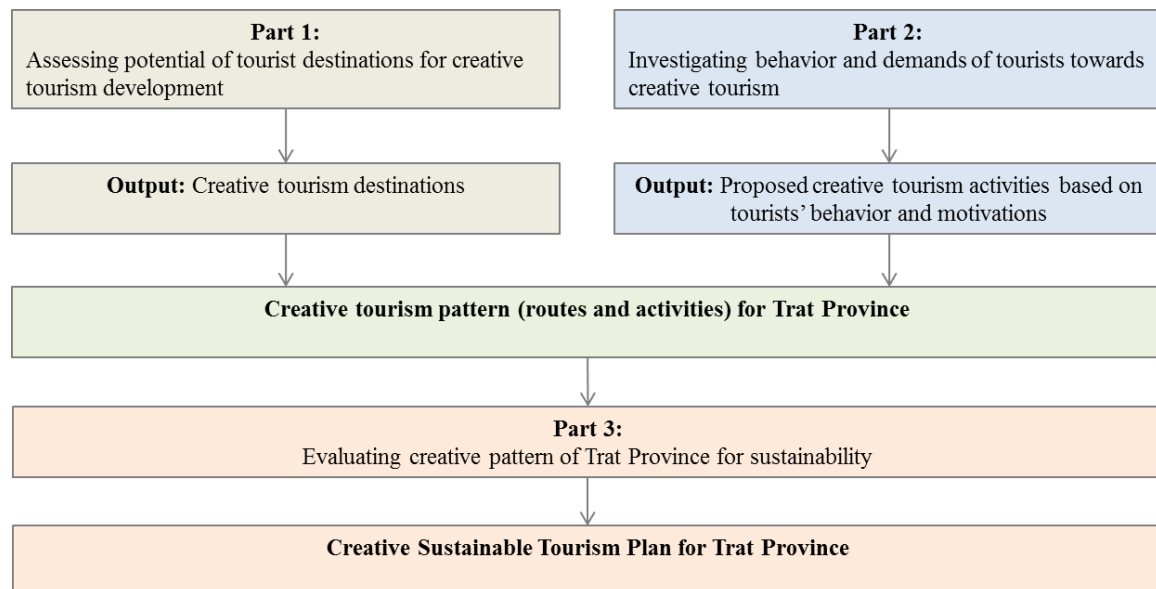


Figure 2: Study framework explaining steps of research process



Table 1: Indicators to demonstrate creative tourism development potential

Potential and value of destination	attractiveness of tourism destination identity and uniqueness of tourism destination uniqueness of local way of life continuity of local wisdom authenticity of local lifestyle relationship between tourism destination and local people strength of local people to protect the identity of community potential of value creation
Tourism activities and experience	diversity of tourism activities in the destination tourism management skills of local people active learning between local people and tourists
Local participation	local participation in tourism management fair distribution of income generating from tourism promoting of tourism as part of local development
Management and carrying capacity	carefully planned zoning system for tourism controlling the number of tourists – carrying capacity setting tourism impact management and monitoring system creating tourism activities based on the potential of tourism resources programming awareness raising creative tourism activities encouraging high quality of tourism market

2. Investigating behavior and demands of tourists towards creative tourism

This study was conducted at Trat museum, Wat Bupparam, Chang Island, and ferry in Trat Province. Data was collected from a sample of 274 Thai tourists who travelled to the sites during December 2014 to January 2015. A questionnaire was used to collect data regarding travelling objectives, travelling needs, behaviors, perception of creative tourism, and opinion on creative tourism in Trat province. The 5-point Likert scale was used for rating the attitudes towards creative tourism of Trat province. Aside from questionnaire survey, in-depth interviews were conducted to further investigate the tourists’ attitudes towards Trat province and creative tourism activities. The in-depth interviews focused on the readiness of tourists, activities, problems or obstacles that could prevent them from participating in creative tourism activities. The questionnaires were tallied and analyze the behaviors and needs of tourists towards creative tourism in Trat Province.

3. Evaluating creative pattern of Trat Province for sustainability

The evaluation in this part focused on the economic and socio-cultural impacts of proposed creative tourism pattern. An evaluation has followed the CIPP model including 1) context, 2)



input, 3) process, and 4) product (Stufflebeam, 2003). The evaluation of creative tourism pattern of Trat has been applied CIPP as presented in Figure 3.

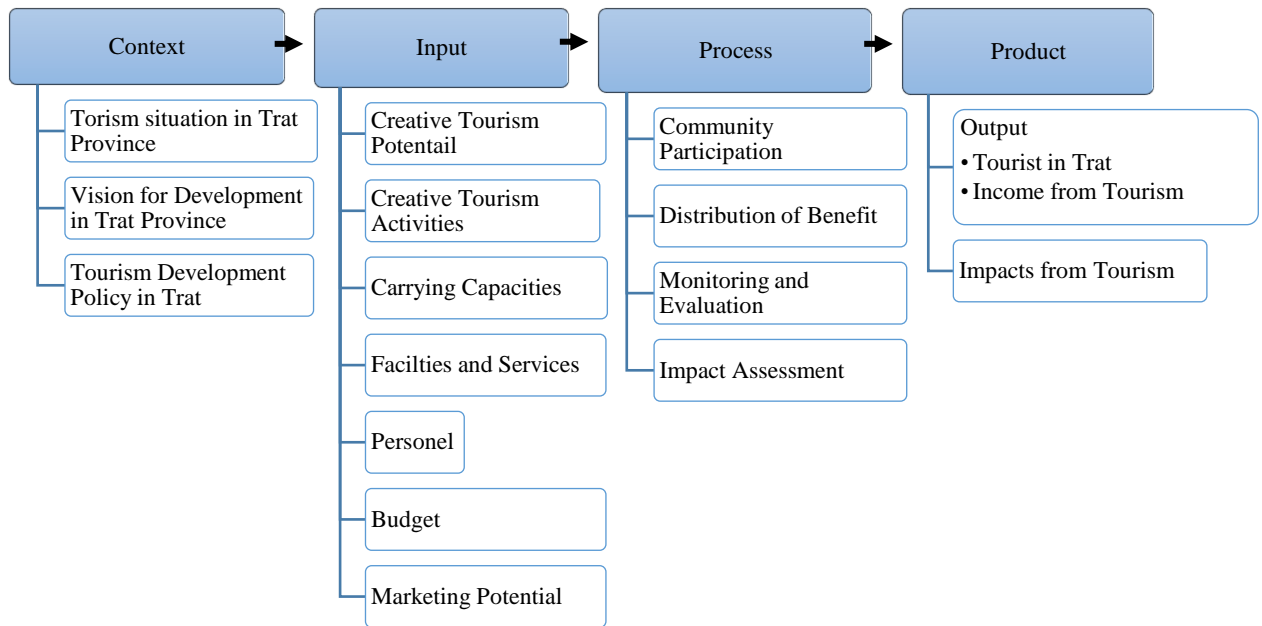


Figure 3: Indicators for evaluation of creative tourism in Trat Province followed the CIPP model

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

1. Potential of tourist destinations for creative tourism development

The potential classification of creative tourism development was classified into 5 levels, including very high potential, high potential, moderate potential, low potential, and very low potential. Totally, 32 tourism destinations were observed (9 nature-based destinations, and 23 community and cultural destinations). According to the set of indicators for creative tourism destination potential, the results showed that there was no tourism destination represented very high potential. There were 12 destinations ranking in high potential to be creative tourism destination. There were 9 sites were classified in moderate potential and 12 sites were ranked in low potential. These destinations could be classified into three groups based on their stories and uniqueness, including history, way of life, and local food and fruits.

2. Behavior and demands of tourists towards creative tourism

The 274 questionnaires are good quality, reliable, and can be further analyzed to draw a conclusion for the study. Quantitative analysis of the survey sampled shows that majority of the respondents were females (57%), aged between 25-45 years of (60.58%), and held



bachelor degrees or equivalent (37.96%). Most of them were officer workers and students (22.26%), with an average income below 20,000 Baht (about US \$550) a month. The respondents were mostly single (58.03%) and stayed in Trat Province around three days and two nights (33.94%), the information was gathered from family members or friends (59.49%), and Internet or website (53.65%) respectively.

The survey found that the major purpose of traveling for Thai tourists were visiting places in Trat Province ($\bar{X} = 4.21$), leisure ($\bar{X} = 4.17$), finding interesting places ($\bar{X} = 3.93$), and travel to spend time with locals or cultures of Trat Province ($\bar{X} = 3.57$). From the research findings, it could interpret that majority of the tourists were traveling on mass tourism basis. The results also showed that majority of the tourists did not have a clear concept of the creative tourism. Since, research findings show that the principal travel motivations of sampled tourists were sightseeing, resting and relaxation. Additionally, most of respondents did not have a mindset to engage in activities; which required specific amount of time to participate. The tourists were asked to engage or participate in activities in the new form of tourism, namely creative tourism, therefore the tourists would require to shift to new roles and performed themselves as active tourists participating or engaging in local activities.

Out of 274 completed questionnaires, 27 tourists (9.85%) reported that there were not willing to participate in any kind of creative tourism or activities. More than half stayed at least 2-3 nights while less than ten per cent decided to make a day trip. Although the majority of respondents (98.91%) reported that they desired to revisit Trat Province in the future since there were more places that they haven't visited. The main reasons that tourists visited Trat Province were scenery, infamous history, and multitude of cultures differences. Some were impressed with the scene and would likely bring their friends or family to visit the sites. Three major requirements of tourists towards creative tourism were cleanliness (56.93%), safety (47.08%), and environment (45.53%) of the destination. Most tourists had a perception towards creative tourism of Trat Province by which they wanted to the local community to maintain their uniqueness ($\bar{X} = 4.39$), and the Trat travel attractions were famous ($\bar{X} = 4.34$); clearly the perception of the Thai tourists were swayed. The usual creative tourism activities that most tourists were likely to engage in including sightseeing and photo taking which were the early adoption of tourism evolution (Richards & Marques, 2012). Therefore, the creative tourism destinations that most tourists rated appropriate were merely a reflection of the potential of creative tourism would likely develop. Essentially, the tourists foresaw the creative tourism of Trat Province as the potential solution to resolve economic turmoil and elevate the socioeconomic background of the local people; which also confirmed that the tourists misunderstood the concept of creative tourism. However, most tourists understood that creative tourism involved specifically with the community, bonding between tourists and



community. However, the tourists were not ready to engage in any activities. Moreover, tourists required extensive amount of information to plan the trip in advance.

The needs to improve the signs and information about the historical sites were not present and mostly outdated. Most of the guide posts were unclear and in some locations were quite redundant, it creates confusion. The detail information of the places would help tourists plan the trip easily. The clear signs and information if designed properly would facilitate tourists in planning their trip and reduce the infrastructure issues. Moreover, the basic infrastructure for the disable or elderly was needed since it would help the elderly and disability to travel easily and comfortably. The location was appropriate to be a long stay but the infrastructure must be improved.

3. Evaluating creative pattern of Trat Province for sustainability

According to CIPP model, proposed creative pattern of Trat Province could be analyzed as following:

Context evaluation: This creative tourism development is appropriate and relevant with vision and objectives in the developing provincial plan in the part of tourism development.

Input evaluation: The specific consideration of tourism resources found that the selected creative tourism area is in the high potential level but the shortage human resources became the problem because of inefficient usage in Trat. Tourism marketing in the tourist place is slightly low level.

Process evaluation: Creative tourism in Trat, community has involved in the high level as a result, the tourism development has been accepted and in accordance with community's needs. The benefits of tourism will be in the community and followed by the sustainable tourism concept. However, the concerned issue is benefit distribution which occurred from the comprehensive tourism development and it has to be fair. More importantly, although, the tracking and impact assessment are in the range between the low and the lowest levels, it could not be ignore d.

Production evaluation: Creative tourism in Trat resulted in the tourism growth which expected the number of tourists who would attend in the activities within the provincial town about 373,623 tourists and gain revenue about 56.175 million Baht a year (approximately 1.6



million USD). These indicators have reflected in the success of creative tourism development in Trat.

CONCLUSION:

Trat Province presented high potential for creative tourism development based on both the richness of tourism resources and development potential. In this manner, for sustainable creative tourism development, there are several points that we have to concern.

Firstly, to enhance creative tourism development potential, facilities improvement in tourism area should be achieved the standard for tourist attraction operators. The results presented that cleanliness and safety of the destination were the most important elements for tourists. Thus sanitary and security systems receive priority response. Moreover, clear directional signage and public transportation to the tourism destinations should be sufficiently provided. Training program for staffs to get clearer about creative tourism is necessary. There should be a class or short training course to educate the concept of creative tourism and how to conduct activities that could get tourists involve and engage. Participatory management is needed for sustainable creative tourism of Trat Province. Local product development can increase the value added products and community.

Secondly, for creative activities, according to the concept of creative tourism by Richard (2011), the concept lies in a form of tourism that engages tourists with culture and the way of life of the local community. The tourists are required to engage in activities that allow them to learn, and bond with the community. This way will lead to sustainable tourism. However, the result of this study showed that the Thai tourists were in the stage of sightseeing which was the first step of the creative tourism; which similar to the results of Singsomboon (2014) and Wisudthiluck & Sangnit (2014). Thus, creating interesting tourism activities encouraging tourists to participate with locals for up scaling creativity and rising awareness and concerns about values of tourism destination is also important.

Thirdly, in marketing perspective, since the tourists do not have a clear concept of creative tourism therefore it could imply that the information regarding creative tourism should be distributed. The marketing concept should be included in order to promote a clear concept of creative tourism. The use of advertisement to help tourists visualize the creative tourism is necessary. Additionally, the popularity of the creative tourism activities were in the extent of sightseeing and tourism attractiveness, however, if the tourists were provided with information and activities, they could be able to plan the trip ahead of time. They are also be able to contribute to the local creative milieu if the activities did not require extensive amount time or extra expenses. Therefore, the use of technology or mobile media for creative tourism



could provide information necessary for travelers to plan their trip and the expectations towards creative tourism in Trat province (Epstein & Vergani, 2006).

Fourthly, for impact monitoring and sustainability, careful tourism management plan is required to determine the optimum type and level of tourism that will not result in environmental degradation, social and cultural impacts. Tourism activities should be conducted in harmony with the attributes and traditions of the host communities in respect for their traditions, culture, practices, and local lifestyle. All the stakeholders in tourism development should safeguard the natural environment. For visitor management, education programs focused on encouraging visitors to consider the impacts of their actions, both natural end social environment, and persuade visitors to adopt low-impact practices are essential.

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REFINING THE RESTAURANT PREFERENCES BEHAVIOR MODEL

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ABSTRACT

This paper is a refinement and discussion of the Restaurant Preferences Behavior model. The model was derived from several food-related lifestyle models and tools of data collection concerning consumer behavior. Questions were extracted regarding casual dining restaurants and certain elements of food consumption habits. Principal component analysis was used to identify correlation and reduce the number of variables. The RPB model was used to identify one universal group of preferences and showed applicability across two different national populations, indicating the similarities and differences between them. In the present study, ANOVA's reveal millennial share some preferences despite the fact that their respective food cultures are quite different. While these preferences may be partly explained by culture, there may be a group of preferences that are common for most people, including novelty and dining out as a social event.

Key Words: Restaurant preferences, restaurant related lifestyles, cross cultural analysis, RPB model

INTRODUCTION

Consumer preferences have been considered a major factor when designing marketing strategies aimed at developing global appeal for consumers, or life-style products (Buzzell, 1968). The restaurant purchase experience can be thought of as a unique bundle of tangible and intangible products and services provided to the consumer (Harrington, Ottenbacher, & Kendall, 2011). Cullen and Kingston (2009) found that consumer's respond to their consumption experience by establishing positive or negative attitudes regarding the product



and form decisions regarding repeat purchase intentions. Being able to perceive trends regarding consumer preferences is an important input into restaurant decision-making. Consumer behavior studies examine this process using constructs that include personality, attitude and lifestyle (Foxall & Goldsmith, 1994). The consumer is cognitively engaged in responding to information received and modifying their beliefs. The Food Related Lifestyle instrument (Brunsø & Gruenert, 1995) uses a means-end theoretical approach wherein distinct parts of consumers' cognitive structures reflect the following life domains: ways of shopping, cooking methods, quality aspects, consumption situations, and purchasing motives (O'Sullivan, Scholder, & Cowan, 2005). Consumer values constitute the most abstract level of cognition, influencing perception and evaluation (Cullen, 2005). Sholderer, Brunsø, Brendahl, and Grunert (2004) suggested values are universal in the sense that the same values are pursued around the world.

Dziadkowiec and Rood (2015a) developed the Restaurant Preferences Behavior (RPB) model to support research of consumer preferences, behaviors, and feelings regarding restaurants. Cross-cultural comparisons showed that American and Polish consumers have different preferences in five of the seven construct measures: preferences toward chain and independent restaurants, attitudes to advertising, quality aspects of food perception, perceptions of procedural costs and social event relationships. Culture, gender and individual differences analysis confirmed that preferences toward restaurants are culture specific and vary between the two surveyed cultures (Rood & Dziadkowiec, 2014). While these preferences are partly explained by culture, there may be a group of preferences that are common for most people, including novelty and dining out as a social event (Dziadkowiec & Rood, 2015b). In a different cross-cultural study (USA and Hong Kong) Becker, Murrmann, Murrmann, and Cheung (1999) found a desire for Chinese respondents to use a restaurant dining experience to ensure privacy in social relationships and also found "of the sub-cultural factors examined, there was also a clear indication that the preferences of individuals dining alone appear to be universal rather than culturally based (p 63)." The objective of the present study is to refine the RPB model to examine if the construct measures of novelty and social event relationships are indeed universal.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Consumer Preferences

Consumer behavior is motivated by benefits leading to preferences for some specific product attributes (Hofstede, Auberhaert, Steenkamp, & Wedel, 1998). Studies in product development involve identification of consumers segments and the evaluation of their liking patterns (Piccolo & D'Elia, 2008). A favorable brand is thought to positively influence



consumer preference and choice (Musante, Bojanic, & Zhang, 2008). Moreover, well established brands attract increased preference and usage (East, 1997; Sirgy, 1982). June and Smith (1987) developed a model of consumer choice behavior and illustrate the effectiveness of the model through decisions made about a restaurant meal. Understanding preferences with respect to restaurants is difficult because of the complexity of the service experience.

According to Smith and Miltry (2011) the word preference refers to blatant and more reasoned choices that may go beyond actual physical sensation. They suggest consumer preferences are converging on image and branding with respect to consumer preferences, amid different cultural experiences. Globalization leads to cultural transmission and change of preferences. Different countries have different consumption habits, preferences and practices. Becker et al., (1999) found that consumer preferences for timing standards in casual dining restaurant service will differ as a function of culture. In that study they found culture being more important than demographics factors. However, Johansson (2009) found similar preferences across consumer target markets irrespective of geographical boundaries. Food preferences are formed throughout an individual's life experiences (Birch & Fisher, 1998). Food consumption is an important part of leisure activities and social bonding (Chang, 2011). Moreover, food consumption can either be the peak touristic experience or it may be a supporting experience (Quan & Wang, 2004). "The quest to sample various food styles is one of many appealing experiences some tourists aspire to achieve. The extent of peoples' desire for novelty and simulation are different. Eating exotic foods may satisfy some tourists who are in search of novelty or adventure" (Chang, 2011, p 308).

Some suggest a strong relationship among a generation's experiences which form specific preferences, values and beliefs (Harrington et al., 2012). In particular, millennials (Generation Y), born between 1980 and 2000 (Rood, 2010) are likely to be a group that dines out more frequently (Harrington et al., 2012). Rood and Dziadkowiec (2010) trained university students to conduct mystery shopping in casual dining restaurants. They found that American and Polish students have different expectations regarding certain aspects of services provided by casual dining restaurants. In particular, the Polish students appear to have a preference for independent restaurants rather than chain restaurants, compared to the American students who had no preference.

Food related lifestyle

Lifestyle measurement has been widely used in marketing, advertising, strategy and segmentation. However, the use of lifestyle measurement in market research has been historically criticized on a number of grounds, including lack of theoretical foundation, cross-



cultural applicability and failure to predict behavior (Brunso & Grunert, 1995). Precisely for these reasons, Brunso and Grunert (1995) developed a food related lifestyle (FRL) instrument. The FRL instrument was the first lifestyle survey constructed with a theoretical foundation consistent with the means-end approach to consumer behavior (Olson & Reynolds, 1983). It is a 69-item questionnaire measuring 23 lifestyle dimensions in five major life domains, including ways of shopping, cooking methods, quality aspects, consumption situations and purchasing motives. According to Wycherley, McCarthy, and Cowan (2008), the FRL is one of the most elaborate segmentation tools in the field of food research as it measures how people link food to the attainment of life-values. Within the FRL construct lifestyle is defined as an intervening system of cognitive structures that link situation-specific product perceptions to increasingly abstract cognitive categories and finally to personal values (Brunso, Scholderer, & Grunet, 2004). The model is focused on individual behavioral intentions, through the influence of perceived quality, perceived value and satisfaction. Thus the FRL construct has been proposed as a mediator between values and behavior. According to O'Sullivan et al., (2005) the FRL was constructed with the explicit aim of being applicable to a broad range of (western) food cultures, defined as "a culinary order whose traits are prevalent among a certain group of people" (Askegaard & Madsen, 1998). The FRL has been used to provide an understanding of the degree to which six food related lifestyle (FRL) segments of the British market are specialty oriented with regard to their food beliefs and behaviors (Wycherley et al., 2008); to analyze rural and urban consumers into FRL segments (Cullen & Kingston, 2009); and tested for validity in Ireland and Great Britain (O'Sullivan et al., 2005), Spain and Germany (Brunso et al., 2004), England and Ireland (Wycherley et al., (2008) in addition to other countries.

RESTAURANT PREFERENCES BEHAVIOR MODEL

Preliminary research

The RPB model is the result of researches on restaurant preferences and behaviors in two different cultures, Polish and American. After a systematic critical literature review, a preliminary model for testing restaurant consumer preferences and behaviors was built. The original model is based on a review of the extant literature using 16 questions from Scholderer, Brunso, Brendahl, and Grunert (2004); 16 from Kim, Ok, and Canter (2010); 7 from Wycherley et al., (2008); and 11 from Rood and Dziadkowiec (2010) then tested on two different national populations of millennial aged university students. All construct measures were obtained from scale items used in these 4 previous empirical studies. The questions were divided into 7 constructs including relevant aspects regarding preferences and behaviors identified in literature.



Testing the research model

The research model was tested on a unified demographic segment was selected of American hospitality / tourism management students and Polish hospitality / tourism management and quality management students. The survey was completed by 799 students: 313 American (39.2%) and 486 Polish (61.1%). 97% of the respondents were aged 25 and younger. Over three-quarters of the participants (73.7%) were female (both figures approximating their percentage in their respective programs of study).

The identified aspects were randomly placed in the questionnaire, avoiding thematic grouping in order to increase the credibility of the results. All items used a five-point Likert scale that was placed predominantly on the survey instrument as “strongly agree” (5), “agree” (4), “neither agree nor disagree” (3), “disagree” (2), and “strongly disagree” (1). Statistical analyses were applied to identify relationships between variables and to determine the optimal number of questions within the model. The major goal of this stage was to reveal any hidden structures in the collected data sets and to show that the final model is suitable in cross-cultural comparisons. Testing was done for internal consistency and reliability. Because of the relatively low internal consistency, especially with the American respondents, 7 variables were eliminated. The final measurement tool consisted of 43 questions with high reliability. Cronbach’s Alpha co-efficient for the Polish population was 0.78, and 0.65 for the American population.

The applicability of the tool for cross-cultural comparisons was tested. The analysis of the differences between Polish and American respondents in 7 constructs was performed using univariate analysis to compare the two populations independently with respect to the 43 questions. The results show that American and Polish students have different preferences in 5 of the 7 construct measures: preferences toward chain and independent restaurants, attitudes to advertising, quality aspects of food perception, perceptions of procedural costs and social relationship. Both cultures similarly perceive restaurant brands, and brand heterogeneity and consumption situations in dining out (Dziadkowiec & Rood, 2015b).

Differences within and between two cultures were examined (Rozin, 2003) to test a finding that perceptions about dining are culture and gender-specific (Bryant & Dundes, 2008). Three individual aspects of dining out were analyzed: “attitudes to advertising (positive or negative)”, “favor branded or independent restaurants”, and the importance of dining out in everyday life (“frequent vs. occasional customers”). A series of ANOVA’s showed that differences in preferences of Poles and Americans toward casual dining are driven by cultural differences rather than by gender. Frequency of going to restaurants and places of dining out



in everyday life plays an important role in shaping casual dining preferences. With the constructs: “branded/chain vs. independent”, “brands and brand heterogeneity”, “dining out” and “procedural costs” individual preferences were found to be important; they depend on individual habits in dining out and do not depend on gender. Preferences with “quality aspects of food perception” are not related to gender or frequency of dining out (Rood & Dziadkowiec, 2014).

Model Refinement

Principal component analysis (factor analysis) was used to detect the structure of the variables and investigate the possibility of reducing the number of variables. The criteria for the number of factors to be extracted was based on eigenvalues, percentage of variance, significance of factor loading, and assessment of the structure. Factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 were considered significant. A variable was considered to be of practical significance and included in a factor when its factor loading was equal to or greater than 0.50 for at least one of surveyed countries (Table 1).

