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Author Index

A
Aaron Tkaczynski / 392
Aluo Luo / 35
Andrew McGovern Jr. / 292
Anna Litwin / 65
Anne Regina Lim / 151, 424
April Grace Murillo-Sacueza / 141
Arthur B. Estrella / 285
Atsushi Kawakubo / 366, 91, 94

B
Bailey M. Moody / 444
Barath Josiam / 292
Beatrix Mondenodo / 1
Ben Dewald / 501
Beom Soo Han / 497
Bernadeth Gabor / 151, 424
Bharath M. Josiam / 444
Bo Zhou / 251
Bob Mckercher / 104
Bomi Kang / 355
Bongkosh Rittichainuwat / 418
Brent Lovelock / 26
Bruce Prideaux / 136, 536
Burcin Kirlar Can / 126, 336

C
Callejo, Jasfher / 303
Carl Francis T. Castro / 290
Chaang-Iuan Ho / 363, 514
Chang Wang / 332
Chang-Hua Yen / 162, 167, 454
Chang-Yen Tsai / 270, 401
Chao Wang / 65
Charity Varona / 1
Chen Hui / 390
Cheng-Hsien Tsai / 162, 454
Chia-Ju Wu / 467
Chia-Yuan Hsu / 100
Chien-Lin Lin / 519
Chien-Pang Lin / 260
Chih-Hsing Liu / 270, 448, 464, 475
Chih-Hung Wang / 167
Chi-Min Wu / 216
Ching Li / 395
Choong-Ki Lee / 471
Chris Luk / 44
Chris Ryan / 114, 277, 288, 30, 390, 398
Christine Lim / 118
Chun-Fang Chiang / 231, 479
Cindy Lee / 185
Clement Kong Wing Chow / 155

D
Da-Chian Hu / 270, 401
Dae-Young Kim / 405, 77, 80
Deavelle Sauva / 1
Dong (Bruce) Yang / 418
Donghwan Yoon / 266

E
Ebru Gunlu / 126, 333, 336
Edmund Goh / 137, 185
Elaine Yulan Zhang / 40
Eric B. Zerrudo / 17
Erika Miyakawa / 94

F
Fang-I Kuo / 401
Fangxuan Li / 30
Fei Meng / 35
Francis Gladys B. Abad / 412

G
Giang Quach / 313, 4
Giedre Sadeikaitaite / 326
Golnaz Nazem / 49

H
Haebin Park / 307
Haiyan Kong / 435
Harold Bueno / 441
Hayato Nagai / 392
Hishin-Chih Hung / 50
Hossein Rezaei / 175
Hsiu-Yu Teng / 162
Hsuanwei Michelle Chen / 201
Huimin Gu / 409, 511
Hulya Yesilyurt / 126
Hyesun Kim / 471
Hyun Jeong Lee / 229

I
I-Chien Tsai / 467

J
Jame Monren Mercado / 17
Jane-Fuh Lu / 166
Jennifer Chen-Hua Min / 519
Jennifer Han / 122
Jeou-Shyan Horng / 270, 401, 448, 475
Jerome F. Agrusa / 359
Ji Eun Oh / 85
Jiang Guodong / 228
Jiann-Der Wu / 216
Jianwei Qian / 44, 57
Jingjing Yang / 277
Jingxue (Jessica) Yuan / 235
Joanne Jung-Eun Yoo / 471
Joanne Lofrano / 151, 424
John Jeri Dinozo / 533
Jose Wong / 340
Joseph Lema / 359
Judith Mair / 418
Jumyong Lee / 355
Jun-Long Chen / 504

K
Kaede Sano / 239
Kai Jiang / 6
Kailin Chang / 166
Kang Wook Cho / 497
Karlyne Domingo / 185
Kazumi Yamaguchi / 373
Ki-Joon Back / 321
Kunio Urakawa / 377
Kwang-Ho Lee / 492

L
Lertporn Parasakul / 134
Li Bin / 228
Li Cheng / 10
Liang Zhu / 118
Li-Chi Hsu / 167
Liduan Yang / 332
Linlin Huang / 332
Li-Pin (Lynn) Lin / 254
Li-Wei Liu / 451
Lorenzo Masiero / 57
Luhong Jiang / 108
Lynn Doneza / 205