Table 1.
Factor analysis results

Variables	Factor loadings		Cronbach's Alpha	
	USA	PL	USA	PL
Factor 1: Trying new foods in restaurants			0.90	0.88
N1: When eating out I like to try new foods	0.82	0.82		
N2: I believe in looking for unusual foods on the menu when eating out	0.79	0.77		
N3: I prefer ‘trying new things’ to ‘doing familiar things’	0.77	0.75		
N4: I like change more than consistency	0.77	0.72		
N5: I enjoy variety more than familiarity	0.77	0.66		
N6: I love to try recipes from foreign countries	0.71	0.72		
N4: Items on the menu that I am unfamiliar with make me curious	0.64	0.76		
Factor 2: Dining out as social events			0.59	0.56
S1: Over a meal one may have a lovely chat	0.67	0.63		
S2: When I serve dinner to friends, the most important thing is that we are together	0.59	0.32*		
S3: I enjoy a good meal	0.51	0.48*		
S4: I enjoy going to restaurants with my family and friends	0.49*	0.59		
S5: I find that dining with friends is an important part of my social life	0.23*	0.52		
Factor 3: Dining out behaviors			0.55	0.58
D1: Going out for dinner is a regular part of our eating habits		-		
	0.77	0.47*		
D2: I like to go out for dinner as part of my routine		-		
	0.76	0.43*		
D3: I do not consider it a luxury to go out with my family to have dinner in a restaurant		-		
	0.52	0.19*		
D4: It is hard to find a good casual dining restaurant that meets my expectations		-		
	0.17*	0.63		



D5: It is too much trouble to find an acceptable casual dining restaurant	-0.4*	0.67		
D6: Searching for an acceptable casual dining restaurant is too much trouble in terms of my time and effort	-	0.42*	0.74	
Factor 4: Attitudes toward branded/chain restaurants			0.53	0.58
B1: Independent restaurants seem more elegant. Branded restaurants are rather like fast food restaurants	0.71	0.52		
B2: In independent restaurants there is a wider range of dishes than in branded restaurants	0.56	0.40*		
B3: I always know what to expect when I go to a branded restaurant	0.55	0.41*		
I usually go to a branded restaurant for a favorite meal.	0.53	0.64		
B4: Food in branded restaurants is usually cheaper than in independent restaurants	0.46*	0.64		
B5: Service in branded restaurants is usually faster than in independent restaurants	0.39*	0.58		
Factor 5: Procedural costs			0.45*	0.58
C1: My favorite casual dining restaurant meets my dining needs better than other comparable casual dining restaurants	0.63	0.52		
C2: It matters which casual dining restaurant I dine out at. They are quite different from one another	0.55	0.70		
C3: Choosing a casual dining restaurant to dine out at is important to me	0.51	0.58		
C4: I think service quality varies a lot among different casual dining restaurants	0.39*	0.52		
C5: In terms of menus or menu themes. casual dining restaurants vary a great deal	0.39*	0.52		
C6: When I make a decision where to dine out. I do it very carefully	0.31*	0.53		

**factor loading not satisfactory*

The final RPB model consists of 30 extracted variables with five factors influencing casual dining preferences. Reliability is higher with this refined model. The extracted factors are divided into three groups (regarding their adequacy to cross-cultural comparisons). Factor 1 “trying new food in restaurants” is cross-culturally comparable with high factor loadings and alpha scores for both countries. Factor 2 “dining out as social events”, Factor 4 ‘attitudes towards branded/chain restaurants, and Factor 5 “procedural costs” do not have as high reliability but are acceptable. Some variables have high factor loadings for one culture, but not for the other. They are cross-culturally comparable, but with some limitations. Factor 3 “dining out behaviors” is problematic as reliability for both countries is low and there are no common variables with high factor loadings for both countries. Factor 3 is slightly comparable between cultures. In sum, casual dining behaviors in Poland and in USA are probably driven by different issues.

APPLYING RPB FOR CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISONS



A main research question was posed: Is possible to investigate cross-cultural and/or gender differences using the RPB refined model?

To answer this cultural and gender differences were investigated separately. Polish and American cultural and gender preference differences were identified via multivariate ANOVA testing (Table 2). For cross-culture comparisons all factors show a large *F* statistic (11.01, 26.78, 39.90, 12.35 and 23.40 respectively) and are statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Gender differences were found only in the factor “Dining out as a social events”. This supports the findings of previous analysis that American and Polish preferences toward casual dining restaurants are cultural rather than gender specific (Rood & Dziadkowiec, 2014).

Table 2. ANOVA results

Variable	ANOVA			
	Wilks' λ	F	df	Significance Level
Trying new foods in restaurants				
Culture	0.91	11.01	7	0.000
Gender	0.99	1.18	7	0.313
Culture*Gender	0.99	1.70	7	0.106
Dining out as social events				
Culture	0.85	26.78	5	0.000
Gender	0.96	6.79	5	0.000
Culture*Gender	0.99	1.15	5	0.334
Dining out behaviors				
Culture	0.77	39.90	6	0.000
Gender	0.99	0.85	6	0.528
Culture*Gender	0.99	1.053	6	0.390
Attitudes toward independent/chain restaurants				
Culture	0.91	12.35	6	0.000
Gender	0.99	1.12	6	0.349
Culture*Gender	0.99	1.69	6	0.120
Procedural costs				
Culture	0.85	23.40	6	0.000
Gender	1.00	0.50	6	0.807
Culture*Gender	0.99	1.81	6	0.094

Post hoc Tukey tests revealed most variables indicate cross-cultural and/or gender differences (Table 3). The findings are similar to previous studies; there are significant differences “between country” and more “within country” in Poland than in the USA (Rood & Dziadkowiec, 2014; Dziadkowiec & Rood, 2015a; 2015b). In 9 investigated behaviors and preferences no statistically significant differences were found. Both cultures present similar attitudes looking for novelty and unusual dishes when dining out (Table 3: N1, N2, N4, N5,



N6); enjoy a good meal (Table 3: S1, S3, S3, S4) and think that branded restaurants are more predictable and less expensive than independents (Table 3: B3, B4). Both Poles and Americans do not consider dining out as a luxury. It is hard to find a good casual dining restaurant that meets expectations (Table 3: D3, D4). Therefore they make decisions where to dine out very carefully (Table 3: C1, C6) as service quality varies a lot among different establishments.

Table 3. Post-hoc Tukey tests results

Groups	PL/F	US/M	US/F	PL/F	US/M	US/F	PL/F	US/M	US/F	PL/F	US/M	US/F	PL/F	US/M	US/F
Factor	Trying new foods in restaurants														
Variable	N1			N2			N3			N4			N5		
PL/M	0.179	0.015	0.055	0.191	0.484	1.000	0.136	0.000	0.004	0.950	0.150	0.995	0.984	0.908	0.027
PL/F		0.264	0.872		0.999	0.063		0.009	0.325		0.034	0.988		0.750	0.001
US/M			0.546			0.387			0.163			0.069			0.539
Factor	Dining out as social events														
Variable	S1			S2			S3			S4			S5		
PL/M	0.812	0.043	0.001	0.224	0.001	0.000	0.064	0.558	0.633	0.149	0.899	0.619	0.000	0.000	0.000
PL/F		0.109	0.001		0.040	0.000		0.986	0.458		0.102	0.749		0.003	0.000
US/M			1.000			0.978			0.953			0.358			0.103
Factor	Dining out behaviors														
Variable	D1			D2			D3			D4			D5		
PL/M	0.340	0.000	0.000	0.983	0.095	0.000	0.781	0.982	0.974	0.971	0.950	0.221	0.215	0.000	0.000
PL/F		0.000	0.000		0.103	0.000		0.695	0.344		0.993	0.238		0.000	0.000
US/M			1.000			0.599			1.000			0.836			0.998
Factor	Attitudes toward branded/chain restaurants														
Variable	B1			B2			B3			B4			B5		
PL/M	0.990	0.478	0.000	0.932	0.202	0.000	0.840	0.470	0.068	0.805	0.907	0.178	0.319	0.005	0.000
PL/F		0.274	0.000		0.047	0.000		0.753	0.157		1.000	0.002		0.072	0.000
US/M			0.056			0.695			0.994			0.119			0.835
Factor	Procedural costs														
Variable	C1			C2			C3			C4			C5		
PL/M	0.570	0.001	0.000	0.215	0.000	0.000	0.083	0.919	0.965	0.668	0.996	0.972	0.444	0.757	0.887
PL/F		0.007	0.000		0.000	0.000		0.749	0.003		0.943	0.851		1.000	0.036
US/M			0.990			0.998			0.728			1.000			0.383

Legend: PL/M – Polish males. PL/F - Polish females. US/M – American males. US/F – American females.

$p < 0.001$

Construct with high cross-cultural comparability

The construct “trying new food in restaurants” has high factor loadings and alpha scores for both countries (Table 1), which means that the variables have similar meaning for the respondents. This construct is highly reliable and the results may be compared in a direct way. Results of statistical analysis shows that there are cross-cultural differences in attitudes to novelty when eating in restaurants between Polish and American consumers (Table 2). Post hoc Tukey tests show the important cross-cultural differences ($p < 0.001$) are between males from both countries in the variable: “Items on the menu that I am unfamiliar with make me



curious” (N4), (Americans are more enthusiastic for novelty in restaurants) rather than females (Poles are more focused on trying unfamiliar dishes).

Constructs comparable cross-culturally with limitations

Three constructs have acceptable reliability, but they contain some variables not common for both cultures. In the construct “dining out as social events” (F2) the main cultural and gender differences were produced by two variables, (S2 and S5). The first one, (S2) was included because of the American respondents. The second one (S5) because of the Polish respondents. In the construct “dining out behaviors” (F3) the main differences are produced by two variables characteristic of American respondents (D1 and D2), and two variables characteristic of Poles (D5 and D6). In the construct “attitudes toward branded/chain restaurants” (F4) the main differences are produced by one variable common for both countries (B1), and can be compared in the direct way. Therefore it can be concluded that Poles believe that independent restaurants are more elegant while Americans treat both kinds of restaurants equally. The construct “dining out behaviors” (F3) has one variable characteristic of Americans (B3) and two variables characteristic of Poles (B4 and B5).

Construct with low reliability – low cross-cultural comparability

The construct “procedural costs” (F5) does not have high reliability for either cultures, but has a positive influence on the reliability of the overall RPB model. Theoretically, the results in this construct shouldn’t be compared, but an interesting observation is that two main cross-cultural differences were identified in two variables common for both cultures. Statistically significant differences between countries shows that Americans have more confidence in their favorite restaurants than Poles (C1), while Poles are more careful in choosing restaurants (C2). These two variables (C1 and C2) can be compared in a direct way. The rest of the constructs have acceptable (but not high) reliability.

CONCLUSION

The refined RPB model is a leaner version with a reduction of questions from 43 to 30; condensing measurement constructs from 7 to 5. The overall reliability is higher than in the preliminary model. The result is a more user friendly version, while providing similar conclusions. Reorganization of constructs and questions provides a better description of preferences and behaviors toward casual dining restaurants. This study identified the construct “Novelty”, which was not surveyed in a preliminary RPB model. An additional advantage is that in the refined RPB model, three group of preferences toward casual dining



with different levels of cross-cultural comparability were identified. Preferences grouped in the construct with high reliability (F1) seems to be universal for both surveyed cultures and could be compared directly (without limitations). Each of the next three constructs (F2, F3 and F4) consist of preferences common for both cultures but also preferences characterizing only one of the analyzed cultures. This results in lower cross-cultural comparability. Cultures can be compared with some limitations. The last construct (F5) is the most problematic, because there is no statistical proof that most of variables in this construct have the same meaning for both surveyed cultures. This problem (with a lower reliability in some constructs) is typical for cross-cultural models, e.g. the FRL model (Grunert, Brunsø, & Bisp, 1992) which is a base of our current researches. The RPB model has an overall high reliability, but we note the cross-cultural results from construct F5 has limitations and shouldn't be compared directly.

The results of this study show that it is possible to identify universal, “above” cultures preferences, attitudes and behaviors toward casual dining, but there are also preferences which are slightly cross-culturally comparable. Based on the current study it can be concluded that the tendency to seek novelty while visiting restaurant is “above culture”. The remaining surveyed constructs could be analyzed, but probably it is not possible to identify fully cross-culturally comparably measurements, since each culture has individual phenomena. Finally, the RPB model is a reliable instrument for cross-cultural comparisons of restaurant preferences, and by understanding its limitations it is possible to avoid mistakes with interpretation of the results.

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**WEIGHT OF HOTEL ATTRIBUTES: APPLICATION TO GUESTS OF
DISNEYLANG PARIS HOTELS**

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to confront the weight of hotel attributes with the perceived value by the guests of Disneyland Paris partner hotels. In this regard, the weight of attributes/criteria has been calculated by Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) – Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) method. And, the perceived value by the guests on the respective attributes has been calculated from the user generated content (UGC) websites (Trip Advisor). 200 tourists stayed in one of the 15 partner hotels of Disneyland Paris (France) have been interrogated in order to evaluate the weight of criteria/attributes. Therefore, this study permits the respective hotel managers to understand the gap between the need/expectation of their guests and perceived value. This paper suggests respective hotel managers to create a higher-value for their guests according the importance/weight of guest-satisfaction attributes.

Key Words: MCDA, AHP Method, Hotel Attributes, Electronic Word-of-Mouth (eWOM), Guest Satisfaction, Disneyland Paris.



INTRODUCTION

Disneyland Paris is the most visited tourist destination in Europe with 14.2 million tourists in 2014 (Euro Disney Associés S.C.A.). The Euro Disney group operates 7 hotels (capacity of 5800 rooms) and with another 8 partner hotels, Disneyland Paris ensures the best *Disney Experience* for their guests. Recently, due to competitive business environment, all these hotels of Disneyland Paris are struggling to meet their customer needs and expectations and, as a result, the occupancy rate for the respective hotels is decreased by 2.2% in 3rd semester of 2014 (Euro Disney Associés S.C.A.). However, the overall occupancy rate in Paris region was increased by 1% for the same period of time (Paris Tourist Office), it is obvious that the Disneyland Paris partner hotels are losing their market share. Therefore, it has become indispensable for respective hotel managers to understand and identify the needs and expectations of the guests in order to improve the service and to deliver a higher-value. In this regard, it is necessary for hotel managers to evaluate the weight of guest-satisfaction determined attributes/criteria.

Multiple researches have been done in order to understand the importance/weight of criteria/attributes that play a vital role in guest satisfaction and the hotel selection process (e.g. Zaman, Botti & Vo Thanh, 2015; Albayrak & Caber, 2015; Chu & Choi, 2000; Tsaour & Tzeng, 1996). And, the importance/weight of attributes helps hospitality professionals to improve their services/products for their customers.

According to Nielson (2013) report, 70% of potential customers trust online reviews for making any purchase and, the perceived value that is expressed on the UGC websites (e.g. TripAdvisor); plays a vital role in decision-making process of potential customers. However, UGC websites permits customers to express themselves but does not allow them to prioritize their needs and expectations (i.e. guest-satisfaction attributes).

In this regard, the weight of criteria/attributes helps the hotel managers to understand the contribution of each attribute/criterion in guest-satisfaction and, the guests' reviews on UGC websites, help them to evaluate their performance vis-à-vis the respective attributes by their guests as a post-experience point of views (i.e. perceived value by the guests). By confronting these two results, this study suggests the respective hotel managers to allocate the resources accordingly in order to deliver a higher-value for their customers.

By taking into consideration the criteria/attributes from previous researches, official website of Disneyland Paris, and the interviews of 3 hotels employees of partner hotels; we have validated 9 attributes/criteria for further evaluation.

Multi-Criteria Decision Analysis (MCDA) – AHP (Analytics Hierarchy Process) method has



been applied in order to calculate the weight of these 9 attributes by pair-wise comparison between criteria/attributes. The data was collected from 200 tourists in Disneyland Paris; mainly from couples and families with children, traveling for leisure purpose and stayed in one of those 15 hotels. On the other hand, notes/rating for each attribute/criterion from UGC websites have been taken in order to state the perceived value by the customers.

Therefore, this paper is organised as follows. In section 2, we conduct a literature review on the weight of attributes for hotels and satisfaction. The section 3 presents the methodology. In section 4, we present the results and discussion. In section 5, we present the managerial implication. And, the final part emphasizes on the limits and perspectives of our study.

SATISFACTION AND WEIGHT OF HOTEL ATTRIBUTES

As a construct, customer satisfaction is generally recognized as a special form of consumer attitude; it is a post purchase phenomenon reflecting how much a customer likes or dislikes a service or product after experiencing it (Bearden & Teel, 1983; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982). When examining the satisfaction construct, the most frequently cited definition is expectation-disconfirmation paradigm (EDP) that suggests a comparison between expectation and performance (Oliver, 1980). According to this author, EDP refers to confirmation, positive disconfirmation, and negative disconfirmation. Customers' expectations are confirmed if service or product perceptions exactly meet expectations. Positive disconfirmation occurs if performance exceeds expectations, whereas negative disconfirmation occurs when expectations exceed performance. Thus, confirmation and positive disconfirmation result in satisfaction, while negative disconfirmation leads to dissatisfaction (Chen and Chen, 2010; Jang and Feng, 2007). Similarly, in the tourism field, Pizam, Neumann and Reichel (1978) define tourist satisfaction as the results of the comparison between a tourist's experience at the destination and the expectations about the destination. EDP has been often used to measure tourist satisfaction.

On the other hand, hotel sector is a service industry where materials (e.g. installed facilities) and skilled & friendly staffs (e.g. human touch) have equal importance. In order to stay competitive, hotel managers need precise information and attribute preferences of their customers (Tsaur & Tzeng, 1996). So far, researchers have identified a total number of 173 attributes on hotel and they were ranked according to their importance (e.g. Dolnicar & Otter, 2003). However, by taking into consideration the attributes of UGC websites (e.g. TripAdvisor); services proposed by hotels on Disneyland Paris website (see list of the hotels: <http://www.disneylandparis.fr/hotels/>), and the interview of 3 employees of concerned hotels; we have validated 9 attributes: distance of the hotel from the park, comfort & equipment,



service/personnel, cleanliness, value for money, free Wi-Fi, hotel transfer/shuttle service, package (hotel + park ticket), health-club/gym.

So, the customers were involved in two steps. In the first step, the preference/importance of attributes have been calculated via pair-wise comparison and in the second step, their perception of respective attributes have been taken into account via UGC websites/eWOM.

METHODOLOGY AND DATA

Multi-Criteria AHP method has been used in order to calculate the importance/weight of these attributes by a pair-wise comparison matrix (e.g. Zaman, Botti & Vo Thanh, 2015; Tsaur & Tzeng, 1996). In order to do so, Saaty Scale (1977, 1980) has been used because it is very useful when the decision maker is unable to construct a utility function (Ishizaka & Nemery, 2013). Thus, decision maker gives a relative verbal appreciation between two criteria rather than a numerical judgement.

Table 1
Insight of Saaty scale

Verbal Appreciation	Numeric Rating	Reciprocal Value
Extreme importance	9	1/9
Very, very strong	8	1/8
Very strong	7	1/7
Strong plus	6	1/6
Strong importance	5	1/5
Moderate plus	4	1/4
Moderate importance	3	1/3
Weak	2	1/2
Equal importance	1	1

If two criteria c_h and c_k are compared, e_{hk} indicates the evaluation of the criteria c_h relatively to the criteria c_k . The pair-wise comparison matrix A is composed of all the relative evaluation by considering that $a_{hk} = 1 / a_{kh}$.

Figure 1
Numeric rating of a pair-wise comparison (Zaman, Botti & Vo Thanh, 2015)



By talking into consideration the eigen-value formulation,

$$Aw = mw \tag{1}$$

Where $w = (w_1, \dots, w_m)^T$; m = associated eigen-value.

Since the observed matrix A might not be consistent, the estimation of w could be calculated as follow (where λ_{max} represents the maximum eigen-value of matrix A):

$$Aw = \lambda_{max} w \tag{2}$$

In order to measure the inconsistency (A is consistent if $\lambda_{max}=m$ and we always have the $\lambda_{max} \geq m$), consistency ratio (C.R.) could be calculated by using the following steps:

$$\text{Consistency Index (C.I.)} = (\lambda_{max} - m) / (m - 1) \tag{3}$$

$$\text{Therefore, C.R.} = \text{C.I.} / \text{R.I.} \tag{4}$$

Consistency ration (C.R.) should be less or equal to 0.1 in order to get the result acceptable. The C.I. of a randomly generated pair-wise comparison matrix (Saaty, 1980) & m = order of matrix.

Table 2
Random indices from Saaty (1977)

m	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
R.I.	0.00	0.00	0.58	0.90	1.12	1.24	1.32	1.41	1.46	1.49

The data was collected from 239 tourists in Disneyland Paris in August/September 2015. We only focused on the leisure travellers who stayed in one of 15 hotels listed on the park’s official website. Please note that those 239 questionnaires consist of 117 couples and 122 families with children; which are two major segments of clients for Disneyland Paris.



However, after the consistency test, we have retained only 200 valid questionnaires, 100 for each segment.

UGC website - TripAdvisor has been analysed in order to state the perceived value and the note of each attribute.

RESULT AND DISCUSSIONS

Result shows that “Value for Money” (16.75%) is the most important criteria/attribute for respondents followed by distance of the hotel from the park, cleanliness, package, and quality of service by the staff. All the partner hotels of Disneyland Paris maintain a politic of higher price and guests are looking for a higher-value for their money during their stay. Therefore, the main challenge for the concerned hotel managers and marketing experts will be:

- How they could communicate the perceived value for the customers?
- How they could offer a higher value for their customers?

Distance between the hotel and the park (14%) plays a vital role in hotel selection however varies from families to couples. We have interviewed 3 employees from 3 hotels and hotel staffs explained that families, who were visiting Disneyland Paris, usually stay close to Disney (i.e. in one of the partner hotels). On the contrary, couples usually stays in between Paris and Disneyland Park; and take the advantage to visit Paris in the same time.

Cleanliness (14%), which is a basic attribute for guest satisfaction, also plays a significant role in hotel selection. Previous studies on hotel attributes (e.g. Zaman, Botti & Vo Thanh, 2015; Ryan & Huimin, 2007) found “cleanliness” the most important attribute for guest satisfaction and play a vital role in decision-making process for potential clients.

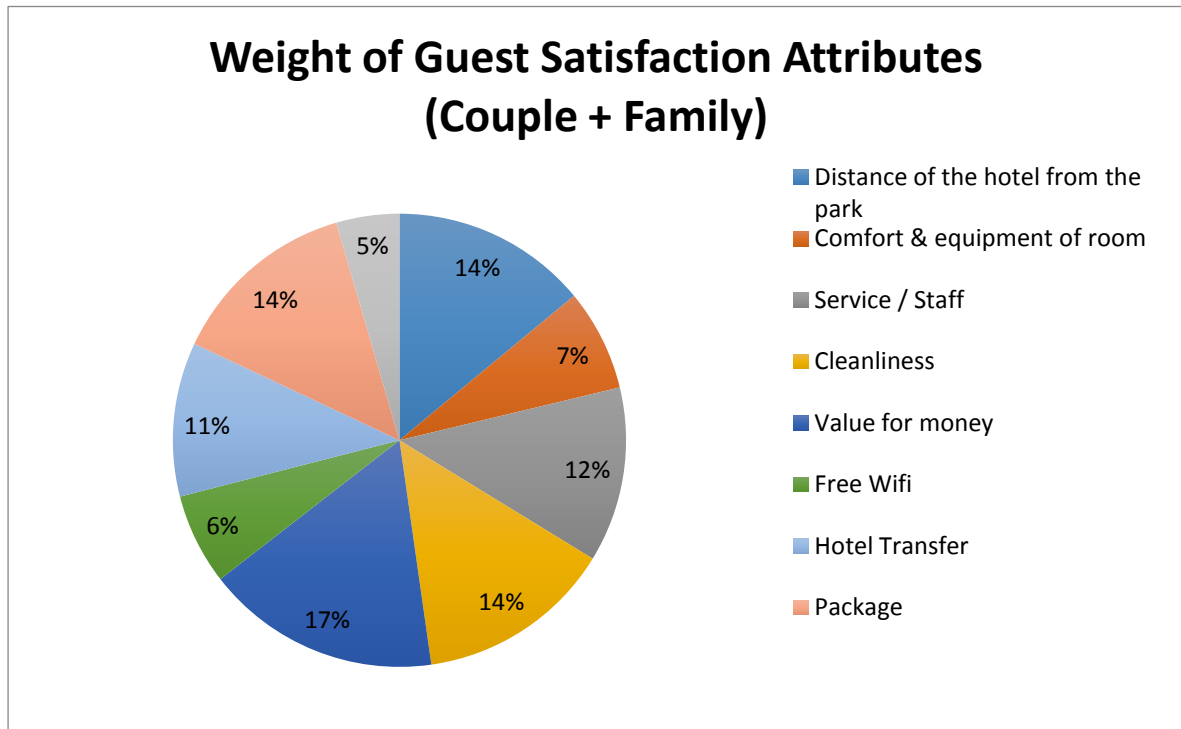
Disneyland Paris hotels propose special packages (13.5%) (i.e. hotel with park entry ticket, Disney personalities in the hotels, etc.) which is one of the important criteria for hotel selection but doesn't have any contribution in guest satisfaction. During the interviews, the staffs from 3 hotels confirmed that around 50% of the tourists of their hotels buy a package. So, the package could be considered as a added-value for the customers and it's a promotional tool.

Friendly staffs/service (12%) plays an important role in service industry. Transfer from Hotel to Park (11%) is considered as an important element however all the hotels propose free shuttle services. It could be considered as a basis service for the hotels.



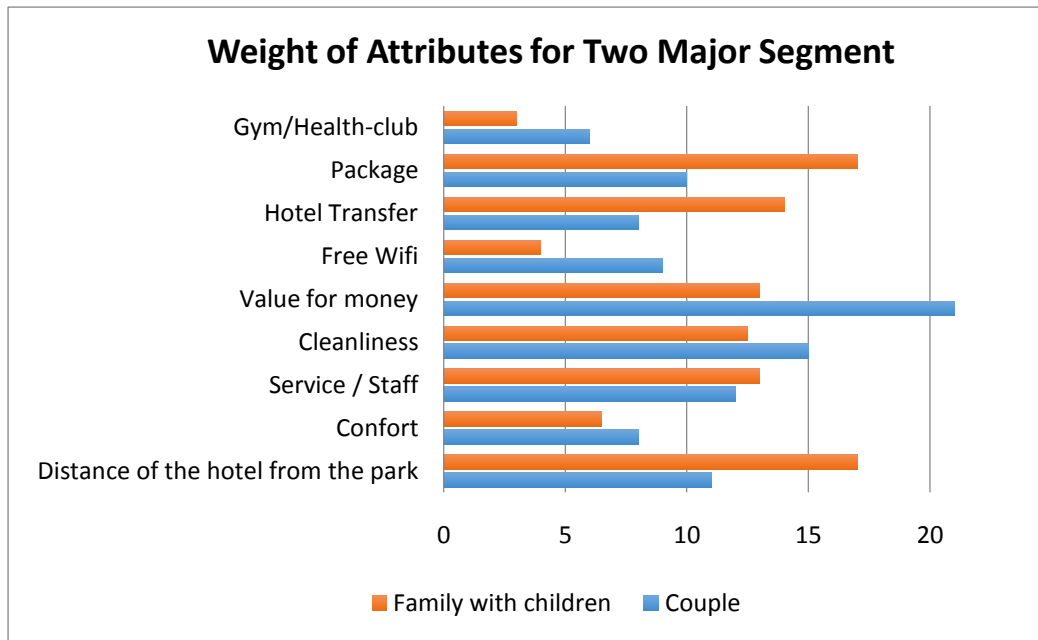
Without any surprise, the comfort and equipment of the rooms; free Wifi and gym/health-club have very little importance (Fig. 2).