M
Madalyn Scerri / 137
Maiko Nishida / 486
Mami Kadowaki / 207
Man-Ting Lo / 467
Marck Bryan David / 533
Marianna Strzelecka / 292
Marek R. Estrella / 285
Marilissa J. Ampuan / 285, 412
Masahiro Kanno / 280
Mehmet Ertas / 126, 336
Melanie Ritz / 359
Mi Sook Cho / 85
Michelle Thompson / 536
Mildred Mahapa / 158
Min Xu / 88
Ming Lei / 222
Ming-Chih Chen / 514
Ming-Hsiang Chen / 260
Mingjie Gao / 6
Ming-Yu Kan / 504
Ming-Yu Lin / 479
Miyoun Jeong / 243
Monica Padilla / 1
Myunghiee (Mindy) Jeon / 243

N
Nanxi Yan / 74
Natsumi Izu / 299
Ng Kok Meng / 389
Ning-Kuang Chuang / 62
Ningqiao Li / 251
Norsafizar Binti Mohd Noor / 389

O
Orbel S. Cepeda / 203

P
Patrick Lee / 501
Pei-Chi Sun / 162
Pei-Hsuan Chou / 467
Pengbo Li / 409, 511
Pierre Benckendorff / 392
Ping-Feng Hsia / 395
Pin-Ju Juan / 458, 467
Pi-shin Wey / 201
Priyanko Guchait / 122

Q
Qiao Guanghui / 136
Qin Liu / 346
Qin Yu / 228

R
Rachel Chen / 266, 317
Ralph Barnes / 55
Reiji Chubachi / 486
Reyman Gapas / 290
Richard Hatter / 57
Rick Wang / 501
Rini Hudiono / 483
Rob Law / 44, 57
Rosazman Hussin / 21
Roya Rahimi / 175
Ruhet Genc / 184
Rui Cai / 108
Ruona Ma / 129
Ruwan Ranasinghe / 10
Ryan Wu / 50
Ryoji Maeshima / 420

S
Sangmook Lee / 307
Sarah Mager / 26
Scott Richardson / 185
Sean (Sangwon) Jung / 179
Sendo Wang / 363
Seo Jin Kim / 85
Seob-Gyu Song / 80
Seong Hee Cho / 77
Seonjeong (Ally) Lee / 243
Setsuko Miyamoto / 247
Seulki Lee / 189
Seung Hyun Kim / 171
Seunghwan Lee / 77
Seung-Woo Choo / 221
Sha Zhu / 504
Shawn (Soocheong) Jang / 179
Sheng-Fang Chou / 270, 448, 464, 475
Sheng-Hshiung Tsaio / 167, 454
Shiheng Zeng / 98
Shiping Tong / 346
Shirley V. Guevarra / 428
Shu Luo / 321
Shu-Chun (Lucy) Huang / 254
Shu-Hua Chen / 519
Soey Lei / 40
Sonay Kaygalak Çelebî / 333, 336
Soner Söyler / 336
Soon-A Lee / 307
Stephen Shiring / 273
Stijn Reijnders / 88
Su-Hsin Lee / 363
Sun Hee Seo / 229
Sung-Bum Kim / 405
Suosheng Wang / 197

T
Tai Yi Huang / 444
Takashi Oguchi / 366, 373, 91, 94
Tatsuho Terasaki / 280
Tengfei (Chris) Xu / 114, 288
Tianyu Ying / 26
Tomomi Hanai / 366
Tongqian Zou / 108, 332

Tony Tse / 40
Tso-Jen Chen / 216
Tsong-Zen Liu / 444
Tsu-Hong Yen / 201, 211
Tsung-Cheng Huang / 216
Tsung-I Pai / 216
Tsungpo Tsai / 235, 458
Tsung-Yi Lin / 363
Tzu Lin Wei / 458

U
Ubaldino Couto / 65
Unji Baek / 189

V
Velan Kunjuraman / 21

W
Wei Wang / 352
Wendy Lam / 359
Weng Chou Wong / 129
Wenjun Xie / 118
Wen-Yu Chen / 100
WooMi Jo / 471

X
Xiang Li / 511
Xiao Hu / 26
Xiaodi Zhu / 222
Xiaoxia Guo / 332

Y
Ya-Ching Chuang / 458
Yang Xu / 171
Yanyan Fu / 39
Yasong Wang / 273
Yasuho Ohe / 376
Yaxing Zhao / 409
Ye Zhang / 74
Yen Ju Chen / 444
Yeong-hyun Hwang / 221
Yesaya Sandang / 483
Ye-Seul Na / 85
Yi Hsuan Wang / 458
Yi Hui Liang / 496
Yi-Chun Chiu / 467
Yi-Ju Tao / 444
Yim-meii Kiano Luk / 104
Ying-Chun Chen / 448
Ying-Hsiao(Rebecca) Lai / 451
Yinghua Huang / 201, 211
Yingying Zhao / 108
Yin-kai Huang / 50
Youhan Shi / 317
Young Hoon Kim / 292
Young-Joo Ahn / 214
Youn-Kyung Kim / 266
Yu Wang / 39
Yuan Liang / 62
Yu-Chieh Chang / 458
Yu-Chun Cheng / 458
Yue Ma / 68
Yuhua Wu / 346
Yukinori Watanabe / 247
Yu-Lan Yuan / 363, 514

Yu-Min Huang / 231
Yung-Chuan Huang / 464, 475
Yung-Kuei Huang / 467
Yu-Ya Chiu / 458

Z
Zhang Lingyun / 277
Zhang Shuai / 398
Zhao Kuan / 398
Zhao Tingting / 340
Zibin Song / 35
Zi-Hui Zeng / 100
Table of Contents
(Presented in Conference Schedule)

Tourism Marketing

TRAVEL DIARIES: A NARRATIVE ANALYSIS OF LEISURE TRAVEL EXPERIENCES OF FILIPINO YOUTH................................................................. 1
   Beatriz Mondonedo, Charity Varona, Monica Padilla, Deavelle Sauva,

* EXAMINING INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS’ SATISFACTION WITH HANOI TOURISM.............. 4
   Giang Quach

INDIVIDUALISM, COLLECTIVISM, AND TRAVEL MOTIVATION: A COMPARISON STUDY OF WESTERN BORN CANADIANS AND ASIAN BORN CANADIANS.............................................. 6
   Kai Jiang, Mingjie Gao

* TOURISM INDUCED MOBILITIES AND COMMODIFICATION OF INDIGENOUS COMMUNITIES: A COMPREHENSIVE STUDY ON VEDDA COMMUNITY IN SRI LANKA........... 10
   Runvan Ranasinghe, Li Cheng

Special Interests Tourism

KAIN, KUMAIN, KAKAIN: CULINARY HERITAGE TOURISM SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK – AN INTRODUCTION........................................ 17
   Jame Monren Mercado, Eric B. Zerrudo

IDENTIFYING POTENTIAL ECOTOURISM PRODUCTS IN COMMUNITY-BASED HOMESTAY PROGRAMME: A STUDY IN LOWER KINABATANGAN, SABAH, MALAYSIAN BORNEO........ 21
   Velan Kunjuraman, Rosazman Hussin

SUSTAINABLE WATER MANAGEMENT IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY:
A PRELIMINARY POLICY NETWORK ANALYSIS OF SINGAPORE........................................ 26
   Xiao Hu, Brent Lovelock, Sarah Mager, Tianyu Ying

NORTH KOREA – CHINESE TOURISTS’ EVALUATION OF THE “HERMIT KINGDOM”......... 30
   Fangxuan Li, Chris Ryan

Human Resource Management & Information Technology

EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES ON INTERNS’ JOB SATISFACTION THROUGH ASSIMILATION–SPECIFIC ADJUSTMENT FACTORS............... 35
   Fei Meng, Ailuo Luo, Zibin Song

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF FLEXIBLE WORKING ARRANGEMENT IN CHINESE HOTELS............................................................................... 39
   Yanyan Fu, Yu Wang

* LUXURY TRAVELERS: TRAVEL EXPERIENCE WITH MOBILE DEVICE.......................... 40
   Elaine Yulan Zhang, Soey Lei, Tony Tse

INFORMATION SEARCH AND SHARING AT DIFFERENT STAGES OF A TRIP.................. 44
   Jianwei Qian, Chris Luk, Rob Law
Poster Session I