Figure 2
Weight of hotel attributes for Disneyland Paris



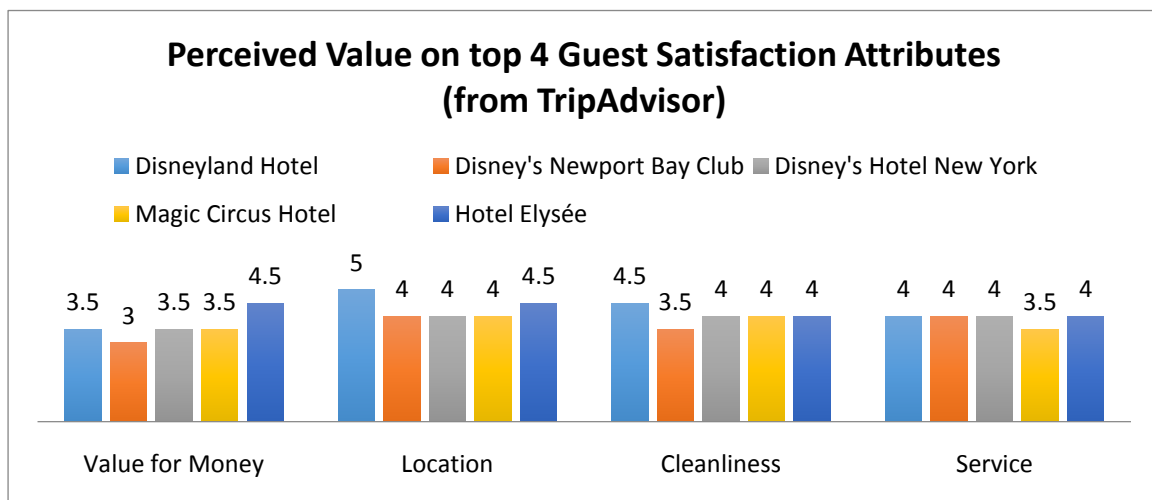
As we have already explained, two major segments and results show that how it varies from couples to families (with children) (Fig. 3). Value for money is the most important criteria for couples while families with children prefers to take a package and stay close to the park, and have a free shuttle service. Without any surprise, the quality service/staffs has the equal importance for each segment.

Figure 3
Weight of hotel attributes by Segment



After determining the weight of hotel attributes, we have illustrated the perceived value of 4 main/top attributes: value for money, distance of the hotel from the park (location), cleanliness and service/staff for 5 hotels. Result shows that only Hotel Elysée proposes a higher-value for their customers (4.5 out of 5). As Disneyland Hotel is situated inside the Park, it has the highest satisfaction for location (Fig. 4) but very poor performance on value for money.

Figure 4
Illustration of perceived value from TripAdvisor (for only 5 hotels)





By analysing the customers' reviews for respective hotels, here is a guest comment on Disneyland hotel stayed in September:

"1000 USD a night and not even a free bottle of water in the room!!!"

« ...we booked via Expedia 2 nights and called after 5 minutes to change to 1 night and were promised by Expedia that this changed in the system and we just need to show up in the hotel. We did and this massively expensive hotel for absolutely no reason refused to change our booking and we had to pay the extra night which was a bit less than a 1000 USD a night desire standing on the reception desk for 2 hours and calling the central reservation people who were so strict and unfriendly.

Anyways I will never book there again because it's in no way value for the money. The rooms are very simple and not 5 stars and nothing in them indicates that you are in Disneyland. Even water upon arrival is not for free. There isn't a kettle or any complementary drinks. They charge even infants for lunch buffet. There isn't ANY thing special about this hotel. The breakfast you can easily have in a 3 star hotel. Plus it's too crowded that you have to stand in line and wait to be able to enter the breakfast area. No personal touch or treatment whatsoever.

Other hotels are few minutes away and way cheaper so why to pay all this money???.... »

This review not only unsatisfactory vis-à-vis value-for money but also reflects the poor and unfriendly service.

Therefore, we have two results. Firstly, the weight of hotel attributes which permits us to understand the preference of guests in Disneyland Paris. Secondly, the analysis of UGC websites permits us to evaluate the performance of hotels for these respective attributes.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION

Because of tough competition in hospitality industry, the main objective of hospitality professionals is to ensure a higher level of customer satisfaction by delivering a higher-value. The weight of attributes facilitates the understating of real needs & expectations of the guests, and, the UGC websites help managers to evaluate their performance for respective attributes and explain how the guests perceived their performance.

Hotel managers should allocate more resources for important attributes such as service/staffs training and cleanliness rather than complementary services such as health-club/gym. They should anticipate the need of customers by an internal questionnaire and provide a higher-value for their product/service.



CONCLUSION, LIMITS AND PERSPECTIVES

This article explains how weight of guest-satisfaction attributes and UGC websites could be used for co-creation of value for hotel customers. In addition, this study facilitates the understanding of preferences of Disneyland Paris partner hotel customers. Study shows that all the attributes don't have the same importance and it permits the respective hotels to offer the right value for their customers in order to stay competitive. The questionnaire does not take into account the socio-demographic situation (e.g. age, sex, annual revenue) of the guests. So, a future study with more detailed information could be more appropriate in order to get more precise information. On the other hand, customer reviews on UGC websites should be analysed in order to better understand the gap between the customer need, delivered value and perceived value.

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USING REVPAR INDEX TO CLASSIFY THE MARKET OF TAIWAN'S INTERNATIONAL TOURIST HOTELS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is the classification of Taiwan's international tourist hotels by RevPAR index, a popular hotel performance index but rarely used in Taiwan, and identification of important variables to affect the classification results. The results could be used to portfolio management of hotel investment. The database is official statistics published by Tourism Bureau, Ministry of Transportation and Communication of Taiwan.

The findings are concluded into three parts. First, six groups are identified in Taiwan's international tourist hotel market by RevPAR index. The classification results are different with the ones by traditional hotel types. Secondly, the classification results could be applied to portfolio and risk management by hotel investors and professionals. For example, "Normal Volatility type" could be combined with "Reverse Fluctuation type" in an investment portfolio. In addition, "type of Steady Fluctuation" is better than "type of Highly Fluctuation" for hotel investors and professionals. Thirdly, five independent variables, including RevPAR, ADR, transportation accessibility, location, and hotel types, mainly affect the classification results.

Key Words: International Tourist Hotel, RevPAR index, Hotel Investment, Cluster Analysis, Discriminate Analysis

INTRODUCTION

Relating to hotel performance, RevPAR (Revenue per Available Room) index is one of popular index chosen by international hotel chain and industrial analyst. Since its magnitude is equal to occupancy rate multiply with ADR (average room price), RevPAR could provide more comprehensive information than ADR. Financial analyst also regard RevPAR as a critical indicator of the stock price of accommodation industry (Ismail, Dalber, & Mills, 2002). There are some researchers like Gallagher & Mansour (2000) use the annual changing rate of the index to classify and to reflect the volatility of the hotel market. The risk of hotel investment could be reduced by cross regions or diversity of hotel types (Arbel & Grier,



1978). Therefore, RevPAR could be a useful indicator to classify hotel market and control investment risk.

The main purposes of this paper are to using RevPAR index to classify Taiwan's international tourist hotel market and to identify key variables to affect the results. In addition, the reasons why this index is rarely and under used in Taiwan are also discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

RevPAR Index and Related Research

RevPAR is an index of hotel performance. It is usually used to compare the similar target market or same hotel types. It can provide more comprehensive information of hotel management than ADR and occupancy rate. According to Gallagher and Mansour (2000):

RevPAR= revenue of rented rooms / total number of rooms

=ADR (Average Daily Rate)* rented rooms / total number of rooms

=ADR*Occupancy Rate

Singh and Schmidgall (2011) conduct a survey of 81 financial managers of American hotel, their results, from the perception of these managers, reveal that the most important hotel performance index is ADR, the second one is RevPAR, and the third one is occupancy rate. Another survey conducted by Singh, Kline, Ma & Beals (2012), from the viewpoints of American hotel asset managers, RevPAR is the most important hotel performance indicator and GOP (Gross Operating Profit) is the most important hotel financial indicator. O'Neil & Mattila (2006) find higher RevPAR index is accompanied with higher NOI (net operating income) by the database of the Institute of Smith Travel Research. Sainaghi (2011) discuss the variables which affect RevPAR index. Using the data of Milan's hotel market, he concludes that location is the most affective variable beyond scale, star grading, years, service quality, and market positioning.

Not all researchers are all agreed with the effectiveness and usefulness of RevPAR index. Chen, Koh & Lee (2011) argue the explanatory power of RevPAR index in explaining the stock price of five American hotel chains is poor. Brown & Dev (1999) suggest using total revenue instead of RevPAR index because the latter does not include the revenue of beverage and leisure departments. Slattery(2012) argue, from a banker's viewpoint, that the revenue data of property should be calibrated by the actual cash flow of rented rooms.

Although there are some arguments and critics of the RevPAR index, it is still commonly applied by researchers and practitioners as a hotel performance indicator (Zeglat & Zigan, 2014).

B. RevPAR Index and Risk Management

Risk management is an important issue for hotel investors and asset managers. Arbel & Grier (1978) identify product diversity and location dispersion may reduce hotel investment risk.



Ismail, Dalbor, & Mills (2002) confirm that when hotel grading is higher, and the magnitude of RevPAR index is also larger. In addition, high ADR and specific location of hotel property will cause high volatility of RevPAR index.

Gallagher and Mansour (2000) regard annual changing rate of RevPAR as an indicator of validity of hotel industry and use it to classify hotel market. And the classification results could be useful for hotel investors to control investment risk. Kim & Canina (2011) find the classification results by cluster analysis are more similar among hotels than traditional ones by consumers' characteristics. That means the quantitative method of cluster analysis has the potential to provide more accurate classification results than traditional hotel types.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND EMPIRICAL DATA

Since hotel classification and explanation of the results are the main purposes of this research, the multivariate model of grouping is adopted as the research method. When there is no group number is given, hierarchical cluster analysis method is proper to reach the goals (,). In addition, discriminant analysis is also applied to explain the classification results and identify some important variables.

The empirical data is officially published by Tourism Bureau, Ministry of Transportation and Communication of Taiwan. In fact, the original source of the data is from Taiwan's international tourist hotels. Those original data of hotel management are gathered and compiled by the government sector to the public. After deleting those hotels are closed or temporarily shut down, the data of 57 hotels are available from year 2001 to 2009. These empirical data is used to proceed the quantitative model.

RESULTS OF CLASSIFICATION

Results of Classification

Determining the number of group is a critical step of the procedure of the cluster analysis. We use the Ward method, a method of cluster analysis, to determine the proper groups of the market. By maximum increased gap of total variance and the steep map, we choose six groups to be proper ones. The hotels allocated in each group represent highly similarities. These hotels have some common characteristics, and naming is the procedure to present these common characteristics. Naming of each group and their explanations are listed as followed:

Group 1: Type of Normal Volatility

This is the largest group. The effect of SARS disease and global financial crisis in 1997 are obvious. Since the effect of external events is consistent with prediction, we name it as "normal volatility type" to be the basic type to be compared with the other ones.

Group 2: Type of Smooth Responding



There is only a hotel, Sheraton Hotel, Taipei, in this group. The main difference between group 1 and group 2 is the responding speed. Group 2 presents “smooth” responding curve when it is compared with group 1.

Group 3: Type of Customer Transition

Hotels in this group are all old hotels. The curve pattern of Group 3 is very different with the one of Group 1. The explanation could be the transition of positioning and market segregation. Although they were tourist hotels in their early history, they turned to serve mainly domestic tourists in recent. Therefore, we regard customer transition as its major characteristics.

Group 4: Type of Highly Fluctuation

The major characteristic of this type is there are many turning points. Therefore, we naming it type of “highly fluctuation”. There is only a hotel in this group.

Group 5: Type of Reverse Fluctuation

The major characteristic of this type is the trend and shape of the curve is opposite with the group 1. The hotels in this group are all resorts, located in scenic area or non-urban area. In the period of SARS disease, the changing rate of RevPAR of this group members are even positive. Since the locations of resort are far away from urban area, people try to avoid living in the urban area to bring them customers and revenue.

Group 6: Type of Steady Fluctuation

Except the impact and recovery of external events and crisis, the curve of changing rate of RevPAR is pretty close to the X axis. That’s why the name “steady fluctuation” is given.

DISCUSSION OF CLASSIFICATION RESULTS

Group 1 and Group 5 are good targets of investment portfolio

Since group 1 (type of normal volatility) and group 5(type of reverse fluctuation) reveal opposite direction of cueve, they should be regarded as good combination of hotel investment from the viewpoint of minimize investment risk.

Group 2 is less risky than Group 5

Since RevPAR index is equal to occupancy rate multiply with ADR, highly fluctuation of changing rate of RevPAR is not good and should be avoided from the viewpoint of revenue management. That’s why Group2 (type of smooth responding) is less risky than group 5 (type of highly fluctuation).

The classification results of RevPAR index are different with traditional hotel types.

By observing the following grouping figures (fig.1- fig.6), readers may see the classification results of RevPAR index is different with traditional hotel types. Traditional hotel types include commercial hotel, convention hotel, motel, resort, etc.. That also means the classification results of RevPAR index can not be derived from intuition.

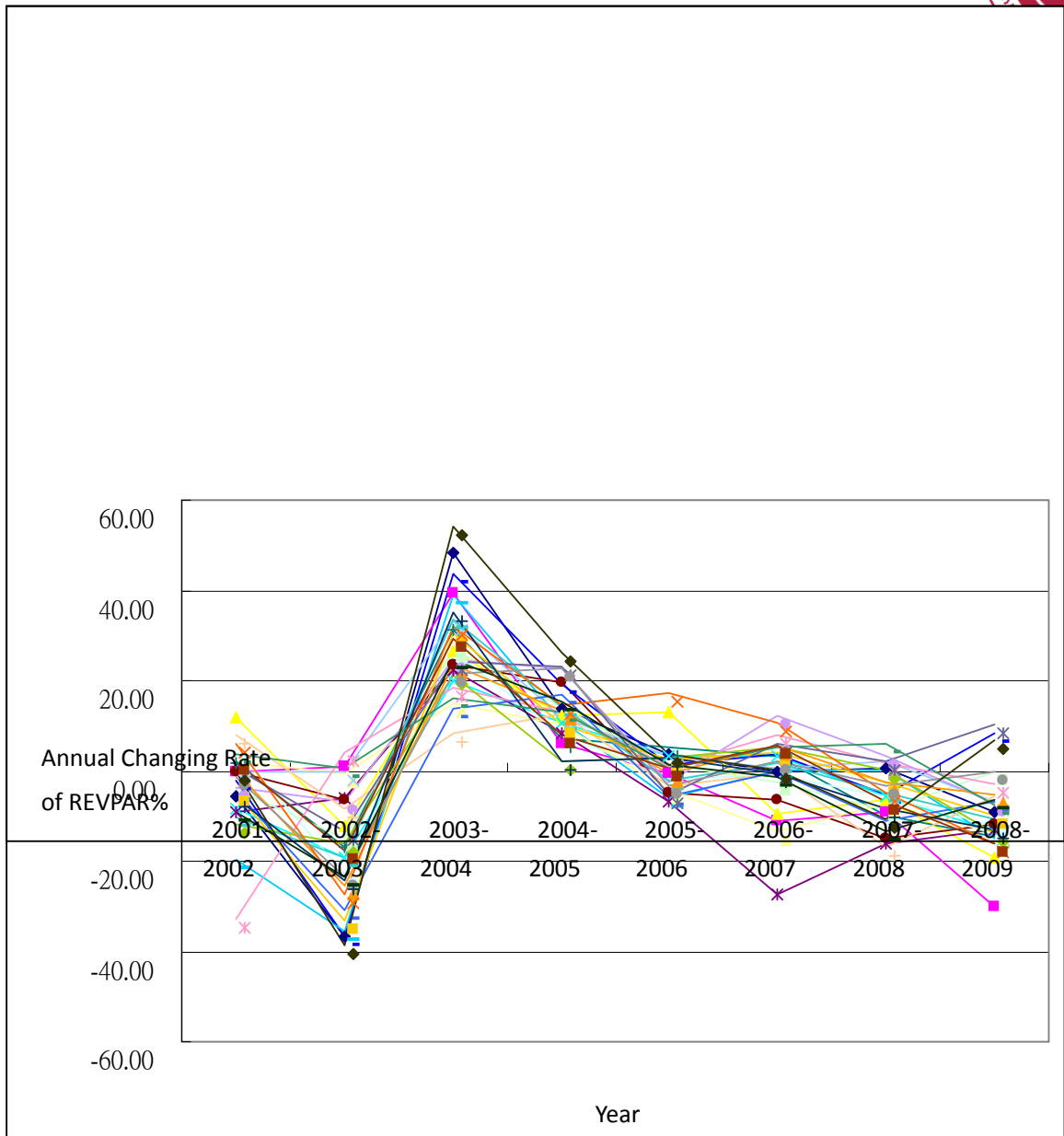


Fig.1 Group 1- Annual Changing Rate of RevPAR in the period of 2001-2009

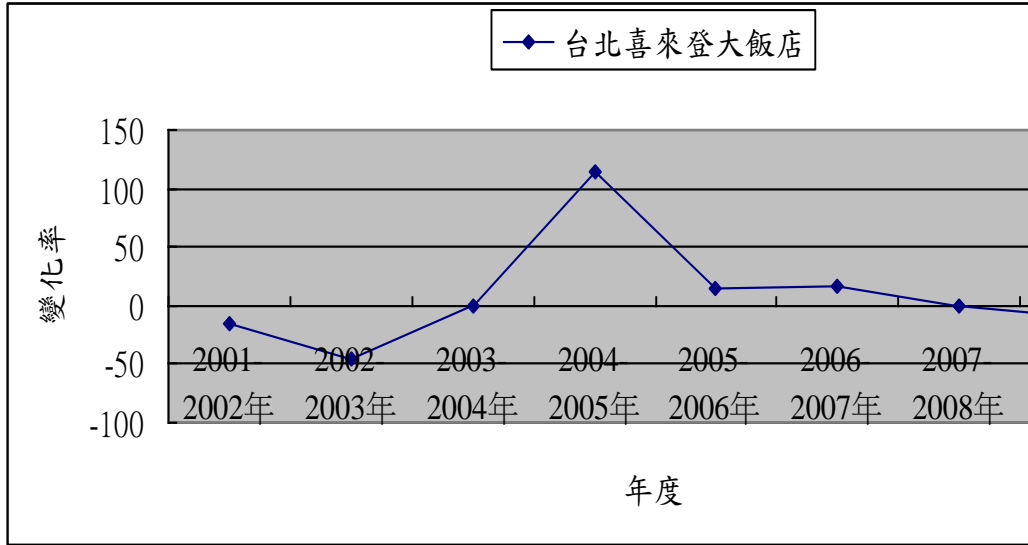


Fig. 2 Group 2- Annual Changing Rate of RevPAR in the period of 2001-2009

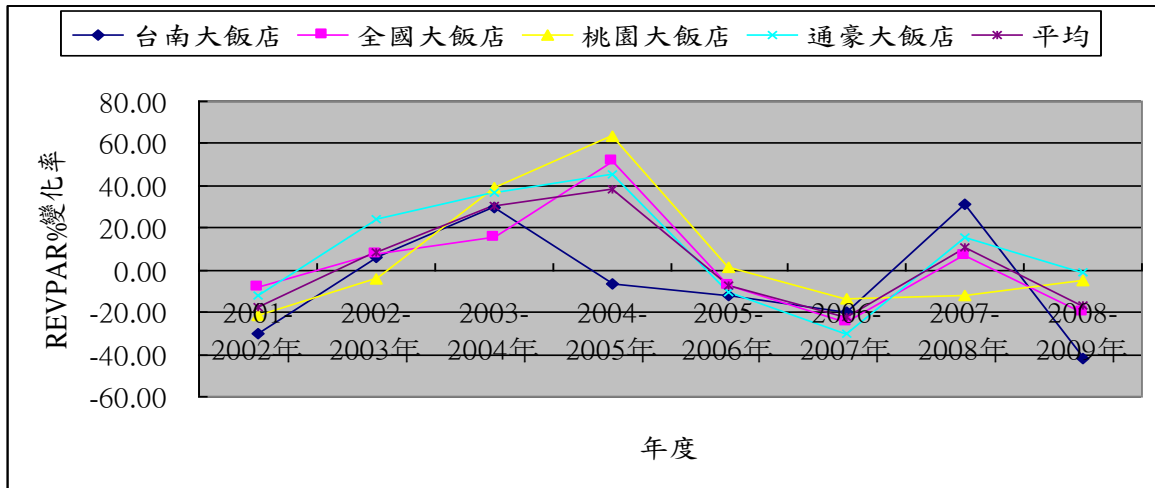


Fig.3 Group 3- Annual Changing Rate of RevPAR in the period of 2001-2009

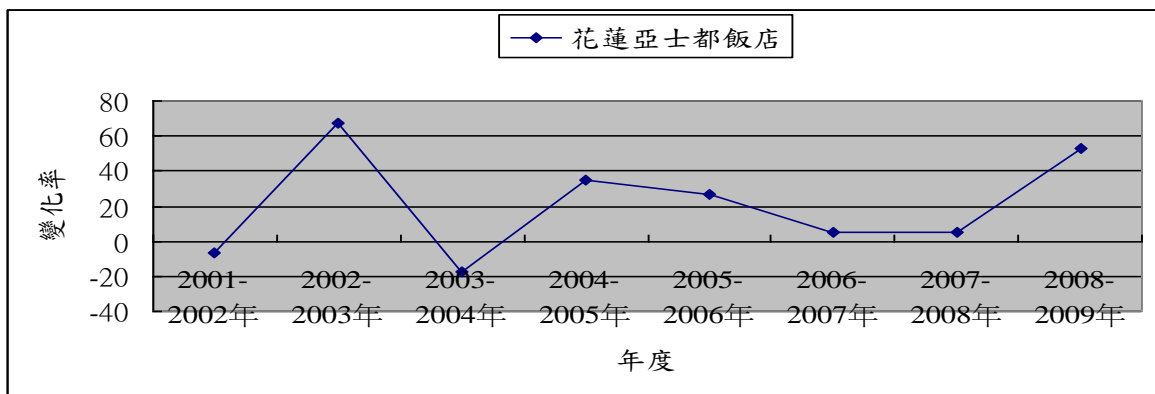


Fig.4 Group 4- Annual Changing Rate of RevPAR in the period of 2001-2009

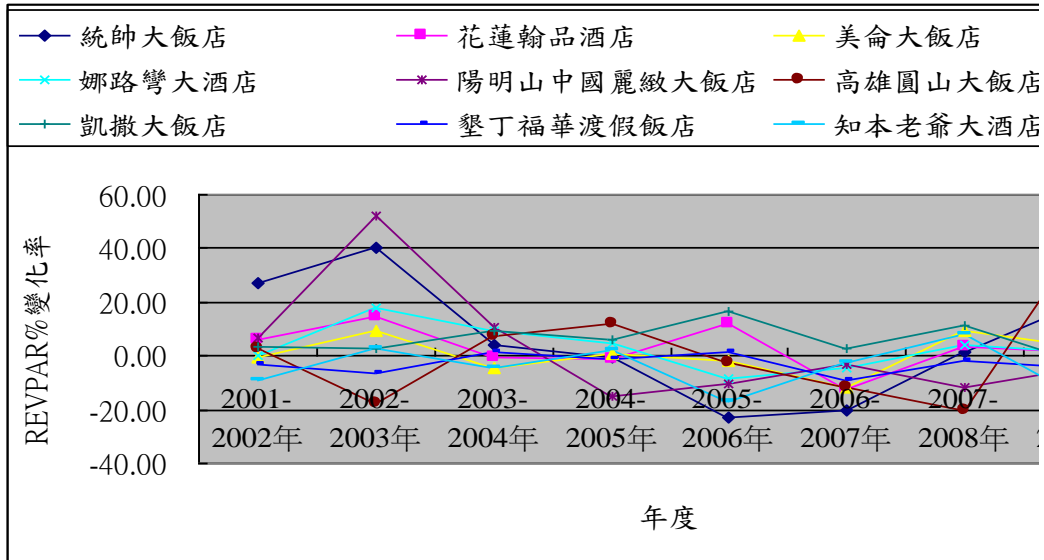


Fig. 5 Group 5- Annual Changing Rate of RevPAR in the period of 2001-2009

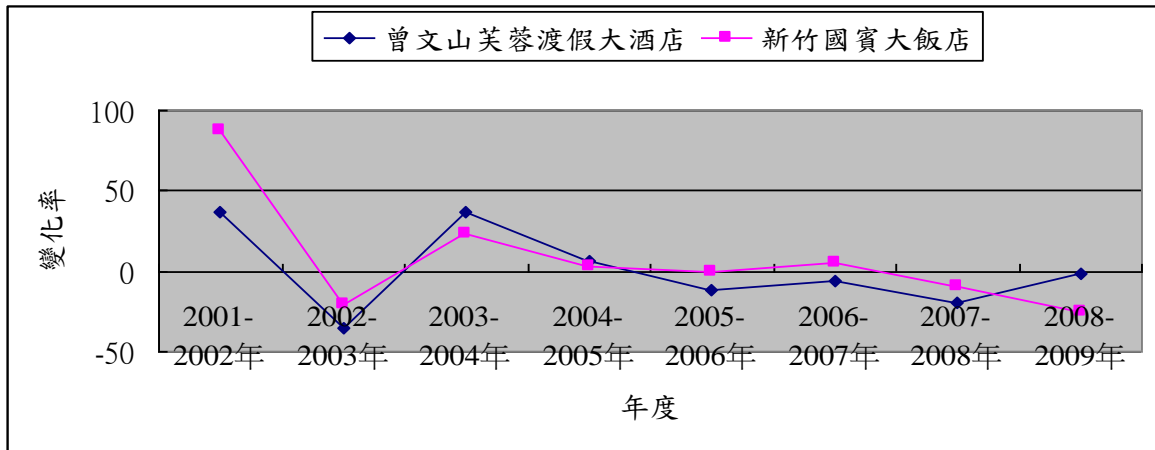


Fig. 6 Group 6- Annual Changing Rate of RevPAR in the period of 2001-2009

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INTERNATIONAL VOLUNTEER TOURISM: THE MORAL EXPERIENCE OF TAIWANESE TOURISTS

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ABSTRACT

In recent years international volunteer tourism has been rising and turning into an important niche market. This paper applies the empathy and moral development theory to understand the change of moral attitude and behavior of Taiwanese international volunteer tourists. Qualitative research methods such as interviews, participation and observation are adopted. This study found that the empathic emotion can encourage those Taiwanese volunteer tourists to help communities which they may just meet for once in their whole life time. Moreover, interactions among the volunteer tourists facilitate and reinforce the change of attitude and behaviors.

Key Words: International volunteer tourism; Empathy; Travel experience; Moral behaviors

INTRODUCTION

Nongovernment organizations (NGOs) developed the international volunteer tourism is now the fastest growing niche tourism market worldwide (Lyons and Wearing, 2008). Volunteer tourism mainly originated from Europe, after the government of United States and Australia encouraged their citizens to participate the mission trips about helping the communities of developing countries. Recent years, the phenomenon is growing rapidly to Asian and African as well (Wearing & McGehee 2013). In accordance with the report of United Nations Volunteers (UNV 2015) that more than 1 billion volunteers work globally, the member of the UNV work both in their own country and overseas. The research is now estimated 3.3 million



volunteer tourists to attend the service camp annually (Mostafanezhad 2014). The majority of volunteer tourists are working on the issues of women, youths, poverty groups and environmental protection. .

Volunteer tourism has been described as a moral tourism; it applies to “those tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment” (Wearing, 2001: p1). Volunteering abroad should be the best way to experience different cultures as parts of communities. Moreover, the volunteers are able to offer their time, money and efforts contributing to the projects of social and natural environments. The volunteers gain the benefits of social understanding, knowledge and skills, on the other hand, the hosts improve their living conditions and financial support. However, volunteer tourism also produces negative impacts. For example, volunteer tourism today is emphasized on making differences to the world, but the host is often forced to satisfy the tourists’ desires. It is sometimes deemed as a post-colonial societies or neo-colonialism. In addition, the volunteer tourists provide free labor that might reduce the job opportunities of locals. Then, the volunteers may be lack of ability to perform jobs, which may cause the problem for locals. (Wearing 2001; Butcher 2011; Guttentag 2011).Many studies consider the Volunteer tourism as a western perspective, and only few Asian volunteers are noticed. From the different social background, what they have learned from the moral experience, and its effects on life.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study aims to explore moral experience for Taiwanese tourists to volunteer overseas and to examine the experience which might have a significant impact on their moral behaviors during the trip and after returned home. To achieve this aim, it will analyze the volunteer tourism experience by using the empathy and moral development theory to examine empathic emotions which can encourage the volunteer tourists to help communities which they might just meet for one time in their whole life time. Qualitative research methods can understand the experience and impact of volunteer tourists in-depth. Due to the author had two years volunteering experience in Sao Tome and Principe and participated in a 7-day (2015/10/31-2015/11/6) international volunteer work camp in Cambodia held by Vision Youth Action Foundation. All the respondents of this research through referrals made among volunteer tourists who know each other has participated in organizing long term or short-term international volunteer activities in a developing country. (Lofland & Lofland 1984:25; Biernacki & Waldorf 1981). Furthermore, 47 interviews were conducted face to face lasting between 47 and 103 minutes. The data collection were recorded and transcribed for analysis.



DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Even though people think for their own at first, they may help others in some other ways. In other words, people caring for others and humans must have genes about helping, while we feel empathy for others in need (Hoffman 2000). The theoretical framework for the empathy and moral development, which volunteering abroad mainly visits the communities where need help. In the site, volunteer tourists are more appropriate to feel others' condition during the service activities. When those volunteer tourists observe the locals are in such difficult environment, they may feel unfair, guilt, or sympathy for someone. The certain match of empathic arousal, therefore, volunteers try to help by doing something good for them.

Most comments were found in examples such as before the trip: most of the participants would like to combine travelling abroad and experience something different by participating in volunteer tour programs (Sin 2009). During the trip, the participants perceived the actual condition of communities and also the team members encourage each other to do good things together. They become more generous or compassionate on acting moral behaviors (Pan 2012). For example, they are willing to pay higher price to purchase the local products made by social enterprises, money donation to NGOs for sustainable support, or having strong responsibilities for the local communities where they service. Furthermore, after the trip, many of them continue to attend the volunteer trip, to share the updated news of the host organization and host community on the web-site, or to raise money and goods as charity giving. As a result, empathy-affected responses reflect one's own moral emotion, motivation, and behavior (Hoffman 2000). This research is found im that in volunteer tourists that are capable of caring when we feel empathy for others in need.

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THE IMPACT OF HOTEL TECHNOLOGY INNOVATION ON CUSTOMERS’ HOTEL SELECTION

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ABSTRACT

Concerning the technology innovation, the hospitality industry has embraced technology as a key component to maintain a long term competitive advantage and to meet their customer’s expectations. For the hospitality industry, technology innovation can be realized through multiple ways, including software updates and hardware improvement. However, there is limited research about if and how technology innovation impacts customers. The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationship between technology innovation and customers’ selections within the hospitality industry. Do technology innovation facilities impact customers’ hotel selections? If so, how do they impact customers? Based on those questions, the surveys and researches focus on customer perspectives. They want to verify if there is a correlation between technology innovation and customers. The analysis is based on survey data from a web-based questionnaire with 316 respondents from China, specifically from the two cities of Beijing and Sanya. The study’s findings indicate that high-tech facilities do impact customers’ hotel selections, specifically regarding the hotel category. Moreover, theoretical and managerial implications of these findings as well as future research directions were made.

Key Words: technology innovation, hospitality services, customer behavior, hotel high-tech facilities, Chinese hotel industry, price

INTRODUCTION

A constantly changing economic environment and the rapid advances in technologies such as ICTs, are acknowledging innovation as an important determinant of competitiveness (OECD.org, 2007). Undoubtedly the capability to innovate affects the whole society not only a primary industry and the tourism and hospitality industry benefit from the advantage of using innovation implementing technological advances, to become competitive (Magnini Honeycutt, and Hodge, 2003; Chin, 2015). Theoretically, in hotels the sale of room’s accommodation is the main contributor to overall hotel revenue (Wood, 2013). However,



successful innovation has to meet the internal attention of the hotel management that is necessary for meeting consumer demands (Chakrabarti, 1974). Therefore, nowadays hoteliers are exploring their efforts towards tactics to successfully optimize revenue through the use of technology innovation and devices in a hotel competitive environment (Ask, 2011). The key technology innovation (also called TI) is about an organization using the latest technology to improve organizational efficiency to approach a competitive alignment with technology initiatives and business goals (Searchcio.techtarget.com, 2015). Furthermore, due to economic downturn hoteliers are studying the drivers of change (Tajeddini, and Trueman, 2008), and are spending more time making long-term technology decisions because technology is part of the customer's lifestyle and integral to everyday lives. Hotels are considering significant technology innovation to provide customer quality of amenities and memorable service that cater to their needs and preferences (Hughes Network Systems, 2015). Empirically, customer expectation in the past it was looking for accommodation at a reasonable price in a clean room. Today, hotel customers are looking forward more convenient and smarter living experience, while the room rate is not the only key factor for guests to select hotel any more (Hughes Network Systems, 2015). Moreover, customers travel equipped with laptops, iPads and smart phones and expecting to leverage the hotel room infrastructure to 'plug in' (Chin, 2015; Netgear, 2015). In addition, according to a Forrester Research report of the most important hotel technological amenities, Wi-Fi stands with 90% as the top option, and 94% business travelers claim that Wi-Fi access is a key factor when choosing a hotel in order to keep touch with people instantly (Hotels.com, 2014; Netgear.com, 2015).

Technology is a key to managing customer expectations however, the feasibility of hotel technology innovation in different regions is rarely discussed. A number of studies have examined innovation as a product, processes, and factors (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 2003; Morrison, Roberts, and Von Hippel, 2000) or consequences both positive and negative deployed through an innovation knowledge structure (Simpson, Sigauw, and Enz, 2006). However, despite the numerous studies, there is still limited theory and knowledge in relation to insight on customer behavior between innovativeness in the hospitality industry (Orfila-Sintes and Mattsson, 2009; Tajeddini, 2010). Additionally, the service industry is different from secondary industry like manufacturing (Ottenbacher and Gnoth, 2005). Ottenbacher (2007) defines more research is supposed to point to the hospitality industry on innovation development to expand views about the level of technology innovation associated with



customer's selection. In addition, there is relatively little knowledge whether a hotel should invest in technology innovation today (Pardo, Copper, Steiner and Claster, 2013). This includes: when or what are supposed to do in term of hotel technology innovation from the customer's consumption behavior perspective, whether hotel technology innovation meets every customer's expectation. To answer these questions this paper indicates the relationships between technology innovation and customer intention to book a hotel based on technological facilities provided.

In short, this research fills a gap in the literature by examining the relationship between technology innovation and customers' selection and how technology innovation may influence customers on their hotel selecting intentions. Firstly, it explores the literature to rationalize the key determinants of technology innovation and which factors would influence customers' selections in the hospitality industry. Secondly, to examine how hotel innovation technology has an effect on different customers in various types of hotels. Thirdly, it reviews the statistical analysis and interpretation of research findings and finally, it discusses the implications of these findings as well as future research directions were made.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Innovation

Innovation is considered to drive productivity growth and improves levels of performance versus competitors (Porter and Ketels, 2003). Defining innovation can be a new marketing method, a new product and service, an updated business strategy, and an advanced process to improve product performance or function (Tiwari, 2008). The term 'innovation' originates from the Latin 'innovatio', the creation of something new (Weiermair, 2004). The traditional definition comes from the leading theoretician of innovation and economist, Joseph Schumpeter. For Schumpeter, the innovation concept incorporates new products, new markets, new raw material, new production strategy, and business organization (Decelle, 2006). Today, innovation involves a creation of values directly linked to the main stakeholders of an organization. According to Siguaw and Enz (1999), companies that focused on using innovation to improve internal operations efficiency, will have an indirect effect on customer satisfaction.

Technology Innovation

Overall, there is little research on technology innovation. Hence, there is no clear theoretical



definition of technology innovation. The emphasis on innovation is based on processes to improve existing structure, strategy and products. On the other hand, the term technology is wide ranging therefore, making it complex to understand. Mainly, we describe technology as a chain of comprehensive knowledge to make tools and create procedures thus, extending the organizational abilities to create new products and services (Ramey, 2013). According to the 1991 OECD report, technological innovation captures two distinctions (1) the ‘innovation’, and (2) the innovation process (Garcia and Calantone, 2002). This definition addresses innovation as a process, which comprises the new technological invention and the expansion to the new users through adoption of the innovation process.

Technology Innovation in Hospitality

The market characteristics of the hospitality and tourism industry promote the innovation process. However, there is limited research in the hospitality and tourism sector, and more specifically on technology innovation. The tourism product is linked to several elements that create this combination of characteristics (Weiermair, 2006). Due to the constant change of the competitive market environment the hospitality and tourism product is not just the production of goods or services. The latest technologies in hospitality include not tangible, also intangible element like service. The technology innovation development in hospitality involve wide fields: spread utilization of computerized reservation process, multi-connection of distribution channels, internet-using demand, and development of inner hotel computerized systems to improve hotel security and room comfort (Bowie and Buttle, 2004). The service innovation contains new service function to attract new customers and updated service to impress existing customers (Ottenbacher and Gnoth, 2005). Therefore, improved services promoting customers’ staying experience providing free Wi-Fi, mobile check-in, switch room key or mobile phone instead of keycard, or add new facilities such as in room touch screens, and in room iPad tablet. Hence, hotels welcome different categories of customers with various technology demands.

Customer Behavior

Due to aggressive competition, the hotel marketplace becomes more intense and competitive under the trend of globalization, as a result, the companies fighting for increasing their market share (Kotler, Bowen, and Makens, 2014). Therefore, hospitality companies that are understanding and managing customers expectations, and requirements, can obtain better satisfactions from their customers and compete effectively against competitors (Bowie and



Buttle, 2004). Customers' behavior is influenced by internal personality factors of each individual, which could not be controlled by organizations and external characteristics (Kotler, Bowen and Makens, 2014). For the hospitality industry, technology is at the forefront into practical operation however, hotels need to consider the customer acceptance of technology innovation and the relevant cost applicable to the implemented technology. If the customer would accept high-tech application in hotel, and, what kind of customers would pay for these high-tech innovation matters of hotels and restaurants. As a result, no matter how much hotels could reduce their labor cost by using technology innovation, if customer satisfaction were damaged, all the innovation process and maintenance cost are worthless (Dixon, Kimes, and Verma, 2009).

METHODOLOGY

The study has been conducted via a web-based survey questionnaire using the Survey Monkey software. The questionnaire was divided into three sections and was prepared both in English and Chinese languages, to provide convenience for participants and ensure the response rate. The questionnaire was pre-tested, using three industry executives because of their experience. They were to test the survey measurement scales and make sure that they were meaningful, congruent with the industry terminology, clear, and valid. Based on the results, the researcher modified the questions and the measurement items. The suggestions mainly referred to the terminology, and, some modifications were made to the instructions to participants, to ensure the participants that the responses were relevant to the respondents. The purpose of the pre-tested survey is to enable the researcher to try out the questionnaires so that respondents will have no problems when answering the questions (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2009). This provides an indication of the validity of a questionnaire. The questionnaire of this survey included fifteen questions; two of fifteen are open questions and the others are choice questions. The first part of the questionnaire illustrated demographic characteristics of the respondents regarding gender, age, education level, and monthly income. The second part was to measure customers' hotel staying experience, and the third part was to measure the available technological innovation. The study adopted a mixture of open-ended questions and closed questions. A combination of yes/no questions, multi-category answer format, and developed scales of Likert-type scale, to indicate the degree of agreement of the participants, using accepted best practices (Churchill, 1979; Malhotra and Grover, 1998; O'Leary-Kelly and Vokurka, 1998). All items at the developed scales are measured with a 5 –



point Likert-type scale, on a 5-point Likert scale anchored by 1 for “Strongly disagree”, 2 for “Disagree”, 3 for “Neither agree nor disagree”, 4 for “Agree” and 5 for “Strongly agree”, to examine customers satisfaction and investigate the factors would impact customers’ selections’ when they book a hotel. The SPSS statistical tool is utilized to analyse the data collected and examine the theoretical framework proposed in this research. Descriptive statistics included the mean of different factors impact customers’ selection, and customers’ purchasing intentions. The study used a Chi-Square test and Wilcoxon Test, to examine the proposed research objective. The correlation analysis determines the correlation between hotel high-tech innovative facilities utilization between multi factors like demographic characters and hotel price.

RESULTS

The total number of respondents was 316 and the demographic data indicated that the majority of participants 57 per cent were female (male=136; female=180). The majority of the respondents 75 per cent were between the age of 21 and 30. For education, almost 61 per cent have a university degree. Further, more than 39 per cent of the respondents work in business and service industry. The majority of data have been obtained from respondents 70 per cent looking for leisure trip, with a minimum stay of more than three days (37.7 per cent). In terms of accommodation, almost 60 per cent would like to stay in budget or three star hotels.

The result shows that all the mean of different factors are between 1.50 to 2.40. In the study analysis, service quality, hotel location, and the room rate is three major factors for customers to select hotels. Especially, the service quality factor provided a median of 1.0, and mean of 1.59 (M=1.59), it means during all the rating of this factors, score one (strongly agree) occupies more than half of them. Most customers treat service quality as number one consideration of their purchasing intentions. However, high-tech facilities factor is the bottom factor in term of customers’ considerations of respondents with a mean of 2.01 (M=2.01). This demonstrates that high-tech facilities not really matter to customers’ selections.

Moreover, the study has measured the relation between high-tech facilities and customers’ selections. The study is comparing hotels without high-tech facilities and customer satisfaction versus hotels that offer high-tech facilities; and if customers would stay in the same hotel when the hotels equip without any high-tech facilities. The results indicate that the majority of respondents 75 per cent keep a positive opinion and agree that hotels offering high-tech facilities would improve their accommodation experience.



CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to examine the influence on customer hotel selection, created by the existence of technology innovation facilities. How the utilization of high-tech facilities affects customers' selections as a reference factor. The conceptual framework proposed three different aspects that influence customers' perception to select a hotel. These included technology innovation facilities and customer purchasing intentions, customer satisfaction and existing high-tech facilities, and technological aspects fixed and added based on customers' willingness. This study contributed to fill views in a practical application of the relation of customer behaviour between innovativeness in the hospitality industry.

First, this study verified the customer perspectives that technology innovation facilities influence their hotel selection. Derived from the discussed theory, this study finds that there are some correlations between technology innovation utilizations and customers' hotel selections. Moreover, some demographic characteristics impact customers' selection as a reference factor. Second, the findings indicated that there is not a direct correlation between the relationship of technology innovation facilities and hotel price. Third, this study analysis provided more details for the customer's attitude on high-tech facilities that mainly remain neutral to agree.

Inevitably, this study suffers from certain limitations that need to be accessed. The first one is related to the definition as there is no specific definition of technology innovation facilities, especially for the hospitality industry, and there is no definition to define what kind of hotel facilities can be called high-tech facilities. Second, the sample size is relatively small as it was difficult to obtain permission. The study was held in only two-budget hotel, two three stars, one four and one five star hotels. A larger sample size in future study will be better for a more robust analysis. Another limitation is that the study held in two cities in China with a different character. The existing high-tech facilities cannot represent general technology innovation facilities in hotels globally. Despite the limitations, these study findings can be used as an extension for further research, to include other hotel categories. Therefore, whether it is subject specific or common across the hotel industry needs further identification.

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ANALYZING CUSTOMER ONLINE SEARCH QUERIES: A SEMANTIC APPROACH IN SPONSORED SEARCH ADVERTISING

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ABSTRACT

Sponsored search advertising is considered a predominant online advertising approach in the marketplace. Particularly, there is a tremendous amount of hospitality companies (e.g. hotels and online aggregators) employing sponsored search as a part of their online advertising campaigns. The popularity of this approach is mostly driven by a unique mechanism wherein search engines play an important role in connecting companies to their potential interested customers. In this study, we employ a semantic approach to examine the relationships between hospitality related advertisers and customers to provide companies with insights in better understanding customer online search phrases and improving their keywords campaigns.

Key Words: Sponsored Search Advertising, Sponsored Ads, Customer Click-through, Hospitality Industry, Semantic Approach, Keyword Selection

INTRODUCTION

Sponsored search advertising, also called paid search, is one of the leading online advertising approaches in the contemporary marketplace and has been widely adopted by a tremendous amount of advertisers. It is usually undertaken by advertisers paying certain amount of money to search engines for ads to be displayed in the search results webpage. According to a report from Statista, in 2015, the total amount of spending on paid search advertising worldwide is expected to reach \$ 54.9 billion US dollars. It is the unique mechanism provided by search engines makes sponsored search advertising so intriguing to advertisers, whereby search engines act as intermediaries between advertisers and customers. On one side, search engines remove information asymmetry and are viewed as one of the most prevalent information sources by customers (Liaw and Huang 2003). On the other side, by directly



responding to customers' search queries, search engines could connect advertisers with potential targeted customer segments in the marketplace.

To successfully operate paid search campaigns, an average advertiser will have to consider two major issues. One is to effectively plan for the bidding schemes for participations in a so-called "generalized second-price" auction process, through which advertiser's paid ads will be assigned to the search results webpage and ads ranking positions will be determined by the search engines. A number of analytical studies have been developed to examine the auction mechanism behind the sponsored search advertising (Edelman, Ostrovsky and Schwarz 2007; Varian 2007; Athey and Ellison 2011). Another important issue is to select appropriate keyword sets. Doing so could help advertisers accomplish several goals. First of all, it could assist advertisers to reach out to advertisers' potential customer segments and attract consumers to visit advertisers' websites (Rutz and Trusov 2011). Second, it could help advertisers deter competitors, which are co-existed in the sponsored search environment (Desai, Staelin and Shin 2014). Finally, it could facilitate the occurrence of transactions within advertisers' websites (Ghose and Yang 2009).

Generally, advertisers create keyword sets by extracting potential words or short phrases from a variety of social media websites, such as product reviews or personal blogs. Under the rapid development of text-mining techniques, the number of potential keywords that can be mined by advertisers is increasing dramatically. In reality, a single advertiser could manage as much as hundreds of keywords on a daily basis. However, due to the budget constraints, researchers have found that many advertisers invest most of budgets on a much smaller portion of keywords (Rutz and Trusov 2011). Therefore, identifying the "right" keywords becomes a challenging task for advertisers to achieve.

Customers, on the other end, need to type a series of text string in the search box to initiate their search process on the Internet. The text strings, which also define as "search queries", reveal unobservable customer's online search intentions, therefore are considered as an important piece of information while advertisers estimate its sponsored ads click-through rate. Moreover, better understanding customer search queries could also help advertisers improve their keyword portfolios to attract more customer visits at advertisers' websites through customer's click-through.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The existing sponsored search advertising literature includes studies from two mainstreams. In the empirical literature, there are a number of studies developed to explore the impact of



paid ads placement on consumer click-through rate and conversion rate. Ghose and Yang (2009) built a set of simultaneous equations using aggregate-level data to examine this issue. They found that click-through rate and conversion rate are both negatively associated with ads rankings. These empirical findings are consistent with the results in Rutz et al. (2012), where the authors proposed a latent instrumental variable approach and controlled for the position endogeneity issue in sponsored search advertising domain. Ghose et al. (2012) designed a ranking system within a major travel aggregator and recommended that products with higher utility should be placed at more prominent locations. On the other hand, using a field experiment approach, Agarwal et al. (2011) suggested that conversion rate increases as ads position goes down the search engine results webpage. Jerath et al. (2011) raised a “position paradox” issue, in which the authors pointed out that superior firms can also experience more clicks even without being assigned at higher locations (closer to the top of the screen). Although there is not a uniformed conclusion with respect to the relationships between these three factors, the empirical insights generated from the previous literature have highlighted ads placement, click-through rates and conversion rates to be the three key elements for evaluating advertiser’s sponsored search advertising performance. In addition, there is another group of empirical literature taken into consideration the impact generated from consumers. Rutz and Trusov (2011) considered consumer diverse preferences and built a two-stage consumer-level model to estimate conversion rates. Ghose et al. (2014) conducted several studies in an online aggregator’s ranking system and they found that the mechanism based upon consumer-utility can significantly increase the overall aggregator’s revenue. Both studies have spotlighted the importance of considering customer preferences in analyzing sponsored search advertising performance.

In the analytical literature, a majority of research has been focused on studying the position-based auction (Aggarwal et al. 2006; Katona and Sarvary 2010; Chen and He 2011; Athey and Ellison 2011), the bidding mechanism and equilibrium (Varian 2007; Edelman et al. 2007), and price competition (Xu et al. 2011) in the context of sponsored search engine advertising. There is also a field of emerging literature bridging between empirical and analytical which is exemplified by Song and Mela (2011). In their study, the authors built two-sided dynamic model to explore the interactions between various agents to analyze the impact of keyword markets on consumer welfare and firm profits.

Despite the rapid growth in the literature, the number of research focusing on analyzing the impact of customer online search queries on customer click-through rate and its further influence on keyword selection strategies in sponsored search advertising is quite limited. Ghose and Yang (2009) examined click-through rates on two types of keywords classified based upon keyword content. They suggested that “retailer-specific” keywords experience



better click-through rate than manufacturer “brand-specific” keywords. Rutz and Bucklin (2011) discovered an asymmetric spillover effect between generic and branded keywords. Jerath, Ma and Park (2014) explored the issue of “keyword popularity”. They found that consumers searched for more popular keyword tend to click from the organic results, whereas less popular keywords leads to more clicks in paid ads section and are closer to purchases. Desai, Staelin and Shin (2014) built an analytical model to explain the potential reasons for a company buying its competitor’s brand names as keywords.

In this study, we specifically look into the examination between customers’ online search queries and the associated click-through behaviors in the area of paid search advertising. We focus on addressing the research question: will a customer’s online search query influence his/ or her click behavior? If so, how? Our study is different from literature in three aspects: First, our examinations are conducted using disaggregate query-level data, which to some extent remove the systematical biases generated from estimations using aggregate-level data (Abhishek et al. 2012). Second, keeping the traditional way of word classification (e.g. branded vs. generic), we look into the language literature and classified customers’ online search queries into multiple categories (e.g. product-specific, location-specific, price-specific, star-specific). Finally, given the good merit of the dataset we collected, we are able to compare the situation through a variety of advertisers including online travel aggregators and hotel chains, which expand our scope by allowing us to make generalization to the hospitality industry.

METHOD & DATA

We collect a unique dataset with disaggregate query-level paid ads advertising data from one of China’s leading search engines. The dataset includes one-day advertiser keyword impressions and customer clickstream information that are generated from the hospitality industry and was collected in January 2012. It contains 1,440,660 impressions across 62,253 distinct keywords from 1,150 advertisers. Of all the advertisers, 434 are hotel websites and 716 are online travel aggregators. Of all the impressions, 183,654 clicks were generated, which leads to 12.75% aggregate-level click-through rate and 14.53% advertiser-level click-through rate. All displayed paid ads are located on the left side of the screen. Each ad is assigned to a slot numbered from one to ten with locations ranging from the topmost to the lower-middle of the screen.

We employ a two-stage simultaneous model to examine the relationships between customer search query characteristics and their follow-up click behaviors. In the first stage, we model the search engine’s ranking decision on advertiser j ’s sponsored ads using an ordered logit



model format. Conditional on advertiser j 's ads location, we then model the customer's click-through behaviors. Customer's search queries are classified into five categories including "location-specific" (e.g. hotel near Newark airport), "brand-specific" (e.g. Hilton Hotels), "price specific" (e.g. cheap hotel or hotel under \$100 per night), "star-specific" (e.g. "5-star hotel"), and "amenity-specific" (e.g. hotel with free wifi) – all of which are coded as dummy variables and are included in the customer's click-through model segment. Finally, we construct the simultaneous equation by multiplying these two segments and we use maximum likelihood estimation methodology to compute the parameter estimates included in the model.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

We present some of the preliminary empirical findings in this section. First of all, we find that the estimate of customer's "brand-specific" query is negatively associated with the click-through rate ($-0.106, p < 0.001$), indicating that the click-through rate of an ad is lower for customers who specified brand information in their queries, than it is for customers who entered generic information in their search terms. This finding tells us that when customers typed brand information, there might already be some sort of alternatives in their mind that they would prefer to choose from.

For instance, when a customer searched for "Hilton Hotel", s/he might have already been thinking about this specific option and will have higher tendency to click on Hilton hotel's sponsored ads rather than any other options, as the results shown in our model. Whereas, when a customer searched for "Guangzhou Hotel", his or her search intention might be to gather as much information as possible before narrowing down his/or her search terms or to make a booking decision, therefore, the corresponding click behavior might be that s/he will probably click on ads that could help him/or her collect enough information in this regard.

Next, we find that the more specific customer's query is, the lower click-through rates there might be. Our empirical results show that when customer's query involves combined information, such as "brand-specific" and "location-specific", the click-through rates based upon this kind of search queries are generally lower than the situation where there is only one type (e.g. "location-specific" only) included in the search queries.

Finally, we find that the coefficients related to online travel aggregators generated from click model and rank model are positive and significant, indicating that, on average, paid ads belong to online travel aggregators receive higher click-through rate, as well as more prominent rankings.



CONCLUSION

In this study, we take into account the characteristics drawn from customer's diverse search queries and analyze how different types of customer search queries would affect customer's corresponding click-through behaviors while conducting online search. Using a semantic approach, we classify customer queries into five categories "brand-specific", "location-specific", "price-specific", "amenity-specific" and "star-specific" and employ a two-stage simultaneous equation system to estimate customer's click-through rates. Our preliminary findings have shown that customers with different types of search queries perform differently in terms of their click-through behaviors. From advertiser's standpoint, understanding customer search query characters are important, because it could help them strengthen their keyword portfolios to attract more customers into their websites and facilitate transactions through sponsored search advertising channel. Moreover, understanding customer search queries would help advertisers create certain type of keyword niches whereby they could avoid confronting other competitors through bidding on the most popular keyword names – in other words, advertisers could use this part of the information to make more cost effective keyword plans in order to be successful in the competitive online advertising environment.