TOURISTS' PERCEPTION OF HERITAGE AND THEIR PERCEPTION OF ACCEPTABLE BEHAVIOUR AT A HERITAGE SITE ................................................................. 49
Golnaz Nazem

A STUDY OF BRAND PERSONALITY AND TOURISM AESTHETIC EXPERIENCE A CASE OF SONGSHAN CULTURAL PARK IN TAIPEI ................................................................. 50
Hishin-Chih Hung, Ryan Wu, Yin-kai Huang

WHAT STRATEGIES ARE THERE FOR ENGAGING AND DEVELOPING THE CROSS-CULTURAL CAPACITY & CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE (CQ) OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS AND FUTURE HOSPITALITY MANAGERS WITHIN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION? ................................................................. 55
Ralph Barnes

AN ANALYSIS OF HOTEL WEBSITE VISITORS' ONLINE BEHAVIOR ................................................................. 57
Jianwei Qian, Rob Law, Lorenzo Masiero, Richard Hatter

FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS' INDECISIVENESS ABOUT CAREER CHOICES ................................................................. 62
Yuan Liang, Ning-Kuang Chuang

MACAO'S HALLMARK EVENTS: WHAT ARE THE POSSIBILITIES? ................................................................. 65
Chao Wang, Ubaldino Couto, Anna Li Wu

AN EXPLORATION OF TOURISM OPERATORS' ENGAGEMENT IN CO-CREATION PROCESS: CHINESE TOURISM IN REGIONAL AUSTRALIA ................................................................. 68
Yue Ma

WHAT MAKE TOURIST DISSATISFIED? AN APPLICATION OF MINING TRAVEL BLOGS ................................................................. 74
Nanxi Yan, Ye Zhang

THE EFFECT OF HOTEL BRAND EXTENSION ON CUSTOMER RESPONSES ................................................................. 77
Dae-Young Kim, Seunghwan Lee, Seong Hee Cho

WHICH CAME FIRST, CHICKENS OR EGGS? - AN ANALYSIS ON THE TOURISM-ECONOMY CAUSALITY FOCUSING ON CHINA, JAPAN, AND SOUTH KOREA ................................................................. 80
Seob-Gyu Song, Dae-Young Kim

DISCOVERING THE VALUE OF REGIONAL HEAD FAMILY’S FOOD TOURISM IN KOREA ................................................................. 85
Mi Sook Cho, Seo Jin Kim, Ye-Seul Na, Ji Eun Oh

BECOMING EXTRAS: EXPERIENCES BEYOND FILM TOURISM AT CHINA’S HENGDIAN WORLD STUDIOS ................................................................. 88
Min Xu, Stijn Reijnders

Mental Health I

* EFFECTS OF TRAVEL AND ITS RECOLLECTION ON SUBJECTIVE HAPPINESS ................................................................. 91
Atsushi Kawakubo, Takashi Oguchi
* Effects of Travel Experiences on Job Performance of Employees in a Japanese Company .......................................................... 94
  Erika Miyakawa, Atsushi Kawakubo, Takashi Oguchi

* The Relationship among Service Quality, Future Behavioral Intentions and Subjective Well-Being: A Case Study of Chinese Sport Tourists in Jeju Island .......................................................... 98
  Shiheng Zeng

Exploring the Relationships of Employees’ Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Labor and Organizational Commitment at Five-Stars Hotels in Taiwan ........................................................................ 100
  Zi-Hui Zeng, Chia-Yuan Hsu, Wen-Yu Chen

** Tourism Marketing 2

* The Changes of Travel Pattern in the Transition of Parenthood ........... 104
  Yim-mei Kiao Luk, Bob Mckercher

Comparative Study on Beijing Tourism Images between Home and Abroad: A Web Text Based Study ........................................ 108
  Rui Cai, Luheong Jiang, Yingying Zhao, Tongqian Zou

Chinese Backpackers: Appraisals of Motivation and the Problems of Internet Based Surveys or How a Simple Survey Went Wrong! ................................................................. 114
  Tengfei (Chris) Xu, Chris Ryan

** Special Issue 1

Forcasting Singapore Tourist Arrivals Using Copula Method: High Dimensional Case .......................................................... 118
  Liang Zhu, Christine Lim, Wenjun Xie