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**EVALUATION OF THE ACCESSIBLE DESTINATIONS' DMO WEBSITES:
A CONTENT ANALYSIS ON DMO WEBSITES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION
EDEN 2013 PROJECT DESTINATIONS**

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ABSTRACT

Destination marketing organizations' (DMOs) websites play crucial role on giving specific information to potential tourists who have some disadvantages in travelling. In this study, website features of nineteen destinations, which were nominated to the European Union EDEN 2013 Project, themed: 'Accessible Tourism Destinations', were evaluated by using content analysis. Results indicated that 64% of the websites have '*Content*'; 33% '*Interactivity*'; and 13% '*Promotional Value*' features. In all dimensions, Guara have the most functional website with the total score of 20 out of 24, followed by Tiroler Oberland. Findings highlighted the importance of multi-dimensional website design for accessible destinations.

Key Words: accessible tourism, EDEN, the European Union, destination, website, DMOs

INTRODUCTION

Starting from 1990s, problems occurred by mass tourism in many of the popular destinations were attempted to be tolerated by the introduction of alternative tourism types and proposal of new perspectives for tourism and travel industry. By this way, social, environmental and



economic benefits of tourism and travel industry were aimed to be continued by operating more eco-friendly, controlled, and planned tourism activities. With these purpose, many of the destination marketing organizations (DMOs) and international organizations began to introduce and promote new tourism types such as eco-tourism, cultural tourism, volunteer tourism, rural tourism, etc. The main principle of many of those tourism types is adapting sustainable tourism approach which targets to achieve an industry development without destroying the social, environmental and economic resources. One of the recent tourism approaches is “accessible tourism” that aims to enable the people who have some disadvantages for participating tourism and travel activities.

In this study, in the case of the European Union Commission’s ‘European Destinations of Excellence’ (EDEN) Project, accessible tourism approach was explained by its basic principles and a content analysis was conducted on nominee destinations’ official websites of the European Union EDEN 2013 Project, themed: ‘Accessible Tourism Destinations’. In the first section of the paper, accessible tourism approach is summarized. In the second section, EDEN Project is introduced and the nominees of 2013 competition were presented. After summarizing the role of DMO official websites on destination marketing, study method and results were given. The paper concluded by discussion of the findings and recommendations for the future research.

ACCESSIBLE TOURISM APPROACH

The travel and tourism industry authorities should consider to all elements that contribute to create a positive visitor experience. In that case, accessibility should be one of the priorities that the destination authorities must be focused (Luiza, 2010). Accessible tourism was defined as “a form of tourism that involves collaborative process between stakeholders that enables people with access requirements, including mobility, vision, hearing and cognitive dimensions of access, to function independently and with equity and dignity through the delivery of universally designed tourism products, services and environments.” (Buhalis & Darcy, 2011, p.11; adapted from Darcy & Dickson, 2009, p.34). This definition is inclusive of all people including those travelling with children in prams, people with disabilities and seniors.

The first steps about accessible tourism were taken in Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948. According to declaration everybody has equal rights and freedoms without any distinction of any kind such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status (UN, 1948). In 1963, The First International Congress on Removal of Architectural Barriers was organized and the subjects about constructing buildings that is accessible for people with disabilities were discussed. 1981 was declared as Disables International Year. Approximately 10 years later after the congress two separated reports were prepared. The first of them is the United States’ report on



‘Creating Tourism Opportunities for Disable Persons in 90s’, and the second is the “Tourism for Everybody” report. 2003 was declared as ‘Disabled’s Year’ in Europe. In 2005, some proposals were submitted on the subjects of ‘Accessible Tourism for Everybody’ by the General Council of World Tourism Organization (WTO) and proposals were announced to all the members of organization (Tütüncü & Aydın, 2013, p. 262). The disabled market is substantial in terms of size as well as spending power. It has been estimated that over 750 million people worldwide and about 37 to 45 million people in Europe have some kind of disability. The ‘One-Stop Shop for Accessible Tourism in Europe’ (OSSATE) Project has estimated the number of people with accessibility requirements in Europe to almost 130 million, when including seniors because there is a strong and positive interrelation between ageing and disability. In addition to these conditions, people who responsible for someone (children, elder parents, pets, etc.) and individuals who have financial issues to travel need accessible tourism (Pühretmair & Buhalis, 2008).

EDEN PROJECT OF THE EUROPEAN UNION COMMISSION

EDEN was started in 2006 for promoting sustainable tourism development models in the European Union area. “The project is based on national competitions that take place every year and result in the selection of a tourist “destination of excellence” for each participating country. It enhances the visibility of emerging European destinations, creates a platform for sharing good practices across Europe and promotes networking between awarded destinations” (http://ec.europa.eu/en-terprise/sectors/tourism/eden/what-is-eden/index_en-htm). Selection of the destinations is based on the social, cultural and environmental sustainability commitments. Less-known European destinations from the member or candidate countries are promoted to apply for the award-winning selection process. In 2013 EDEN competition ‘accessible tourism’ was selected as the theme of excellence. “The following main aspects of accessibility have been especially taken into consideration for the award: the destination is barrier-free destinations (infrastructure and facilities); the destination is accessible by transport means suited for all users; the services provided are of high quality and delivered by trained staff; the activities, exhibits, attractions allow participation by everyone; the marketing, booking systems, websites and services provide information accessible to all. The call for proposals was launched by the Commission in March 2012. Participating countries have selected the winning destinations among the candidate destinations, and the winners were officially awarded in Brussels on 11 November 2013” (http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/tourism/eden/destinations-2013/index_en.htm) (Table1).

Table 1
Nominees of the European Union EDEN 2013 Project Theme:
‘Accessible Tourism Destinations’



<u>Tiroler Oberland - Kaunertal</u>	<u>Austria</u>
<u>Ottignies - Louvain-la-Neuve</u>	<u>Belgium</u>
<u>Stancija 1904 - Svetvinčenat</u>	<u>Croatia</u>
<u>Polis Chrysochous Municipality</u>	<u>Cyprus</u>
<u>Lipno</u>	<u>Czech Republic</u>
<u>Haapsaly city</u>	<u>Estonia</u>
<u>Morvan Regional Nature Park</u>	<u>France</u>
<u>Municipality of Marathon</u>	<u>Greece</u>
<u>Kaposvár and the Zselic area</u>	<u>Hungary</u>
<u>Cavan Town and Environs</u>	<u>Ireland</u>
<u>Pistoia and Province</u>	<u>Italy</u>
<u>Liepaja</u>	<u>Latvia</u>
<u>Telsiai</u>	<u>Lithuania</u>
<u>Horsterwold</u>	<u>The Netherlands</u>
<u>Przemysl</u>	<u>Poland</u>
<u>Jurilovca</u>	<u>Romania</u>
<u>Lasko</u>	<u>Slovenia</u>
<u>Natural Park of Guara's Mountains and Canyons</u>	<u>Spain</u>
<u>Tarakli District</u>	<u>Turkey</u>

THE ROLE OF DMO WEBSITE ON DESTINATION MARKETING

Under tough global competition conditions, tourism destinations seek to benefit from the functions of electronic commerce and internet platform for developing a coherent position in the market (Sussmann & Baker, 1996). With this purpose, DMOs which are the non-profit institutions targeting to generate tourist arrivals for a given area, began to develop websites with varying levels of sophistication (Gretzel *et al.*, 2006). Without any exception, whether they are in national, regional or local size, all DMOs principally focus on marketing a destination (Luna-Nevarez & Hyman, 2012). These organizations also attempt to maintain the provision of effective destination management, and to ensure that tourists are offered memorable experiences (Bornhorst, Ritchie, & Sheehan, 2010). The three key marketing strategies of the DMOs, identified by Cox and Wray (2011), are: (1) to promote the attractions and facilities of the destination, (2) to use the efficient distribution channels for reaching the potential and targeted visitors, and (3) to assess the overall price strategy. As Wang and Russo (2007, p.188) note “the key to successful destination marketing efforts, depends primarily upon the application and integration of provisions of destination information, communication mechanism, electronic commerce deployment, and relationship building”. Therefore, in the context of destination marketing, creating a website has become a necessity for DMOs (Li & Wang, 2010).

DMO websites both provide a competitive advantage for destinations and allow marketing communications between destination companies or authorities and potential tourists (Tang, Jang, & Morrison, 2012). However, number of studies in the tourism literature, which are attempting “to identify the features of destination websites that can effectively persuade and



encourage users” from the destination marketing perspective is limited (Lee & Gretzel, 2012). In previous studies, where the academics preferred to adapt or modify models or instruments, five methods were mostly used for the identification of the website features playing role on website evaluations, such as the: counting, user judgment, automated, numerical computation, and combined method (Law, Qi, & Buhalis, 2010). Among those, counting method is based on the presence of website features (Ip, Law, & Lee, 2011), and has two requirements. The first one is to have a checklist, obtained from the previous models, for verifying the existence of various website features, and the second one is to bring together a group of people for doing the counting in a laboratory (Law, Qi, & Buhalis, 2010). In this study, counting method is employed by the authors for the identification of the website features and evaluation of the sample DMO websites in terms of marketing of the accessible destinations.

METHOD

This study evaluates DMO websites of the nineteen destinations (see Table 1), participated in the European Union EDEN 2013 Project under the theme of ‘Accessible Tourism Destinations’, by a content analysis. Authors adapted Beldona and Cai’s (2006) model, which classifies the destination website features under three dimensions which are the ‘*Content*’, ‘*Interactivity*’ and ‘*Promotional Value*’. ‘*Content*’ consists of twelve vertical parameters which are the: accommodation, dining/wildlife, attractions, performing arts, transportation, shopping, sports/recreation, maps, press releases, events calendar, meeting facilities and tourist information, in addition to one horizontal parameter, which is the: presence or absence of any cooperative marketing efforts with other destinations via links or suggestions. ‘*Interactivity*’ has eight parameters which are the: media RFP, meeting planners RFP, online booking, online gifts, service evaluation, site membership, site search and trip planning tool. ‘*Promotional Value*’ is measured by three parameters, which are the: online offers, newsletters and e-cards.

Measurement was conducted in two phases. In the first phase, all of the features are counted for each of DMO websites. One score for each of the existing website features is given by the authors. Thus, the maximum score of the ‘*Content*’ was 13; ‘*Interactivity*’ was 8 and ‘*Promotional Value*’ was 3. In the second phase, total scores of the website features for each destination are compared to each other.

RESULTS

In this study, eighteen websites were examined, although, there were nineteen nominees of EDEN 2013 Project under the theme of ‘Accessible Tourism Destinations’, since the official website of ‘Municipality of Marathon’ in Greece is not in operation. Firstly, as shown in Figure 1, average scores of the three website dimensions out of maximum 23 were presented



for all destinations. Results show that ‘Content’ score was in average 7.66 out of maximum 13, ‘Interactivity’ score was 2.11 in average out of maximum 8, and ‘Promotional Value’ score was 1.11 out of maximum 3 points. Thus, ‘Interactivity’ was identified as the weakest dimension of the website effectiveness, in general. The averages of ‘Content’ and ‘Promotional Value’ dimensions were closer to maximum scores.

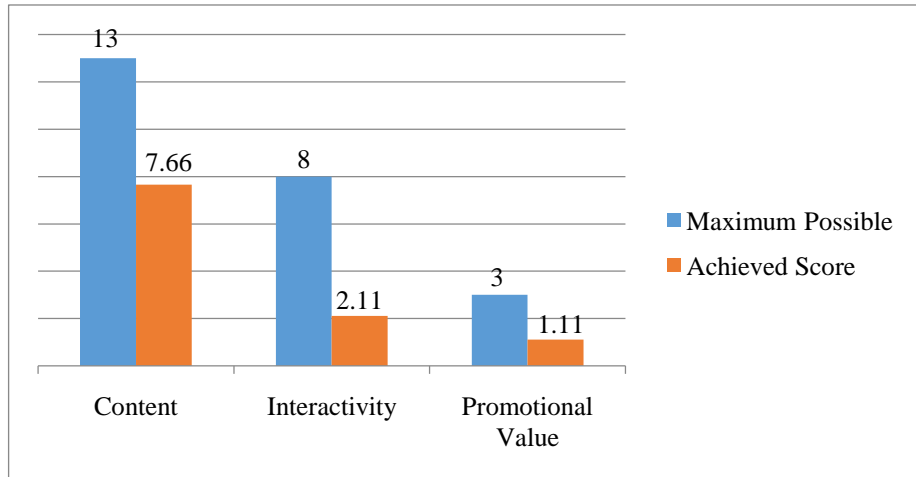


Figure 1
Effectiveness by Three Website Dimensions

Figure 2 shows the grand distributions of the website features for all destinations. Accordingly, ‘Content’ contains 54% of the website features in general, while ‘Interactivity’ occupies the 33%, and ‘Promotional Value’ occupies the 13%. Thus, destination websites mostly target to offer information and visual attractiveness to the potential tourists, but fail to offer promotional value. This results show similarity to Beldona and Cai’s (2006), where authors examined the rural destination websites and found the distribution as follows: ‘Content’ 64%; ‘Interactivity’ 19%; and ‘Promotional Value’ 17%. However, in the case of accessible destinations, share of the ‘Interactivity’ is considerably higher than rural destinations. This increase the effectiveness of the accessible websites as aimed to be, by enabling the people who are physically disabled or unable to reach specific information about the destinations. The more the official websites become interactive, the more information can be offered to the potential tourists.

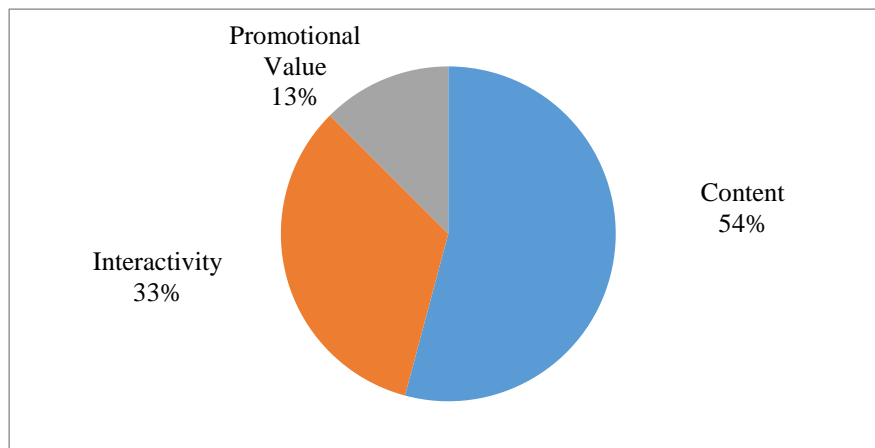




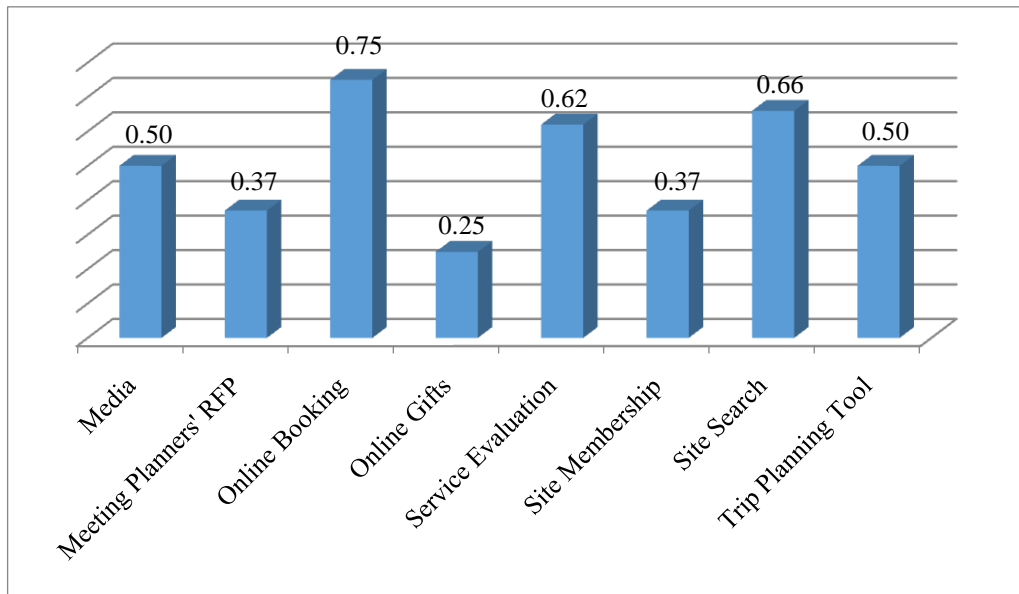
Figure 2

Grand Distribution of Three Website Dimensions

One of the most available features is identified as the “online booking” (0.75), which is followed by “site search” (0.66), and “service evaluation” (0.62) (Table 2). Thus, majority of the websites are offering online booking via their systems; make it easy to search inside the system; and give service evaluation opportunity to the website users. The least functional feature of the ‘*Interactivity*’ is “online gifts” (0.25); “meeting planners’ RFP” (0.37); and “site membership” (0.37), respectively. Especially for the people who are disabled, features offering information on destination accessibility, specific facilities, online booking, and membership opportunities should be included to the websites, in general.

Table 2

Grand Scores of the Interactivity Features

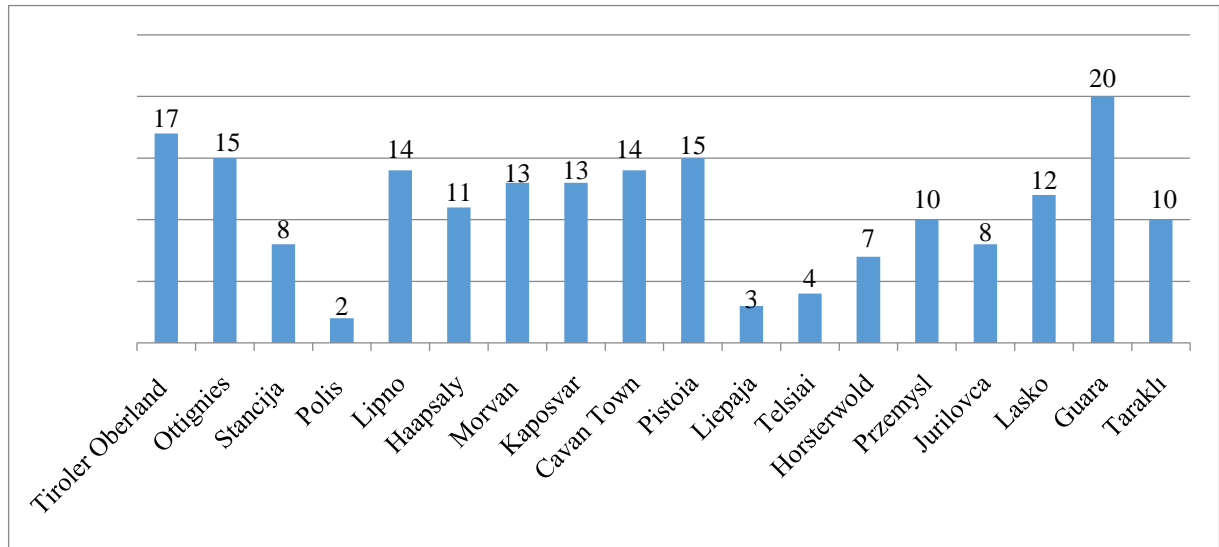


Following, website effectiveness of the each destination website is compared by calculating the sum of website features (Table 3). The maximum score is 24 which can be achieved from the total scores belong to three dimensions. Results show that the highest number of website features are owned by Guara (totally, 20), which is followed by Tiroler Oberland (totally, 17). Polis (totally, 2); Liepaja (totally, 3); and Telsiai (totally, 4) have the least number of website features.



Table 3

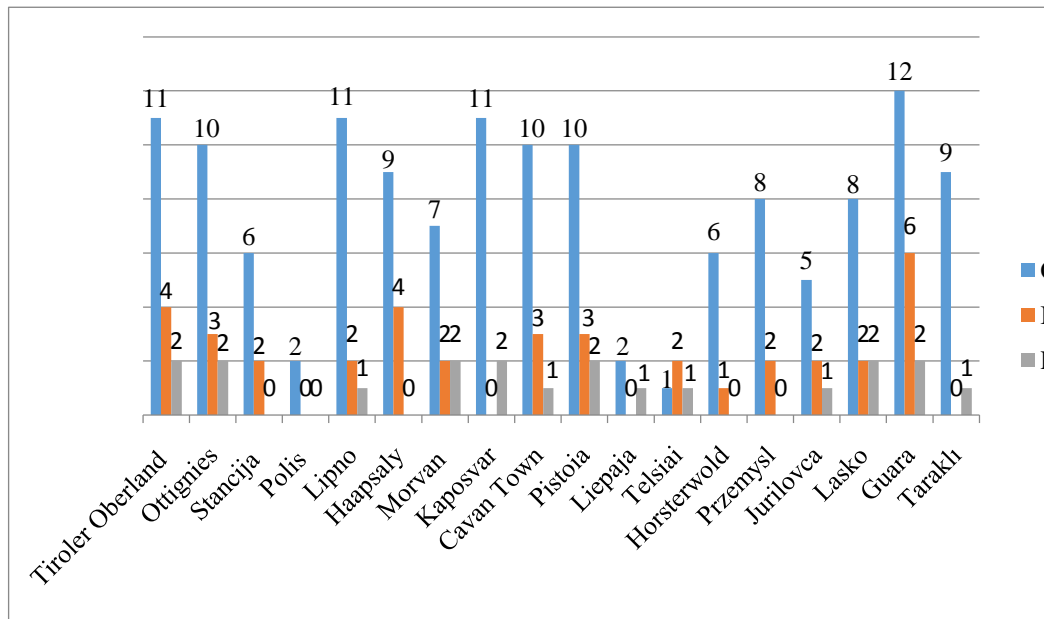
Sum of the Website Features by Destination



Lastly, effectiveness of the each destination websites was compared to each other, by total number of the features positioned in three dimensions. Depending on the feature numbers, Guara destination has the highest totals for all dimensions (*‘Content’*: 12; *‘Interactivity’*: 6; and *‘Promotional Value’*: 2). Tiroler Oberland is in the second position (*‘Content’*: 11; *‘Interactivity’*: 4; and *‘Promotional Value’*: 2). Some other destinations, such as Lipno, Kaposvar, Cavan Town and Pistoia has high number of *‘Content’* features, however their totals in *‘Interactivity’* and *‘Promotional Value’* features are quite low. To summarize, majority of the destination websites have *‘Content’* features, although they have less number of *‘Interactivity’* and *‘Promotional Value’* features (Table 4).

Table 4

Numbers of the Website Features by Destination



CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Principles of the accessible tourism positively motivate the destination authorities to serve the people who have disadvantages in travel. By attracting such groups of people, DMOs both may diversify the area from the other destinations in the worldwide, and meet the needs of tourists more effectively. For achieving these purposes, the first step of DMOs may take, is to design an official website that has features as much as possible. In this study, authors focused on three main dimensions of the websites which are the ‘Content’, ‘Interactivity’ and ‘Promotional Value’. In the case of EU Commission’s EDEN 2013 Project on ‘Accessible Tourism Destinations’ theme, eighteen destinations’ official websites were investigated in terms of their effectiveness.

Results showed that most of the official websites lack to meet ‘accessible’ destination principles at an online platform and the number of features are not enough for being effective. While majority of the websites focus on ‘Content’, they are insufficient at ‘Interactivity’ and ‘Promotional Value’. Especially the ‘Interactivity’ of the websites is needed to be increased so that potential tourists may gain the opportunity to reach information easily. Besides, ‘Promotional Value’, which contains “online offers”, “newsletters” and “e-cards”, are the tools to build close relationships with the website users and to enhance the user loyalty. This dimension is the least used feature by the website designers. Therefore, DMOs should offer more number of features on ‘Promotional Value’ for increasing the effectiveness of the websites.

In the content of this study, authors also sent an e-mail to website contact addresses for understanding the degree of concern of the authorities to the questions asked by the website users. Out of sixteen websites, only the authorities of Guara and Kaposvar destinations made a contact and answered the question of the researchers. The question was about the number of



the tourists in the last five years so that the researchers could measure the effect of EDEN 2013 Project on tourist arrivals. Kaposvar authorities offered a document which shows the numbers in detail, while Guara authorities gave the number of the hotel stays that made by the tourists with disabilities. These findings highlight that majority of the destination authorities except two examples do not make contact to website users and give information about destination.

The main contribution of this study is evaluating the official website effectiveness of accessible destinations for the first time in the tourism and travel literature. In the knowledge of authors, destination websites which were designed by DMOs in the context of accessible tourism are unexplored area of research yet. Therefore, both physical and online accessibilities of the destinations should be measured by the authorities for enabling the tourists who have personal disadvantages to travel and difficulties to reach information. In the future studies, researchers are recommended to investigate the importance and effectiveness of website features for various market segments. In addition, advantages obtained by being nominee of EDEN 2013 Project can be clarified by in-depth interviews with the DMO authorities. The share of “best practices” among to Project participants and discussion of “benchmarking” opportunities may also be investigated in the future studies by the researchers.

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**UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MEDICAL TOURISM –
PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION**

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents the findings of a preliminary investigation into university students' perceptions of medical tourism. A convenience sample of 251 students from a large university in Australia voluntarily participated in a structured survey that sought their perceptions of medical tourism. Perceptions were assessed on a 26-item statements using a 7-point Likert Scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Principal components analyses resulted in six factors accounting for 64.5% of total variances explained. The factors were labeled "*Quality of service*", "*Destination preference*", "*Professionalism*", "*Inhibitors*", "*Communication*", and "*Convenience*". Statistically significant differences were noted between country of birth and country of residence on some of the factors. Age group had a statistically significant difference on the '*inhibitor*' factor whereas level of studies had a significant difference on the "*professionalism*" factor. No differences were noted for the perception factors on the basis of gender. Results are discussed.

Key Words: Medical tourism, students, perceptions, demographics, Australia, tourism destination, intentions

INTRODUCTION

Medical tourism has its roots in the ancient times. For many centuries, people have travelled



over the world in search of medication (Goodrich & Goodrich 1987). People had the tendency to travel from one place to another in search of the hot water springs that were believed to have medicinal value (Neil & Carrera, 2010; Martin, Ramamonjiarivelo & Martin, 2011). The early myths and beliefs provided grounds for the medicinal value of the springs, especially in Asian and European countries. Medical tourism involves travel plans and schedules of persons around the world travelling mainly for therapies and medical attention. The healing mineral content of the water springs has led to the growth of the tourism sector. Medical tourism usually refers to foreign travel for the purpose of seeking medical treatment (Balaban & Marano, 2010; Stanciulescu, Diaconescu & Diaconescu, 2015) including disease prevention, medical care and recuperation (Ferrer & Medhekar, 2012).. According to Imison and Schweinsberg (2013) and Goldbach and West (2010), a great number of Australians travel to Asian countries for cosmetic surgery and therapies which are unavailable or expensive in the home country.

A study conducted by Laing and Weller (2008) in Asian countries reflected a rise in the number of tourists who visited the healing springs in the countries. The increased spread of healing power news increased the number of visitors to the healing sites. The ideology also involves the modern search for medical attention in experienced and famous facilities in the world (Laing & Weller, 2008). The healing mineral content of the water springs has led to the growth of the tourism sector. The increased spread of healing power news increased the number of visitors to the healing sites. The ideology also involves the modern search for medical attention in experienced and famous facilities in the world (Laing & Weller 2008). Medical tourism refers to people travel abroad to seek medical treatment of disease and surgery, including disease prevention, medical care, and recuperation (Ferrer & Medhekar, 2012). Also, medical tourism means tourists can choose the appropriate destination based on physical condition and doctor's advice, experience the health services, and enjoy the scenery to achieve the purpose of physical and mental health. In recent years, medical tourism has become popular in Asia, many countries combined sightseeing with surgery, which can help tourists save money at the same time, and experience the different cultures. According to the global medical tourism industry research report shows that the annual output value of medical tourism industry was about \$438.6 billion in 2013, and accounted for 14% of the global tourism industry (Ferrer & Medhekar, 2012). For example, Goldbach and West Jr. (2010) highlight that as foreign laws regarding responsibility are not as strict as those in Australia, many Australians travel to Asian countries for their preferred medical procedures.

MEDICAL TOURISM IN DIFFERENT DESTINATION COUNTRIES – a review

More and more people begin to pay attention to the development of medical tourism, and choose the best destination to seek some medical treatment. Medical tourism is moving



gradually from a niche market into more people's vision. Facing the rapid growth of medical tourism demand, many countries provide some preferential policies to attract more tourists to seek health care. According to the relevant statistics, the number of global medical tourists increased from approximately 20 million to 40 million between 2006 and 2012, and the worldwide medical tourism industry is increasing at a rate of 15% to 25% (Patients beyond Borders, 2015). In addition, a 2013 medical tourism market survey identified that nearly 27% of patients had travelled to a different palace to seek medical care, most patients were women between 45 and 64 years old, and nearly half of the medical tourists did not have a valid health insurance (Medical Tourism Association, 2015).

According to the official statistics, the total output value of world medical tourism industry was less than ten billions in 2000, but had reached 20 billion dollars in 2005, and the momentum of its development is very amazing (Hall & James, 2011). Currently, Thailand, India, Singapore, Malaysia and Philippines are the top five medical tourism destinations in the Asian region (Johnston & Bishop, 2015). The total annual income of five medical tourism destinations reaches upwards to the \$3.4 billion mark in 2007, respectively India, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia and Singapore. About 2.9 million foreigners travelled to these countries to receive medical treatment, and the number of inpatient medical tourists was between 60,000 to 85,000 during the same period (Anvekar, 2012). Among others, India and Thailand are vigorously promoting domestic medical tourism. Hence, medical cost savings can be up to 80% compared with some developed countries (Johnston & Bishop, 2015).

Furthermore, Europe and America have become main target markets of international medical tourism, and people travel to these developing countries to seek medical treatment because of lower cost, high quality of medical service, effective health care facilities and so on (Cohen, 2010). A 2013 patient survey found that nearly 75% of tourists have demand for medical treatment drove by cost savings (Snyder & Johnston, 2013). Some Asian countries have become famous medical tourism destinations with relatively cheap medical prices and good medical reputation (Hall, 2011; Hall & James, 2011). Besides, United States, Japan and other developed countries can attract more foreign patients seeking health care because of high quality of medical services and adequate medical resources.

Compared with the international vacation tourism, the traffic flow of medical tourism is mainly from developed countries to developing countries based on market analysis. Wealthy patients are more likely to choose the best medical tourism destinations to obtain a higher level of treatment, while less wealthy patients may choose to travel to a more suitable medical tourism destination to enjoy affordable health care services (Johnston & Bishop, 2015). For example, more medical tourists have intention to choose India or Thailand as a treatment



destination, because the cost of surgery may be only one-tenth compared with the United States and some Western European countries, or even lower (Snyder & Johnston, 2013).

Asian medical tourism has the First World service and Third World price, and Asia is becoming a major international medical tourism destination. In 2007, the revenue of Asian medical tourism industry reached \$34 billion, and accounted for 12.7% of the global market share (Gill & Singh, 2011). The number of Asian medical tourists has approximately doubled every year. There are three countries have occupied 90% market share of the whole medical tourism market in Asia, including India, Singapore, and Thailand (Rajagopal, Guo & Edvardsson, 2013).

As can be ascertained from the foregoing section, whilst various studies were conducted regarding medical tourism, the perceptions of university students as young adults has not been examined in great detail (Heung & Kucukusta, 2012; Reddy, York & Brannon, 2010).. Hence, this study is intended to fill the gap by examining the perceptions and behavioral intentions of university students about medical tourism and its role as a motivating factor to travel to medical tourism destinations as suggested by

METHODOLOGY

To achieve the objective of identifying students' perceptions about medical tourism, a convenience sample of two hundred fifty (251) students from a large university in Australia voluntarily participated in self-completion survey containing three sections (Appendix A). Section A was to elicit information about the students' travel behavior. Section B contained 26 statements adapted from various sources in the literature. These included An (2014), Ivey, Badoe, & Edwards (2012); Coccheri, Gesbarrini, & Orio (2008); Dubin, Lim, Lin, & Senior (2007), and Dougherty & Simson (2004) (Appendix 2). The survey items were modified to suit the context of the current study. A Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Section C focused on the students' demographic characteristics which would help compare groups on their perceptions of medical tourism.

PROFILES OF RESPONDENTS

The survey participants shows that 57% were females, 38% were aged between 21 and 24 years, 57% undergraduates, 35% born in Australia, 58% usually residing in Australia, 94% reporting that they have travelled to an international holiday destinations in the last three years, mainly for vacation (70%), 55% not heard of medical tourism, 68% would likely consider medical tourism as motivator to travel in the future (Table 1).



Table 1
Demographic profile of respondents

Profile	Frequency	%	Profile	Frequency	%
Sex			Country of birth		
Male	108	43.0	Australia	88	35.0
Female	143	57.0	China	69	28.0
Age			Others	94	37.0
17-20	72	29.0	Country of residence		
21-24	95	38.0	Australia	144	58.0
25-47	84	34.0	China	50	20.0
Level of studies			Others	56	
22.0			Holiday travel in last three years		
Undergraduate	144	57.0	Yes	236	
Postgraduate	107	43.0	No	15	
94.0					
6.0					

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Factor analysis was conducted using SPSS version 22.0 to summarize the 26 items into a smaller set of factors using the following criteria: Principal components with KMO normalization and Varimax rotation, factor loading >0.4 and Eigen value ≥ 1.0. According to the SPSS output, one item (B4) which did not fit the criteria was dropped resulting in six factors with total 64.5% of explained variance. The overall alpha and KMO values of 0.897 and .880 were well above the acceptable level, hence factor analysis was an appropriate step (Table 2). Factor 1 containing five items accounts for 32.5% of total explained variance and was labelled ‘Quality of service’. Factor 2 with four items and accounting for 9.29% of the variance was labelled “Destination preference”. Factor 3 with five items and accounting for 7.62% of variance was labelled “Professionalism”. Factor 4 with four items and accounting for 6.25% of variance was labelled “Inhibitors”. Factor 5 with items accounted for 4.54% of variance and labelled “Communication” while Factor 6 with two items accounting for 4.37% of variance was labelled “Convenience”.

Table 2
Results of Factor Analysis



Factors	Mean	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained	Alpha (α)
Factor 1 Quality of service	-	-	8.12	32.47	0.91
B18. Reliability of medical centers	5.89	0.83	-	-	-
B17. Skills of staff	5.71	0.82	-	-	-
B20. Quality of health care	5.96	0.81	-	-	-
B19. Quality of service	5.91	0.81	-	-	-
B21. Quality of equipment	5.95	0.71	-	-	-
Factor 2 Destination preference	-	-	2.32	9.29	0.82
B26. Like to choose a destination	4.95	0.82	-	-	-
B25. Recommend to peers	5.19	0.81	-	-	-
B24. Favorable	5.12	0.75	-	-	-
B2. Treatment and recuperation	5.42	0.54	-	-	-
Factor 3 Professionalism	-	-	1.91	7.62	0.80
B10. Clear treatment process	5.06	0.70	-	-	-
B9. Unavailable procedures	5.24	0.62	-	-	-
B12. Trustworthy professionalism	5.08	0.61	-	-	-
B13. Good knowledge and skills of doctors	5.20	0.61	-	-	-
B3. Elderly population	4.88	0.46	-	-	-
Factor 4 Inhibitors	-	-	1.56	6.25	0.77
B7. Difficulty in obtaining treatment	4.88	0.79	-	-	-
B6. Insufficient insurance coverage	5.02	0.79	-	-	-
B8. Long waiting time	5.10	0.71	-	-	-
B5. High costs	5.24	0.61	-	-	-
Factor 5 Communication	-	-	1.14	4.54	0.61
B22. Hospital websites or blogs	5.10	0.59	-	-	-
B1. Increasing demand	5.33	0.56	-	-	-
B16. Price	5.47	0.53	-	-	-
B23. Travel agents	4.47	0.53	-	-	-
B11. Alternative treatments	5.55	0.46	-	-	-
Factor 6 Convenience	-	-	1.09	4.37	0.61
B15. Simple and quick medical visa	4.41	0.75	-	-	-
B14. Convenient communication facilities	4.43	0.71	-	-	-

MEAN DIFFERENCES

One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the students' perception of medical tourism



based on their country of birth and country of residence. Group differences were statistically significant for country of birth on quality of service, destination preference, and professionalism. ($F = 4.882, 6.303, \text{ and } 13.256$ respectively) and for country of usual residence ($F = 3.578, 6.309, \text{ and } 10.275$ respectively). The mean scores of Australian-born or resident students were significantly lower than students born or residing in China or other countries on all three factors as shown in Table 3. In terms of the ages of participants, statistically significant difference was noted on the ‘inhibitor’ factor between age groups. The mean score for the 17 to 20 age group was significantly higher (mean = 5.27) compared to that of ≥ 25 age group (mean = 4.81) ($F = 4.055; p < .05$).

Table 3
Differences on country of birth

	COB	Mean	F.	Sig.
Quality of service	Australia	5.66	4.882	0.007
	China	6.12		
Destination preference	Australia	4.89	6.303	0.002
	China	5.47		
Professionalism	Australia	4.68	13.256	0.000
	China	5.45		
	Others	5.23		

	COR	Mean	F.	Sig.
Quality of service	Australia	5.75	3.578	0.028
	China	6.16		
Destination preference	Australia	4.97	6.309	0.009
	China	5.47		
	Others	5.40		
Professionalism	Australia	4.85	10.275	0.000
	China	5.49		
	Others	5.36		

Further, groups were compared on the bases of gender and level of studies to determine any significant differences of the perceptions factors. There was no statistically significant difference between males and females on any of the factors. However, a statistically significant difference was noted on the ‘professionalism’ factor on the basis of level of studies. Undergraduates scored significantly lower (mean = 4.97) compared to postgraduates (mean = 5.26) ($t = -2.182; p < .05$).

In conclusion, this study has highlighted the importance of medical tourism. Students’ perceptions of this type of tourism were in general more positive as indicated in the response to the question whether they would consider medical tourism as a motivator in deciding to travel to a tourism destination in the future. Factors affecting students’ perceptions of medical tourism have been identified as *quality of service, destination preference, professionalism,*



inhibitors, communication, and convenience. Students' perceptions were examined in light of the six factors in terms of demographic characteristics. While gender showed no significant differences in any of the factors, differences were noted on place of birth and or residence, level of study or age group. Although findings shade some light in the understanding of medical tourism from the perspective of students, the results should be read with caution for the following reasons. The study was conducted using a convenience sample of students from a single institution in a single location. The survey instrument was adapted from various sources and adapted to the current context. Further, students had no prior experience of medical tourism; hence responses were based on their perceptions only. Future research into students' perceptions may need to examine from different geographic distribution to determine the applicability of the instrument in a wider geographic context.

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Appendix 1

Survey Instrument

Please tick (✓) the checkbox below to indicate that you have understood the information provided in the Information Sheet.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Students' Perceptions about Medical Tourism (SPMT)

Part A

A1: Have you travelled to any domestic or international tourism destination in the last three years?

- (a) Yes (b) No (*Please go to Part B*)

A2: If yes to A1 above, how many times have you travelled in the last three years?

- (a) Once (b) Twice (c) Three times
(d) More than three times

A3: What was the main purpose of your trip? (*Please circle one answer*)

- (a) Vacation (b) Business (c) Education (d) Medical treatment
(e) Visiting families or friends (f) other

A4: Have you heard about medical tourism?

- (a) Yes (b) No

A5: Would you consider medical tourism as a motivator in your future travel to a medical tourism destination?

- (a) Yes (b) No

Part B

For the purpose of this survey, medical tourism is defined as "... people travelling abroad to seek medical treatment of disease and surgery, including disease prevention, medical care, and recuperation." (Reddy et al. 2010).

The following statements are about medical tourism. Please indicate your perceptions about medical tourism by circling **one** number for each statement on a scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Please be ensured that your answers will remain confidential.



	<i>Statements</i>	1 = Strongly Disagree 7 = Strongly Agree						
B1	There is an increasing demand of medical tourism.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B2	The main patterns of medical tourism are treatment and recuperation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B3	The specific demographic trend of medical tourism is concentrated in the elderly population.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B4	The specific demographic trend of medical tourism is concentrated in the youth population.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B5	People receive medical care abroad because of high costs in home countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B6	People receive medical care abroad because of insufficient insurance coverage in home countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B7	People receive medical care abroad because of difficulty in obtaining treatment after making an appointment in home countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B8	People receive medical care abroad because of long waiting time in home countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B9	People receive medical care abroad because of treatment procedures unavailable in home countries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B10	People receive medical care abroad because of clear treatment process in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B11	People receive medical care abroad seeking alternative medical treatments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B12	People receive medical care abroad because of trustworthy medical professionalism in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B13	People receive medical care abroad because of good knowledge and skills of doctors in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B14	People receive medical care abroad because of convenient communication facilities in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B15	People receive medical care abroad because of simple and quick medical visa in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B16	I would be able to choose my medical tourism destination based on price.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B17	I would be able to choose my medical tourism destination based on the skills of staff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B18	I would be able to choose my medical tourism destination based on the reliability of medical centers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B19	I would be able to choose my medical tourism destination based on the quality of service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B20	I would be able to choose my medical tourism destination based on the quality of health care.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B21	I would be able to choose my medical tourism destination based on the quality of equipment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B22	I would be able to get medical tourism information from the hospital websites or blogs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B23	I would be able to get medical tourism information from the travel agents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B24	My general opinion about medical tourism is favorable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B25	I would recommend a good medical tourism destination to my peers (friends, family, and relatives).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



B26	I would like to choose a medical tourism destination in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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Part C

Now, I would like to get some background information about you that will assist me in categorising and interpreting the survey results. Please help me by answering **all** questions. Your responses will be maintained in confidence. Please circle **one** number for each question or **write** in the space provided as appropriate.

C1	Your Gender	(a) Male	(b) Female
C2	Your Age in years	_____ years old	
C3	Your Country of Birth	_____ (Please specify)	
C4	Your country of Residence	_____ (Please specify)	
C5	You are	(a) Undergraduate	(b) Postgraduate

Thank you for your participation!

SPMT Questionnaire_V2_21 Sep 15

Ethics Application NO.: 5098

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Appendix 2

Sources of survey instruments

Items	Sources
B1. Increasing demand B3. Elderly population B4. Youth population	Ivey, Badoe, & Edwards (2012)
B2. Treatment and recuperation B24. Favorable B25. Recommend to peers B26. Like to choose a destination	Coccheri, Gasbarrini, & Orio (2008)
B5. High costs B6. Insufficient insurance coverage B7. Difficulty in obtaining treatment B8. Long waiting time B9. Unavailable procedures	Dougherty & Simpson (2004)
B10. Clear treatment process B11. Alternative treatments B12. Trustworthy professionalism B13. Good knowledge and skills of doctors B14. Convenient communication facilities B15. Simple and quick medical visa B16. Price B17. Skills of staff B18. Reliability of medical centers B19. Quality of service B20. Quality of health care B21. Quality of equipment	An (2014)
B22. Hospital websites or blogs B23. Travel agents	Dubin, Liu, Lin, & Senior (2007)

New trend Latest vision Creative idea



CHINESE PAPERS



主题酒店发展模式探讨

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摘要: 随着我国文化创意产业的大力发展, 主题酒店作为文化传承与创意的体验载体近年来发展迅猛; 同时, 随着酒店市场的细分和消费者需求的变化, 主题酒店已成为我国酒店业发展的方向之一。本文在阐述了主题酒店概念与特征的基础上, 从时间发展维度上分析了主题酒店创建的三种类型: 自然建成、改建和新建等; 进而分析了三种“酒店+”创建模式; 最后在分析了基础产品赢利模式前提下, 重点探讨了四种创新的酒店赢利模式, 即: 物业增值、品牌效应、管理输出和产业集群等, 以期为主题酒店发展和建设带来新的思路和启发。

民宿客栈网络营销策略探析

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摘要: 网络营销是基于互联网平台, 利用信息技术与软件工程, 满足商家与客户之间交换概念、交易产品、提供服务的过程; 通过在线活动创造、宣传和传递客户价值, 并对客户关系进行管理, 以达到一定营销目的的新型营销活动。随着互联网的高速发展, 人们的观念逐渐开放, 推动了酒店这一传统行业第二春的到来, 酒店也利用网络促进自身发展。酒店借助网络营销可以使得顾客群体范围更广, 覆盖面面积更大。民宿客栈比较高星级酒店而言, 资金雄厚度、营销能力、市场占有率等都偏弱, 但它却能以其地域魅力、民族特色、价格优势等在酒店市场中占一席之地。现今依托移动互联网进行营销, 其竞争力的提升速度不可小觑。目前, 民宿客栈运用得较多的营销方式有网站页面、网上产品定制、价格优惠、网络平台促销、渠道改革和加强顾客服务等, 同时注意组合策略, 创设出强大的网络营销体系。然而运作中也存在诸多问题, 值得我们去探寻、去改善其方式策略, 以发挥更好的网络营销效应。



以貌取人？酒店对客服的凝视研究

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摘要：酒店对客户服务是一个双向凝视的过程，接待客人的过程中凝视的焦点与秩序不仅反应这酒店服务的质量，也呈现了酒店对客服的权利关系。研究虚拟了六个不同对客服的情境，并将其描述完整的情境设计成问卷向酒店一线工作人员展开调查，调查结果从实习生、正式员工、领班、主管等职位和性别、受教育程度和工作年限等维度呈现对客服的凝视焦点、秩序和重要性。最后得出管理岗位主要决定着服务凝视的焦点与秩序、实习生并非菜鸟、以貌取人”的刻板印象逐渐减弱三个主要结论。

我国温泉酒店服务质量评论分析—基于携程网的网络评论

王文婧²⁶

摘要：本文选取中国十佳温泉酒店，利用文本分析法、IPA 分析法和 SPSS 软件分析其服务质量的网络评论，得到的主要结论是：温泉酒店的住客满意度整体低于普通酒店，住客对“温泉设施”、“房间”、“酒店总体评价”及“服务总体评价”等指标较为关注和满意，但对“温泉服务”指标关注少，满意程度也低；同时“温泉设施”、“服务总体评价”、“设施设备总体评价”和“房间”等指标与总体评价呈较高正相关性。在此基础上，提出加强温泉设施维护、重视温泉特色服务和进行服务创新等建议。

需求视阈下旅游公共服务的内涵和形成机制研究

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摘要：旅游公共服务建设是旅游产业结构调整优化的背景下提升旅游产业竞争力的重要国家战略。目前相关研究主要停留在旅游公共服务的供给模式和体系构建上，鲜有研究能从游客“真实”的公共服务需求角度去审视现有的供给体系。文章运用扎根理论的质性研究方法，探索了旅游公共服务的内涵、要素和形成机制，理清了关键服务接触点和要素的相互关系，为下一步需求测度和量表开发提供了依据，同时发现问题的关键不在于公共服务要素的缺失，而在于各要素的衔接是否顺畅，因此提出了以服务协同作为游客旅游公共服务满意实



现的重要保障。研究有助于丰富旅游公共服务研究的理论体系，也为我国现代旅游公共服务体系的完善和优化提供有益的启示。

大型体育赛事吉祥物品牌个性对出游意愿影响——以“威威”、“金鳞”、“泰山童子”、“宁宁”为例

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摘要：大型体育赛事吉祥物具有鲜明的地域特色。文章基于艾克的品牌个性理论，将大型体育赛事吉祥物个性分为“粗犷”、“刺激”、“可信”、“真诚”、“教养”5个维度，将吉祥物品牌个性、目的地形象和游客出游意向纳入一个理论分析框架中，以全运会吉祥物“威威”、“金鳞”、“泰山童子”、“宁宁”为例，通过构建结构方程模型分析吉祥物品牌个性维度、目的地形象和出游意向之间的关系，探索大型体育赛事吉祥物品牌个性对游客出游意愿的影响及作用机制。研究表明：（1）不同吉祥物的品牌个性维度评价存在显著差异；（2）吉祥物品牌个性中的“刺激”、“可信”、“真诚”、“教养”能够正向影响游客对目的地形象评价；（3）目的地形象对游客出游意愿具有正向影响；（4）吉祥物品牌个性中的“刺激”、“可信”、“真诚”、“教养”维度对游客出游意愿具有正向影响。文章拓展了品牌个性理论在旅游领域的应用研究，对塑造目的地形象和提高游客出游意向具有重要实践启示。

旅游者购买意愿和满意度模式研究——基于旅游行为构造的视角

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摘要：本论文基于旅游行为构造的视角，运用文献研究和比较研究等研究方法首先从研究旅游者的旅游行为的意义和形态入手，对旅游行为的主体进行了较为详细的分类；其次，通过分析旅游者的购买意愿和满意度的模式来解释旅游行为构造下的旅游需求；最后，就旅游者的心理和行动的诸多表现进行了相关的分析和论述。本论文研究的目的就在于通过分析旅游者购买意欲的模型，推导出其满意度的形成过程，进而诠释旅游主体即游客的内在心理需求活动与欲望反映出的种种行为。笔者期待着为开发和拓展国（境）内外客源市场、充分和合理地利用旅游资源、以及在旅游产品及旅游线路的开发设计方面提供一个初步的理论框架研究参考。

酒店行业的别样风景-设计酒店

原创：伍晋源 David Wu



设计酒店 Design Hotels。酒店风格颠覆传统，引领潮流，让人耳目一新，而且舒适自然。设计师运用独特的设计理念赋予酒店新的灵魂，因此成功的设计酒店不仅充满浓郁的地方人文气息，而且绽放时尚的光芒，这就是时尚酒店带给世人的乐趣和惊喜。

设计酒店具有独一无二的原创性主题，且不局限于酒店项目的类型、规模和档次。

要想鹤立鸡群，你就得与众不同，酒店行业亦是如此。一家成功的设计酒店，带给我们的不仅仅是感官上的震撼与享受，在精神上或是物质上满足我们的同时更是传递着我们对时尚的追求、对美好生活的向往。酒店不但设计产品，更能把当今社会人文元素与酒店产品完美融合。

设计酒店的形式始于 80 年代中期，1990 年，酒店业怪杰 Ian Schrager 请 Phillippe Starck 为纽约的派拉蒙酒店 Paramount Hotel 进行全方位设计。其设计理念是：将一种文化概念的美丽升华为人文概念的美好。Starck 设计师的名气加上其风格独特的设计使派拉蒙酒店一跃成为世界顶级的经典设计酒店。从此“设计型酒店”成为酒店业的一个前沿概念。

“酒香不怕巷子深”，这就是设计酒店的魅力所在。在国际酒店品牌林立的一线城市中心地带，在地产开发地段不利的板块，在旧改重新设计的项目中，同质化的酒店艰难前行，更别说具备核心竞争力，然而那些独特的、有品位的、与众不同的设计酒店却能迎来自己繁荣发展的春天。

恍如你手上使用的苹果手机、微信聊天、星巴克喝咖啡一样，一间独具特色的设计酒店不单只是一个品牌，它是享受时尚生活的一种载体。进入 2000 年代的



中国，时尚酒店在迅速发展，2001年由澳大利亚 DCM 设计公司 James Gibson 主笔设计的木棉花酒店在深圳特区率先开业。在当年可以说是中国首家设计酒店，酒店颠覆传统，全开放的客房无墙壁间隔，由大量不锈钢和玻璃完成的软硬装修空间十足让人耳目一新，纯喷涂的室内墙壁开创酒店内饰先河，悬挂各个区域的牛皮纸灯具和贯穿酒店各个区域的抽象油画让酒店的艺术感恰到好处，酒店整体设计简约而不简单：个性、时尚、舒适、温馨。酒店在开业后迅即引起酒店业界和设计行业的轰动，争相参观效仿。不到半年的试营业期间房间爆满，房价远高于周边的高星级酒店，成为设计酒店进入中国市场迅速取得良好的经济效益和社会效益的典范，并同时带动了周边各个领域的发展，提升地块的价值。

设计酒店亦如其它产品一样，是在卖体验和想象，而不是卖产品本身。设计酒店的忠实拥护者把酒店产品看作是自己的延伸，他们描述喜爱的酒店用的词语就如描述至亲至爱一样亲切。

不管客人时髦与否，设计酒店是他们的镜子。设计酒店像一种消遣方式一样吸引着客人的热望。设计酒店借助建筑、园林、色彩、灯光、艺术、服装和音乐来欢迎和款待我们的客人。

开发经得起大众评判并且具有独特价值的设计酒店产品，提供客人想得到而且是渴望得到的产品，好比说出了他们说不出来的需求和渴望。当他们享受到超乎期望的产品和服务时，这些人会把酒店分享给身边的每一个人，就像他们在分享自己的喜悦一样。设计酒店完全依赖客人的认可、口碑以及媒介的传播，来永葆其价值之所在。设计酒店搭起了连接情感的桥梁，客人可以在这里找到身份重塑的价值体验。在酒店业 OTA 横行的时代，口碑营销或许才是我们酒店行业追求的至高境界吧！

一个新设计酒店的快速成功之路就是要把文化植入酒店。不但体现在产品设计上，更要在企业文化建设中去完善，感同身受的员工把酒店的服务愉快地传递给酒店客人。通过给客人创造能被回忆起的、感性体验的方式来为酒店带来感染性的影响力。

设计酒店的流行，不仅意味着酒店空间美学的革命，也是现代旅行价值观的革命。设计酒店使酒店不再只是客人旅行时休息的落脚之地，而是成为客人要去享受的一种生活方式。

当下，国际品牌酒店全球一体化，国内高端酒店市场饱和，产品同质化严重，逆势下酒店行业竞争日益激烈。而设计酒店却以其时尚气息和独特个性获得了市场的验证。设计酒店没有按照任何已有酒店的模式来建造，因为，在这个追求个性化的时代，瞬息万变的世界与顾客需求，使得区分不同种类的界限已经日趋模糊，设计酒店就是这种趋势下的一个见证。设计酒店越来越被潮流接受并成为酒店行业的高收益体系，也验证了酒店发展市场需求的趋势。

2010年美国时尚设计酒店在酒店总数的比重只有约为2%，但是收益却占有所有酒店的5%。



国内酒店行业历年盈亏数据：1990 年 4 亿，1997 年 7 亿，1998 年亏损 32 亿，1999 年亏损 57 亿，2000 年亏损 20 亿 2005 年 10 亿，2006 年 33 亿，2007 年 55 亿，2008 年 32 亿，2009 年亏损 12 亿 2010 年 50.7 亿。2011 年 61.4 亿，2012 年 50.46 亿。2013 年亏损 20.9 亿，2014 年亏损 59.2 亿。2014 年，全国星级酒店 12803 家，纳入统计 11180 家，客房 150 万间，固定资产原值 5000 亿，收入 2151 亿，出租率 54.2%。

随着国内经济的放缓，民众消费走向理性，传统酒店产能过剩明显，而且还在继续发展。由于入住率的下降，房间收益自然下滑，酒店回报年限无法预测。而设计酒店则在这领域里融入了全新设计理念和创新收手法，使得酒店投资成本降低，回报年限缩短。下面案例酒店入住率达到惊人的 80%以上，突破酒店传统格局从而取得了良好的经济效益和社会效益。

时代在发展，高科技的产品在快速发展，酒店行业变革也是方兴未艾。设计酒店已经成为引领酒店行业的一种潮流和生活方式，在打破传统酒店的同质化格局的同时也给投资者带来可观的效益回报。一家成功的设计酒店不仅仅在设计上颠覆传统，能给顾客带来全新的入住方式和感官享受，酒店的经营更是需要全方位的响应，从酒店的产品概念、景观灯光、艺术空间、员工服装、主题音乐、酒店的用品和用具一应俱全。打造出一家引领潮流的时尚之店，提供不一样的酒店生活方式。

下面和大家一起来分享一些成功的设计酒店案例：

W 酒店 W Hotel



W 酒店全球著名豪华时尚酒店品牌，以前卫、大胆和创新设计闻名，W 酒店对商务客人的住店经历进行重新定义，针对商务客人的特点对服务设施和服务方式、内容上有全新的设计。处处让你感受与众不同的独特个性。

在每家 W 饭店的大堂里都设有精致的餐厅、休闲室和咖啡厅，另外饭店里还



都设有健身房。专门为商务客人而设的设施和服务与独立精品饭店的特点相结合，把市场定位在一个由 70%~75%的个体商务旅游者和 15%~20%的商务小团队客人的目标市场。

广州 W 酒店是国内引进的第一家国际品牌时尚设计酒店，这也是亚洲开业的第六家 W 酒店。1998 年喜达屋将 W 酒店作为时尚品牌首次推向市场，旨在让入住的客人体验最新的生活时尚。而设计师也会把流行的时尚元素在酒店的各个空间内融会贯通。自 W 酒店问世至今，它已经重新定义了高档酒店的体验内涵，并成为酒店业中最成功的时尚设计高端酒店品牌。广州 W 酒店坐落于珠江新城，开业一年已成为广州时尚的标志性高端酒店，亦是喜达屋集团期望将该酒店打造成为喜达屋旗下所有 W 酒店中最时尚和豪华的典范代表。

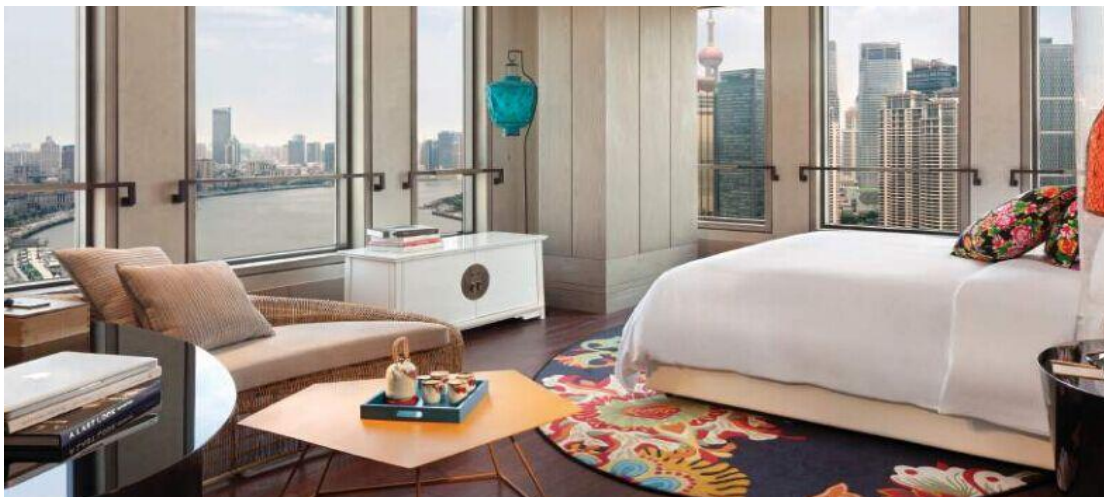
柏悦酒店 Park Hyatts

凯悦集团旗下最具特色的品牌柏悦酒店位于全球的时尚之都，如东京、北京、雪梨、上海、墨尔本和马德里等城市最顶尖的建筑区内，其时尚典雅高贵的室内空间设计、体贴入微的管家服务、细腻的精緻餐饮及设施，尤其适合小规模会议或晚宴，提供顾客独特且精致的卓越体验，定位为世界上顶级的时尚精品酒店。

英迪格酒店 Hotel Indigo Shanghai



英迪格酒店是洲际酒店集团旗下的时尚精品酒店品牌，主要针对寻求个性与真实体验的高端客户，为他们提供融和当地历史、文化和自然元素的下榻体验。作为酒店行业的首个全球连锁精品酒店品牌，英迪格酒店以令人耳目一新的邻里文化、清新自然的酒店设计和富于灵感的热情服务，为客人带来引人入胜的入住体验、原汁原味的邻里风情和城市文化。

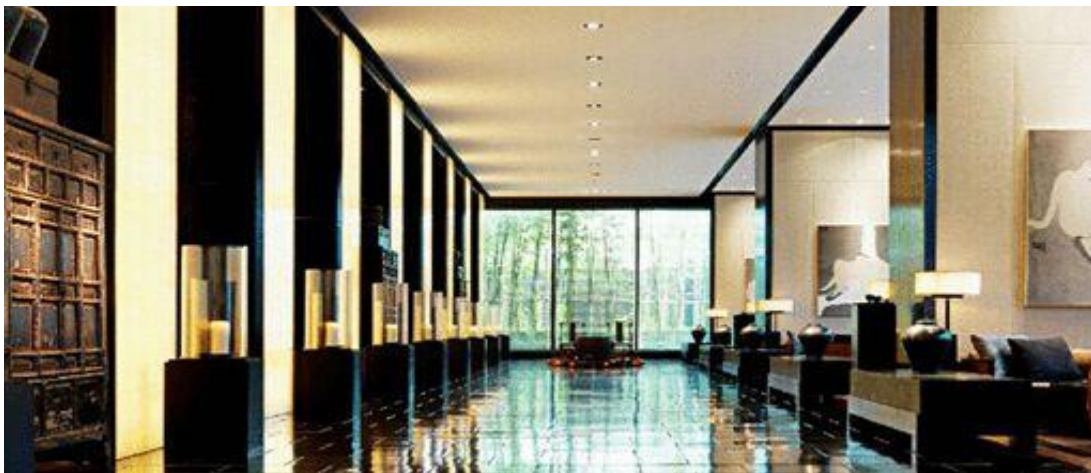


上海璞丽酒店 The Puli Shanghai



来自于国际设计大师 Jaya Ibrahim 中国三大手笔之一，其理念是“提供令人渴望居住的住所”是他一直以来秉承的设计理念，其作品融于人群，而又高雅卓逸的风韵，他倡导依据周围环境顺势而为的设计理念，多元的文化背景令他能以独到眼光将东西方文化结合表现，在钢筋水泥的森林中创造自己的古典优雅。璞丽酒店是其在中國设计的首家定位为“都会桃源”的主题酒店。致力于通过其酒店主题和设施来体现每个城市的特质,为宾客提供与城市文化亲密接触的机会

汇聚中国古老元素与现代工艺科技的璞丽酒店使用了通常被用在建筑外墙的上海灰砖作为内部装修建材之一，营造出建筑的特殊美感与功能，酒店大堂的特殊地砖是由北京紫禁城修复工程地面建材的同一厂家所提供，并耗费很长的时间专为酒店精心制作的。这是设计师善用如今少用的传统建材作为空间永恒典范的又一构思。在每间客房内部随处可见的龙麟纹木雕屏风与铸铜洗脸台再度验证了设计师刻意交织古今与中西于一体的设计巧思。



深圳木棉花酒店 Hotel Kapok Shenzhen



由澳大利亚 DCM 设计公司 James Gibson 主笔设计，国内首家设计酒店，颠覆传统酒店模式，凭借现代简约设计及舒适温馨感觉在酒店业界引起轰动。酒店风格简约，内部结构几乎由玻璃和不锈钢构建，突破传统的房间内部结构全由玻璃间隔，空间感整洁舒适；点缀空间的只有抽象油画；直接喷涂的墙壁让简约的风格更具个性化；而悬挂于公共区域的牛皮灯笼更把酒店营造的安宁温馨。2001 年试业，试业一季度即出现爆满情况，年平均入住率 90%以上，平均房价远远高于周边配套完善的传统的、连锁的高星级酒店。市场需求远远高出预估，设计酒店在国内市场上画出成功而又绚丽的第一笔。

广州米兰花酒店 Hotel Elan Guangzhou



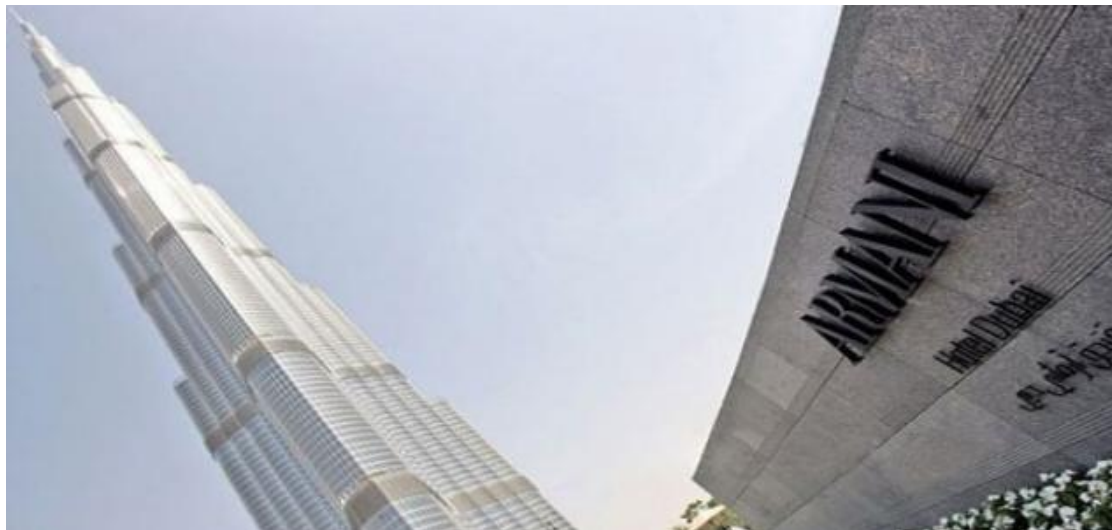
是国内首家经济型时尚酒店，由老城区招待所改建而成，地段并不占优，HIP 的外观建筑设计换来设计界及媒介体的免费宣传，慕名而来的客人络绎不绝，仿如深谷中的一朵幽兰独自芬芳。

北京瑜舍酒店 “The Opposite House” Beijing

由日本著名建筑设计师隈研吾构思打造，是一家都会风尚酒店。浓烈的时代风格和无限舒展的空间设计，完美诠释了耳目一新的个性化设计，中华古典意蕴，自然有序的结合让时尚与文化完美结合。而酒店营销与时尚品牌的合作更是把酒店推向潮流的顶端。



迪拜阿玛尼酒店 Armani Hotel Dubai



奢侈品牌与酒店的联合，意味着创新酒店概念与时尚设计美学的完美结合。这间旗舰酒店坐落于哈利法塔，大楼本身就是划时代的建筑经典。优美的建筑地标灌注 Armani 的设计风尚，成就极富魅力的酒店，让顾客陶醉于简约舒适的 Armani 生活品位中。



位于哈利法塔的底层至 8 层并在 38 和 39 层设有豪华套房。酒店内设多家餐厅、一个室外游泳池和一个水疗馆。哈利法塔的 9 至 16 层是以阿玛尼名字命名的公寓。阿玛尼酒店的主要卖点之一是这家酒店由阿玛尼设计，连酒店礼品店出售的巧克力也由他亲自选定。阿玛尼的设计以简约闻名，阿玛尼酒店的装修风格体现这一点。

杭州法云安缦度假酒店 Aman fayun Hangzhou



和上海璞丽一样来自世界顶级设计大师 Pak Jaya Ibrahim 的设计，酒店仿若世外桃源，出尘入世。入住在这座充满禅意的度假酒店，能感受到被原生态自然风光与丰富人文遗产包围，远离烦嚣。



粉墙黛瓦，青石涓流。整个法云安缦的设计概念为“18 世纪的中国村落”，尽量保持了杭州原始村落的木头及砖瓦结构，房间以不同的形式遍布于整个小村庄中。甚至侍者的制服都使用了与村落极为合拍的土黄色。几乎所有的 42 套客房都不配备电视，在这里，灯的功能被退回到 18 世纪中国村落的蜡烛时代砖墙瓦顶，土木结构，屋内走道和地板均为石材铺置。自然美景，灵隐佛学、古典家具、顶级的酒店用品和设施、1:5 的人房比例配备，使酒店迅速成为蜚声中外的杭州史上最奢华的文化酒店。

深圳回酒店 Hui Hotel Shenzhen



由 YAC 与意大利 LA PARGAY 服装品牌共同打造的时尚精品酒店。[设计师](#)从 LA PARGAY 品牌纯粹的黑白风格中汲取灵感，在简约现代的空间中融入东方文化元素，打造出时尚雅致的酒店空间。在国际品牌酒店林立的中心区，以其独特的风格与魅力取胜。

生活就如彩虹的色彩一样绚烂，不同的色彩有不同的特点，不同的地域有不同的民族特色。设计给酒店业带来变革，改变酒店的传统风格模式。目前越来越多的设计酒店已经在国内立足并迅速发展，如何设计开发你的设计酒店？要想“鹤立鸡群，你就得与众不同”，如何设计改造你的设计酒店？期待着有更多的有特色的设计酒店成为我们的民族品牌，从而改变我们的生活品质和出行方式！



客户关系管理机制内涵与特征及构建路径探析

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摘要: 目前, 全球经济衰退已成为不争事实, 同时也为企业经营者带来了一个新的问题, 那就是怎样才能更为有效地促进客户关系管理, 不断提高企业的品牌效应与服务品质, 扩大企业的经济效益与社会效益。本文认为, 最为有效的方法之一, 就是实现理论与方法创新, 构建一个内涵丰富、特征显著的客户关系管理机制。从宏观上讲, 这个客户关系管理机制是充满智慧的谋略; 从微观上来考察, 这个客户管理机制是企业获得成功的重要法宝。而构建这个客户关系管理机制的路径, 就是要注重企业与客户的沟通交流, 坚持以客户利益为重的原则, 尤其是要求企业在经营实践中必须要以客户为中心, 而不是传统的以产品或市场为中心, 通过为客户提供优质服务, 把实现双赢作为企业营销工作中的主要目标。本文尝试从客户关系管理的视角, 分析客户关系管理机制的内涵与特征, 在此基础上提出构建客户关系管理机制的路径与措施。构建一个有效的客户关系管理机制, 不断提升服务品质, 既可为企业维持与现有客户之间关系提供制度保障, 又可不断为企业拓展更多新客源, 在企业与顾客之间构建一种亲密无间的关系, 把潜在顾客转换为知晓顾客, 最终形成一个庞大的客户群体, 实现有效的客户关系管理。

基于旅游人类学视角的旅游目的地文化涵化研究

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摘要: 旅游人类学的研究早已开始, 不同学者对旅游人类学的研究重点各不相同, 国内的旅游人类学文化涵化研究开始较晚, 取得的研究成果也较少, 其中, 与可视化分析结合的研究更少。本文在分析相关文献后, 将旅游人类学与可视化图谱分析结合, 运用可视化分析软件 CiteSpace 进行深入研究。研究以旅游人类学视角切入, 首先, 用可视化软件分析相关文献, 得出旅游人类学研究热点是“文化涵化”。然后, 着重研究旅游目的地文化涵化的影响因素和正、负面作用, 总结出影响文化涵化程度的客源地文化强度、游客数量、逗留时间和旅游者类型四个因素。最后, 对提升旅游目的地文化涵化提出相关策略。



游客不当行为对其国家形象的影响——来源国刻板印象的调节作用

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一、引言

随着国际市场经济的快速发展, 国与国之间旅游互动关系的增强以及人们出境休闲旅游需求的提高, 越来越多游客开始走出国门, 领略世界各地的风土人情和美食美景, 尽情享受身心的愉悦。根据联合国世界旅游组织统计, 2015 年国际旅游人次连续第六年保持 4% 以上的增长趋势。尤其是中国, 作为全球出境旅游最大的客源市场, 并没有受到汇率、安保和大宗商品价格等因素的影响, 出境旅游增长出现新高。与此同时, 中国游客的一言一行也备受国内外媒体和舆论的密切关注。《春秋传》里谈到“不有君子, 其能国乎? 君子道消, 虽有国, 与无同矣”, 说明公民个人与国家形象息息相关。公民素质是构成国家形象内容的重要因素, 许多国家都会热衷推出本国的形象大使, 宣扬本国的文化和精神面貌。但是, 在公共外交的环境下, 上至国家第一夫人, 下到每个普通公民, 都有责任和义务成为国家形象传播的代言人。

然而, 人非圣贤, 近年来关于出境游客不当行为的负面报道层出不穷, 引起学者们和各界管理者对于旅游业健康发展的新思考。随着电影《泰囧》的热播以及泰国旅游部门针对中国游客的一系列优惠政策的推出, 引发一批批中国游客赴泰国旅游的热潮。但是, 中国游客在泰国旅行中暴露出的一些不当行为, 引起广泛的争议。2015 年 2 月 3 日, 由于部分中国游客在使用洗手间时出现非常不文明行为, 泰国清莱白庙在当天上午禁止中国游客入内, 引起全球极大的社会舆论, 整个事件对中国形象的影响非常不好。而在此前的 2014 年 12 月 11 日关于 4 名中国乘客大闹亚航航班、侮辱泰国空姐的事件中, 泰国最大网上论坛 PANTIP 上的大多数泰国网友却比较客观地评论此事, 认为中国乘客的自私行为是严重的错误, 但是亚航的服务也需要改善, 而且泰国国内的媒体对此事只是做了简单的报道。同样是游客不当行为, 为何白庙游客的不道德行为给中国游客利益甚至整个中国形象带来严重的危害, 而亚航乘客的错误和违法行为对中国整体形象的负面影响相对较小?

此外, 根据美国 LivingSocial 网站披露的全球最不受欢迎的游客排行榜, 美国游客高居榜首, 被认为是全世界最差劲的游客, 但是 Pew Research Center 的最新报告指出美国国家形象并未受到严重影响。同样是关于游客不当行为负面报道, 为何自古享有“礼仪之邦”美称的中国的要比实力雄厚的现代“超级大国”美国的国家形象遭受的损害更大?

为了解释上述问题背后的原理, 本文尝试探索“违德”和“违法”两类不同的游客不当行为对其国家形象的影响以及来源国刻板印象在其中的调节作用, 希望为美丽中国建设重要时期我国游客行为规范管理和旅游业健康发展提供一定的理论指导。

1. 文献回顾



1.1 游客不当行为

不当行为是指违背用以规范期望行为且普遍接受的一套准则的非正常行为(Fullerton & Punj, 1997)。伦理学、犯罪学、社会心理学和组织行为学等学科领域已经涵盖了大量不当行为的研究, 服务管理领域的专家和学者也对顾客不当行为(Customer Misbehavior, Dysfunctional Customer Behavior & Aberrant Customer Behavior)的类别(Daunt & Harris, 2012)、起因(Huang, Lin & Wen, 2010)、后果(Fullerton & Punj, 1997; Daunt & Harris, 2014)与管理(Yariv, 2012; 刘汝萍和马钦海, 2010)等方面展开了热烈的讨论和探索, 并将实施了顾客不当行为的顾客称之为问题顾客、不道德顾客或不良顾客等(刘汝萍和马钦海, 2010)。

具体到旅游服务业, 游客这个特殊群体是旅游活动开展的基础, 游客不当行为拓展了顾客不当行为的内涵。利己、模仿、文化差异和习惯性等动机通常会引发游客的不文明行为(李涛和陈芸, 2015), 而好奇心促使、环境认知匮乏和存在侥幸心理等原因则是诱导游客出现违法行为重要原因(龚胜生和熊琳, 2002)。游客不当行为可以分为协议型和社交型两类(Grove & Fisk, 1997), 前者是指违反物理和口头等方面协议期望的行为, 包括插队、随地吐痰和大声喧哗等不当行为, 后者是指不符合基本社交礼仪和规范的行为, 包括对同属游客冷漠、粗鲁和缺乏人性关怀的一些不当行为。国内学者郭鲁芳和张素从损害中国礼仪之邦外交形象、败坏社会风气和伤害目的地国家民众感情三个方面, 将游客的不当行为划分为失德行为、离轨行为和触禁行为。另外, 酒店行业中存在着暴力、毒品、赌博、偷窃和性服务等游客不当行为(Jones & Groenenboom, 2002; Gill, Moon, Polly & Turbin, 2002)。通过对餐饮、酒店和航空业的员工调查发现在 774 个关键事件中, 由问题顾客引起的服务不满意事件占据了 22% 的比例(Bitner, Booms & Mohr, 1994), 仅次于服务失败产生的不良影响。在旅游过程中, 游客不当行为的发生意味着面子的丢失, 而护面子需要能够加强游客对于自身不当行为的认知, 实现正向调节游客的道德行为(张翠娟和白凯, 2015)。通过回顾国内外学者对于游客不当行为的研究发现, 大多数研究聚焦于道德层面来分析游客的不文明行为(胡华, 2014; 李涛和陈芸, 2015), 从法律角度来探讨游客不当行为的研究相对较少。在评价行为的合理时, 学者们通常按照“道德”、“契约”和“法理”这三大类标准(刘汝萍和马钦海, 2010), 其中道德包含共同行为规范、公共道德等意义。鉴于此, 结合本文的研究需要, 我们将游客不当行为分为违情行为和违法行为。游客违情行为是指游客在旅游活动中对其他入、公共场所以及旅游环境等受体的行为违背了共同的价值观和情理准则。而游客违法行为是指游客的行为触犯了国内甚至国际法律规定, 给社会、个人和国家形象带来损害的违背法理的不当行为。

1.2 来源国刻板印象

由于研究关注的客体不同, 一些学者分别从产品和品牌等角度来界定来源国刻板印象, 从而形成国家固有印象、原产国刻板印象和品牌来源国刻板印象等概



念。来源国固有印象是消费者对于某一国家产品的印象、声誉和形象的感知(龚艳萍和吕慧, 2008), 原产国刻板印象内容受到某个特定国家政治、经济、文化以及代表性产品等因素的影响(江红艳, 王海忠和钟科, 2014)。品牌来源国刻板印象赋予了产品社会地位等一些象征性意义, 加强产品与国家认同感之间的联系, 并通过一定的规范和准则来影响消费者对于产品的认知和购买意愿(庞隽和毕圣, 2015)。此外, Phalet 和 Poppe 基于内隐人格理论, 从能力和道德这两个维度来界定民众对于来源国刻板印象的态度和感知。能力维度体现在执着、智慧、远见和尊重等方面。道德维度主要包含诚实、乐于助人、宽容和信任等社会期望的特质。

根据 Fiske 等人在 2002 年提出的刻板印象内容模型(Stereotype Content Model, SCM), 可以从能力(Competence)和温情(Warmth)两个维度来感知不同群体对于事件的刻板印象或偏见的差异性。能力被定义为目标群体(比如来源国)在与较高地位和声望关联的任务中被感知到的取得成功的才能。温情被定义为目标群体(比如来源国)被感知的对他人社会情感取向。

一个群体被感知比较强大并处于较高地位时能力就越强, 温情包含诚实、可信、热情、友好等属性。随后, 学者基于能力和温情维度进行了一系列对来源国刻板印象影响的研究。来自能力型国家的产品更多时候会被感知为功能型产品, 相反, 来自温情型国家的产品通常被感知为享乐型产品(Kramer, Chattalas, Takada H&Kuwashima)。而且, 更高的温情感知能够带来更大的享乐型产品性能的期望, 更高的能力感知能够带来更大的功能型产品性能的期望。但是来源国刻板印象对消费者行为的影响表现出非对称效应, 即能力感知均会对功能型和享乐型产形成购买意愿(Chattalas, 2015)。以往关于来源国效应的研究更多地关注能力感知对于品牌和一些具体领域产品的影响, 但是 Leung 等人的研究发现对温情型来源国印象的感知也会对产品购买意向产生正向调节作用, 并且比能力型来源国印象对产品失败事件的补救作用更显著。此外, 江红艳等人还证实了来源国刻板印象对于品牌丑闻对国家形象影响的调节作用。

综上所述, 刻板印象内容模型基本涵盖了上述道德维度的内涵。而且, Fiske 认为道德维度所包含的诚实、乐于助人和宽容等都属于社会温情的属性。所以, 本文主要基于能力和温情两个维度来探讨顾客不当行为对于国家形象的影响。

1.3 国家形象

国家形象(Country Image)由来源国形象(Country of Origin Image)的概念延伸而来, 自 1960 年以来, 学者们普遍认为来源国形象源自于消费者对某个国家的政治、经济、文化、科技、历史和产品等的形象感知(汪涛, 周玲, 周南, 牟宇鹏和谢志鹏, 2012)。1970 年, Nagashima 从单维构面提出来源国形象是基于企业家和消费者对一国产品的图片、名誉和刻板印象的感知, 这是目前引用最为广泛的定义。但是另一些学者认为这种单维度的概念很难操作化, 并从多个维度来分析来源国形象的内涵。Bilkey 和 Nes(1982)从整体国家形象(General Country Image)和整体产品形象(General Product Image)两个维度来界定来源



国形象, Parameswaran 和 Pisharodi (1994) 提出由于受到广告和促销等营销方法的影响, 来源国形象还应该包含具体产品形象 (Specific Product Image)。此外, 还有一些学者基于态度理论, 从认知、情感、规范 (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999) 和意动 (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) 等维度来界定来源国形象的内涵。

综上所述, 我们可以发现目前学者们关于来源国形象的定义主要从国际营销和消费者行为的视角来研究来源国形象的成因和维度。本文的研究对象是整体国家形象, 国家是否有能力生产和营销高质量的产品以及消费者对国家的心理认知的购买行为等因素不是本文的重点研究内容。因此, 本文界定国家形象是一个整合性的概念, 指人们对于某一特定国家的政治、经济、制度、科技、文化和人口等的总体印象和感知。

国家形象对不同领域的影响作用机制存在着一定的差异性, 具体来说, 国家形象的极性与该国产品形象的极性一致, 然而正面的目的地形象 (Destination Image) 并不一定意味着正面的国家形象 (张静儒, 陈映臻, 曾祺, 吴必虎 & Alastair, 2015)。根据公共外交理论, 国家在外交上的一切努力是为了更好地维护国与国之间的公共关系从而追求更好的国家权力和国家利益。国家形象的营销和传播可以获得更多他国民众的认知、喜爱、认同和理解, 成功实现国家形象的良性转换 (沈琬, 2013)。从民间外交的视角来看, 相比较大众媒体, 游客作为一种民间力量, 通过与旅游地国家的零距离接触所展示给他国民众的国家形象更加真实可信。游客自身的道德素质和法律意识不仅仅是个人面子需要的问题, 更是一个国家整体精神文明和法制文明必须提升的问题。基于此, 本文从国家形象的高度来反思游客不当行为。

2. 研究假设

2.1 游客不当行为与国家形象评价

与一般的旅游不同, 出境旅游是一个游客与旅游地之间跨文化交流的过程, 游客自身或者从母国所带来的文化在一定程度上表现为游客的行为。他国民众可以从游客的外表、性格和行为举止等多角度获得该游客形象的感知, 但是在最终评价个体形象的时候往往会归结到其来源国, 使游客贴上某国公民的标签。也就是说, 个体行为虽然表现出差异性, 但是其在旅游活动中直接参与到国家形象的塑造和传播, 形成统一的国家形象 (陈慧婷, 2015)。而且游客的不当行为会产生一定溢出效应, 造成目的地国家民众对其来源国国家负面形象感知的泛化。

根据自我服务偏见理论, 由于文化的隔阂以及自身道德素质的问题, 在国际旅游过程中, 游客表现出的违背情理的不当行为会更为普遍。按照人际传播学的思路, 相比违法行为, 游客违情行为发生的频率更大、范围更广并且时间更长久。而且很多违情行为真实地呈现在目的地民众的面前, 这种近距离直播的不当行为给目的地国家民众的印象会更为深刻 (Loi & Pearce, 2012), 从而饱受诟



病。所以，从国家形象传播的层面看，游客违情行为所造成的负面影响并不比违法行为所带来的消极影响小。

基于此，我们提出如下假设：

H1：相对于违法行为来说，游客的违情行为出现时，民众对其国家形象的评价更低。

2.2 国家形象与来源国刻板印象

虽然很多民众未曾到过其他国家去切身感受他国的文化，国际大众媒体通常会给他们创造出早期的某国国家形象印象。比如誉为礼仪之邦的中国、浪漫之都的法国、完美至上的德国以及品质取胜的日本等，这些刻板的印象认知会形成目的地国家民众对客源国游客行为的期望。这一期望取决于目的地国家民众对游客同属来源国国民的了解、来源国文化对游客行为的社会规范以及游客行为出现的情境三个因素。如果游客的行为与目的地国家民众的刻板认知形成的期望一致，那么对其国家形象的评价就会是正面的。根据期望破坏理论 (Expectancy Violation Theory)，当目的地国家民众的期望被破坏时，会唤起其的情绪，引起其对某一国家的关注，强化其对游客来源国国家形象的评价(史安斌，2004)。

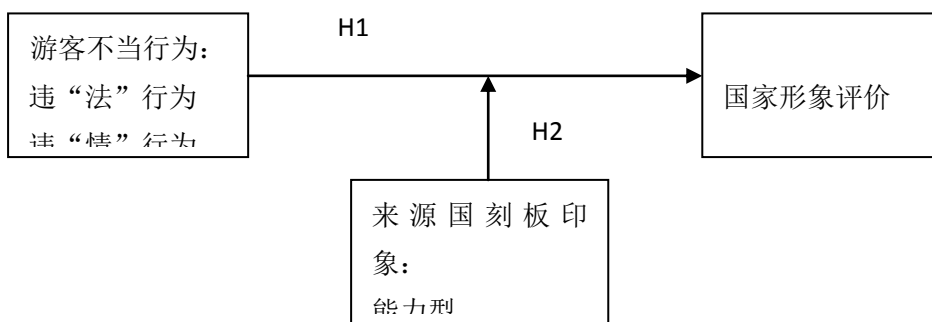
不同的目的地国家民众对于情理和法理的判断标准不同，但是不管他们对游客不当行为感知的差异性多大，游客不当行为对其来源国国家形象都会造成不良影响。理当以法为先，法治体现一个国家的治理能力(黄静，王新刚，张司飞和周南，2010)。当游客出现违法行为时，目的地国家民众对于能力印象国家的期望发生破坏，对其来源国国家形象的评价就会得以强化。文化建设是国家形象的基础，游客道德素质和价值观是文化建设的重要内容。当游客发生违情行为时，目的地国家民众会认为其来源国在文化融合方面出现了失调。

基于此，我们提出如下假设：

H2a：当游客出现违法行为时，相对于温情印象的国家，能力印象的国家的形象评价受到影响更大。

H2b：当游客出现违情行为时，相对于能力印象的国家，温情印象的国家的形象评价受到影响更大。

综上，本文构建的研究模型如图 1 所示。



设计

3. 研究



本研究主要采用实验研究方法，共进行了两个实验。首先，实验 1 验证相对于违法行为，游客违情行为的发生后，他国民众对其来源国国家形象的评价会更低的主效应，即检验 H1；然后，实验 2 探讨来源国刻板印象内容如何调节游客不当行为对其国家形象评价的影响，即检验 H2a 和 H2b。

3.1 刺激物的选择与量表设计

本研究共设计游客不当行为和来源国刻板印象内容这两种刺激物。本着尊重客观事实的原则，游客不当行为(违法和违情)及来源国刻板印象(能力型和温情型)的刺激材料均是根据新闻报纸以及有影响力的网站上搜集的真实材料进行摘要型描述编制而成，以便被试能够准确答题。在两种不同类型的不当行为阅读材料中，分别展示某国游客在违法和违情方面的负面信息。本研究中队自变量、调节变量和因变量的测量均采用成熟的量表，而且所有量表均采用李克特 7 分量表。具体情况如下所述。

(1) 游客不当行为。

游客不当行为事件的描述内容由游客来源国国名、不当行为事件及结果几个部分组成。设计两种测试材料，分别表达涉及某国游客违法行为和违情行为的事件。在有关违法行为事件材料中展现该国游客涉及扰乱公共秩序、危害公共安全、损毁文物遗产、参与黄赌毒、暴恐以及盗抢骗活动等信息。在有关违情行为事件材料中展现该国游客道德水平低下、文明素质不高以及不尊重目的地国家文化等信息。然后，编制违法和违情两种类型的游客不当行为的量表。我们在 Jones & Groenenboom (2002) 及龚胜生和熊琳(2002)编制的量表基础上，结合本研究的具体情境进行了修改，形成违法行为测量的 5 个题项：该行为危害了公共安全；该行为破坏目的地国家社会秩序；该行为是不爱护遗产和名胜古迹；该行为败坏了社会风气；该行为破坏了目的地社会稳定；我们在 Grove & Fisk(1997) 及郭鲁芳和张素(2008)编制的量表基础上结合本研究的具体情境进行了修改，形成违情行为测量的 6 个题项：该行为反映了游客的缺乏公德心；该行为反映了游客的环保意识差；该行为说明游客的同情心少；该行为说明了游客的自制能力弱；该行为说明游客不尊重劳动成果；该行为说明游客不尊重目的地文化。

(2) 来源国刻板印象

设计两种测试材料，分别表达涉及某国能力型和温情型两个维度的刻板印象。其中能力型国家印象的情景材料中展现该国在竞争力、能力和效率等方面的信息。我们在 Fiske (2002)编制的量表基础上，结合本研究的具体情境进行了修改，形成能力印象测量的 5 个题项：该国是一个综合国力很强的国家；该国是一个很自信的国家；该国是一个独立性很强的国家；该国是一个竞争力很强的国家；该国是一个很有智慧的国家。其中温情型国家印象的情景材料中展现该国温暖、友好和亲和的一面，我们在 Fiske (2002)编制的量表基础上，结合本研究的具体情境进行了修改，形成温情印象测量的 4 个题项：该国是一个很有



包容心的国家；该国是一个很热情的国家；该国是一个很友好的国家；该国是一个很真诚的国家。

(3) 国家形象的评价。

我们在 Parameswaran 和 Pisharodi(1994) 及 Lala , Allred 和 Chakraborty (2009) 编制的量表基础上进行删除和修改，形成对国家形象评价的 6 个问题项：我认为某国的经济比较发达；我认为某国是一个很好的合作伙伴；我认为某国注重对环境的保护；我认为某国非常友好和受人欢迎；我认为某国的公民受过良好的教育；我认为某国的公民非常可靠。

3.2 预测试

为了检验刺激材料能否有效地对游客不当行为及来源国刻板印象内容进行分类，提高正式试验中刺激的稳定性，我们进行了预测试。

(1) 预测试——游客不当行为的区分。

(2) 预测试——来源国刻板印象类型的区分。

3.3 实验 1：主效应验证

(1) 信度和效度检验

(2) 违情行为与违法行为的操控检验

(3) 国家形象的评价

3.4 实验 2：来源国刻板印象的调节效应验证

(1) 操控检验

(2) 来源国刻板印象的调节效应

4. 结论、启示与未来研究方向

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1978 年来我国旅游与经济发展波动周期的非同步性分析*

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摘要: 本文系统收集入境、国内旅游收入, 以及国内生产总值数据, 利用本底趋势线理论, 分析我国旅游与经济波动的周期, 结果发现: ①入境旅游、国内旅游及经济发展均存在多个时间长度不同的周期, 表现为波中有波, 波外有波; ②按经济学周期划分, 国内旅游发展存在朱格拉周期、基钦周期、库兹涅茨周期 3 种周期, 入境旅游和经济发展存在朱格拉周期、基钦周期、库兹涅茨周期、体制释放周期 4 种周期; ③入境旅游、国内旅游发展波动周期与经济发展波动周期具有明显的非同步性, 非同步时间长度在 1-3 年, 旅游发展有一定的抗经济周期性; ④在不同的波动周期阶段旅游对经济的带动作用和经济对旅游发展的促进作用强弱不同, 发展旅游业对延缓经济衰退速度, 加快经济复苏有重要意义。

经济型品牌连锁酒店网络关注度时空分布特征及形成机理—以如家快捷酒店为例*

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摘要: 收集 2014 年如家快捷酒店逐日网络关注度等相关数据, 利用季节性指数、基尼系数、重心模型等方法, 分析如家快捷酒店网络关注度时空分布特征及其形成机理, 结果发现: ①网络关注度受气候、节假日等因素影响较大, 以天为单位网络关注度年内变化呈锯齿状“M”形, 清明节、劳动节、端午节、国庆节等, 节前预定效应明显, 春节和中秋节, 节前预定效应不明显。②普通周内网络关注度变化呈不规则的“n”或“M”形, 一般周末网络关注度较低, 周一到周五日网络关注度总体呈增长趋势; 十一黄金周期间日网络关注度呈递减趋势, 春节期间网络关注度呈先增加后减少的变化趋势。③以月为单位网络关注度年内变化呈“M”形, 各月分布较平均, 季节性差异较小。④网络关注度空间分布受到各省人口数、网络普及率、移动手机普及率、受教育水平以及在营酒店数量等因素的影响, 主要分布在我国的中东部省区, 年内各月网络关注度空间分布具有明显的季节波动性。



浅析旅游 IP——旅游发展的新思路

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摘要：IP (Intellectual Property) 即知识产权，泛指文化产业领域中的文学小说、音乐歌曲、影视动漫、电子游戏等方面的内容版权，其形式可以多种多样，既可以是一个完整的故事，也可以是一个概念、一个形象甚至一句话。2015 年，影视 IP 的大热也引起了旅游业对 IP 的关注和思考，提出要打造旅游行业的优质 IP。

旅游 IP 的出现，反映了互联网思维下的旅游市场对旅游产品异质化的需求。越来越多的游客追求旅游体验的独特性，互联网思维下的价格战造成市场紊乱，旅游 IP 便应运而生。旅游 IP 其实就是一种文化创意，是独具个性和特色的。旅游 IP 的打造，就相当于将景区或者目的地“拟人化”，通过对资源的深度挖掘和梳理，将景区或目的地的核心内容和要素打造成独特卖点，通过场景勾勒、游客体验和社群传播，最终赋予其鲜明的个性特征，即其品牌形象。

目前旅游行业的 IP 多是由于景区或目的地营销，通过影视来带动为宣传造势。事实上，旅游 IP 的打造应该是方方面面的，不仅是产品方面的，还要渗透到服务、营销等环节，以及酒店、景区等旅游相关的行业，从产品、受众到产业链都应该以 IP 思维来促使其发展。把优质的目的地赋予故事元素，重塑或创造目的地在游客心中的概念，打造主题性旅游产品，然后以娱乐化社交媒体来传播。

华侨城集团投资经营海螺沟景区的风险分析

成都理工大学教授 傅广海

摘要：华侨城集团作为以旅游业务为主导的大型国有中央企业因投资建设经营主题公园闻名于世，擅长“文化+旅游+地产”，是跻身世界主题公园集团前八强的唯一亚洲企业。目前，华侨城集团与四川省甘孜州签订合作协议，拟投资 100 亿元对海螺沟景区进行整体开发，这是该集团首次尝试投资经营国家级风景名胜景区。海螺沟景区属于国家遗产型景区，并且是多区交融多头管理的景区。在当今国家公园管理体制开始在全国 9 个省市开始试点的背景下，华侨城拟占比 51% 股份入住海螺沟景区，对其进行整体打造尽管顺应了甘孜州地方政府“全域资源、全面规划、全境打造、全民参与”的全域旅游发展战略，但是因为面临诸多困难甚至风险。首先是开发规划如何与贡嘎山国家级风景名胜景区规划、贡嘎山自然保护区规划、海螺沟国家地质公园规划、海螺沟国家森林公园规划相衔接，建设项目如何选择、怎样落地？其次是贡嘎山海螺沟景区是否要建国家公园，是否要向国家公园管理体制转变？如果要建国家公园，华侨城集团的企业投资收益和经营利益是否还能持续？是继续控股经营还是转为特许经营？这些问题均值得深入研究。



民族社区居民参与乡村旅馆经营现状及问题研究

桂林理工大学旅游学院副教授 邓敏

摘要：近十年，民族地区乡村旅游迎来飞速发展，为了迎接大量涌入的游客，民族乡村地区居民陆续出现将当地社区居民旧居或新局改造或者改建成为为游客提供住宿和餐饮服务的民宿、客栈、酒店等，我们在这统称为乡村旅馆。在改建过程中，受乡村旅馆主人学识、素养、资金、服务理念等方面的影响，民族地区的乡村旅游呈现出不同的风格特色、服务项目，甚至有些乡村旅馆成为了民族旅游目的地的吸引物之一，在经营过程中陆续也发现了系列问题。文章用参与观察和访谈的方法，探寻民族地区乡村旅馆主人在乡村旅游经营过程中发挥的作用、存在的问题，并提出了民族社区居民参与乡村旅馆可持续发展的对策。

浙江民宿产业的集聚特征及形成机理研究

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摘要：近年来，民宿逐渐成为旅游活动中的一种新体验，它不只承载着住宿功能，还延伸着其他许多深入的体验，它以其特有的“慢生活、家服务、趣体验”，区别于标准化的传统星级酒店，一种更加多样化、个性化的住宿设施。对游客而言，民宿是游客探索当地传统文化、风俗人情以及生活方式的一个途径。对于当地居民而言，民宿有助于提高经济收入、促进当地的经济繁荣。浙江杭州西湖景区多片区域，乌镇、临安、德清莫干山、松阳、丽水、舟山朱家尖、嵊泗，奉化等地的民宿快速发展，并逐渐形成了集聚效应，其中德清环莫干山一带，目前有大大小小 300 多家民宿，其中“洋家乐”就有 60 多家。产业集聚，又称产业聚集、产业聚合，主要表征为产业活动在空间上的一种聚集。产业集聚的形成往往并不是偶然的，产业在某个区域内集聚至初具产业集群的雏形，往往是因为该区域的资源禀赋、区域社会文化环境、产业传统、产品差异化、产业竞争环境、机遇等因素起着重要的作用。研究者将深入分析浙江民宿产业集聚的特征及形成机理，从而来揭示浙江民宿产业集聚的生成规律，哪些因素在其产业集聚过程中起着重要的推动作用，本文的研究观点试图为浙江其他地区乃至全国的民宿产业发展提供积极的借鉴意义。



基于 CVM 视角的三峡国家公园管理制度研究

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摘要: 保护自然生态系统关乎国家生态安全和民族永续发展, 国家公园体制是被国际社会公认的保护自然生态的有效模式, 在生态文明、环境保护等问题上具有重要价值。建立国家公园体制, 实施主体功能区制度也在中国国家层面得到重视, 有关国家公园的学术探讨逐渐成为学界热点。论文运用 CVM 法测算三峡国家公园利益相关者对公园开发后的保护和门票的支付意愿 (WTP 值), 并对二者进行比较, 实质是从货币支付角度测度各利益主体对三峡国家公园的重视程度。然后运用 Logistic 分析不同利益主体对三峡国家公园保护的支付意愿的影响因素。在此基础上探讨三峡国家公园的社区参与、门票管理、机构设置及经营管理, 是国家公园体制在三峡库区实施的可行性探索, 研究结果对未来三峡国家公园乃至国内其他国家公园建设具有借鉴意义。

社会化媒体对旅游者行为意愿影响研究

五邑大学 李文俊

摘要: 社会化媒体作为一种发展势头迅猛的新型媒体, 对人们日常生活产生越来越重要的影响。随着经济的发展、交通的发达, 中国的旅游业也在迅速地发展壮大。作为新兴媒体之一的社会化媒体逐步成为旅游者收集旅游信息的重要渠道, 因此社会化媒体上的旅游信息对旅游者行为意向也会造成一定的影响。结合这一背景, 本文旨在通过研究社会化媒体与旅游者行为意向之间的关系, 为旅游目的地制定营销管理战略提供参考。

首先, 本文对社会化媒体的内涵进行分析, 对社会化媒体进行概念界定, 分析社会化媒体的特点。其次, 从实证研究的角度出发, 基于对 SPSS 的应用, 采用描述性数据分析和回归分析的方法得出社会化媒体的特点对旅游者行为意向不同方面所产生的影响, 并且在此基础上提出相关的意见和建议。最后对全文进行总结, 同时指出相关不足之处。



民宿众筹影响因素分析

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摘要：通过众筹模式解决民宿投资所需要的项目资金、设计灵感、营销渠道等是目前民宿创业的重要途径。本文基于符号分析法、内容分析法，抽样选取成功众筹的民宿的视频图片，发现影响民宿众筹成功的关键性因素。

基于收益管理的酒店价格显示策略对大学生订购意愿的影响

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摘要：收益管理最早起源于美国的航空业，随后在服务业尤其是酒店业中逐渐得到了广泛应用。目前国内外学者对酒店收益管理的研究主要集中在超额预订、需求预测、定价和客房分配四个方面，针对不同的细分市场并没有太多的研究。由于大学生消费群体有足够的闲暇时间、有较强的冒险精神和猎奇心理，有固定的经济来源但是支付能力不足，并且对价格比较敏感，这些导致了他们的特殊消费需求，而且随着我国高校的扩招，这一群体数量越来越大。因此本文主要采用访谈法和问卷调查法研究在没有团体价和协议价的情况下，在跨夜住宿中尤其是连续两晚的住宿中酒店的价格显示顺序对大学生订购意愿的影响，平均价格和非平均价格的显示方法会对大学生的订购意愿产生什么样的影响，即若两晚的总价格为 300 元，采用平均价格显示方法则房价显示为 150 元每晚，采用非平均价格显示方法，可能第一晚是 160 元，第二晚是 140 元或者第一晚 140 元，第二晚 160 元。在非平均价格的显示方法情况下，是价格由高到低的展示顺序更能吸引大学生，还是价格由高到低的价格展示顺序更能吸引大学生。研究结果显示，对于大学生来说非平均价格比平均价格的展示方法更具吸引力，在非平均价格的展示方法中，价格由高到低的显示顺序比价格由高到低的显示顺序能得到大学生的更高满意度。



不同类型旅游扶贫重点村农户参与旅游活动的方式及影响因素研究——以秦巴山区为例

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摘要: 2014年11月国家发改委等七部委联合下发了《关于实施乡村旅游富民工程推进旅游扶贫工作的通知》,并公布了各省第一批、第二批旅游扶贫重点村名单,秦巴山区作为脱贫攻坚的重点区域,了解旅游扶贫重点村农户参与旅游活动的方式及影响因素,对于秦巴山区指导旅游扶贫工作,制定旅游扶贫政策具有重要的意义。

本文选取了位于秦巴山区的陕西省安康市旅游扶贫重点村为研究对象,课题组于2015年11月15-20日对安康市汉滨区、宁陕县的5个乡镇、9个农村社区采用半结构性访谈方法进行了问卷调查,共获得了187份有效问卷。首先,本文根据相关文献,将影响农户参与旅游活动的因素划分为户主个体因素、农户家庭结构因素、家庭生产因素、家庭消费因素及村组织因素五个层面,根据这五个层面设计了调查问卷。其次,本文将187个农户区分为参与旅游活动的农户和未参与旅游活动农户,运用t检验,检验两类农户在五类影响因素的差异性。再次,运用相关分析,构建多元回归模型,分析农户参与旅游活动的各类影响因素的影响程度。根据研究结论,提出针对不同类型的旅游扶贫重点村可持续发展的对策。

国内在线旅游上市企业微博、微信营销内容研究

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摘要: 社交媒体在旅游营销中起到的作用越来越被重视,微博和微信因其在众多的社交媒体中拥有用户数量庞大、用户群体广泛、信息传播迅速、互动性强等特点被众多在线旅游企业所青睐。本文以携程旅行网、途牛旅游网、去哪儿网和艺龙旅行网这四家国内在线旅游上市企业的微博和微信公众号为研究对象,运用内容分析法,研究微博和微信在在线旅游企业营销中的应用现状,对比微博和微信在旅游营销中的差异和特点,为众多的在线旅游企业利用社交媒体进行营销提供参考和借鉴,同时探讨未来在线旅游企业运用微博、微信开展营销的管理对策。研究表明,首先,在线旅游企业的微博内容主要集中于软文资讯,直接的促销推广反而相对较少。而各企业的微信公众号在定位上主要提供在线预订、优惠活动以及在线客服等内容,促销推广的硬广告占比重最大。企业微博与微信的运用在内容上达到互补,功能上发挥各自优势。其次,各企业之间微博、微信营销的风格和策略存在差异。同时,微博和微信的内容和表现形式与营销效果之间存在关联。在线旅游企业微博和微信的组合实现“软硬兼施”



的营销模式，企业应该更加关注内容和表现形式对于营销推广作用的影响，更好地提升微博、微信营销效果。

滕王阁文化景区游客满意度影响因子分析——以携程游客评论为例

江西师范大学历史文化与旅游学院 许文柱

摘要：随着互联网+旅游的蓬勃发展，线上和线下旅游行业的加速融合，旅游虚拟社区游客攻略和评论，为分析景区游客满意度影响因子提供了重要数据来源。本文以文化景区滕王阁为研究样本地，运用 Rost CM6, UciCent6 以及 Nvivo10.0 分析工具，对携程网有关滕王阁近 2300 条游客评论进行扎根分析，研究表明游客对景区服务质量，价格水平，旅游吸引物以及旅游基础设施四个方面因素较为敏感。同时，文化景区的保护与开发之间存在极大矛盾，文化景区的历史底蕴以及现代化程度对游客满意度的形成影响重大。

基于游客视角的景区品牌资产模型构建

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摘要：旅游目的地品牌资产的构成、形成和测量向来是国内外学术界和实务界的难点。目前相关研究主要停留在游客视角，本文在对国内外游客视角的目的品牌资产研究进行系统梳理和评述基础之上，以态度的构成要素和态度行为关系为理论切入点，按照“认知-情感-行为”的基本逻辑体系，构建了涵盖游客对目的地品牌的认知和记忆、情感态度、行为等三层次的“五维”目的地品牌资产概念模型，探讨目的地品牌资产模型的空间普适性。以山岳型景区品牌庐山和三清山为例，经过验证性因子分析、因素恒等性检验发现，目的地品牌资产概念模型具有跨样本的稳定性和有效性。本研究拓展了目的地景区品牌资产定量研究方法，将结构方程模型成功应用于不同旅游目的地，对认清目标市场游客在消费心理、情感和行为方面的一般变化规律，为其建立强势品牌、制定和调整营销战略提供理论工具。



基于大数据的我国省域旅游客源市场信息系统的构建研究——奥地利

TourMIS 的启示

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摘要: 在互联网时代, 旅游业运行中产生的数据具有大数据的典型特质。目前, 旅游业数据类型有两类: 一是旅游微博、微信、视频网站、社交网站等产生的海量外部非结构化的数据, 另一类是经过多年信息化战略所产生的体量巨大的旅游产业内部结构化数据, 随着云计算时代的到来, 这些数据经过专业化处理, 能很好地实现数据的增值。

旅游是一项庞大、复杂的经济社会活动, 客源市场的需求特点、消费行为、消费水平、满意度等方面的信息对于区域旅游业的发展至关重要。目前, 仅靠官方现行的旅游统计数据, 很难全面科学地反映一个地区旅游产业的运行情况、客源市场的发展变化等。因此, 在大数据背景下, 构建由社会数据、旅游及相关部门统计数据相结合的旅游客源市场信息系统, 有利于各级政府进行产业运行情况分析, 对产业实施有效管理, 有利于企业进行产品设计及精准营销。本文将借鉴奥地利旅游市场信息系统, 结合我国各省旅游数据中心的建设, 探讨省域旅游客源市场信息系统的模块结构、数据来源、分析指标、数据加工技术等, 为省市各级政府、旅游企业等的发展提供精准的数据基础