* Exploring the Relationship of Individual Error Management, Service Recovery Performance, and Customer Satisfaction: Mediating Role of Self-Efficacy .................................................. 122
  Jennifer Han, Priyanka Guchait

* Tourism and Commodification Relationship in the Globalized World: A Conceptual Model Proposal ........................................ 126
  Burcin Kirlar Can, Mehmet Ertas, Ebru Gunlu, Hulya Yesilyurt

** Tourism Marketing 3

The Role of Transactional Satisfactions and Overall Travel Satisfaction on Tourist’s Revisit Intention ........................................ 129
  Weng Chou Wong, Ruona Ma

* Travel Motivations and Attitudes Towards the Hosts Affecting the Satisfaction of the Chinese Tourists Visiting Thailand ............ 134
  Lerorporn Parasakul

* The Influence of Begging on Inbound International Tourists in China ...... 136
  Qiao Guanghui, Bruce Prideaux
Education

PRINCIPLES OF ACCOUNTING: A DIRTY WORD AMONG HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM STUDENTS ................................................................. 137
Edmund Goh, Madalyn Scerri

THEORY AND PRACTICE GAP USING THE COMPETENCIES SET BY TECHNICAL AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY (TESDA) AS A BASIS FOR CURRICULUM REVISION--- 141
April Grace Murillo-Sacueza

THE OPPORTUNITIES AND EFFECTS OF IT-BASED KNOWLEDGE AS BASIS FOR ENHANCED CURRICULUM IN TOURISM PROGRAM........................................................................................................... 151
Joanne Lobrino, Bernadeth Gabor, Anne Regina Lim

Human Resource Management

PASSENGER SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING IN THE CHINESE AIRLINE INDUSTRY ................................................................................................................................. 155
Clement Kong Wing Chow

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM IN ZIMBABWE. THE CASE OF SELECTED SMALL TO MEDIUM HOTELS IN GWERU. ................................................................................................................................. 158
Mildred Mahapa

JOB RESOURCEFULNESS AND PROSOCIAL SERVICE BEHAVIORS IN HOTEL FIRMS: THE ROLE OF WORK ENGAGEMENT ................................................................................................................................. 162
Hsin-Yu Teng, Chang-Hua Yen, Cheng-Hsien Tsai, Pei-Chi Sun

Tourism Marketing

THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG TOURISM ANIMATED ENDORSER CREDIBILITY, RISK PERCEPTION AND ADVERTISING EFFECT: A ANIMATED ENDORSER CREDIBILITY ON MAOKONG AREA OF THE CASE ................................................................................................................................. 166
Kailin Chang, Jane-Fuh Lu

TOURIST-RESIDENT CONFLICT: A SCALE DEVELOPMENT................................................................................................................................. 167
Chang-Hua Yen, Sheng-Hsiuang Tsaur, Chih-Hung Wang, Li-Chi Hsu

THE MOTIVATING IMPACT OF HOTEL ONLINE REVIEWS AND PRICE ON CONSUMER BOOKING INTENTION................................................................................................................................. 171
Yang Xu, Seung Hyun Kim

Marketing

IMPLEMENTING CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ................................................................................................................................. 175
Roya Rahimi, Hossein Rezaei

IS THERE UPPER BOUND IN DEMAND FOR RESTAURANTS? A SPATIAL ECONOMICS APPROACH TO IDENTIFY DEMAND................................................................................................................................. 179
Seun (Sangwon) Jung, Shawn (Soocheong) Jung

THE VALUE OF GASTRONOMY IN HOSPITALITY ................................................................................................................................. 184
Ruhet Genc
Human Resource Management 2

IS THERE LIGHT AT THE END OF THE HOSPITALITY CAREER TUNNEL FOR FEMALE HOSPITALITY STUDENTS? ................................................................. 185
Karlyne Domingo, Edmund Goh, Scott Richardson, Cindy Lee

HOW DO SERVICE TEAM RESOURCES AFFECT JOB PERFORMANCE?
A DIARY STUDY ......................................................................................... 189
Seulki Lee, Unji Baek

*AN INTEGRATIVE LOOK AT LEISURE TRAVEL OUTCOMES AND LIFE SATISFACTION AMONG CHINESE EMPLOYEES ........................................ 197
Suosheng Wang

EXPLORING APPLICATIONS OF COGNITIVE COMPUTING IN SMART
DESTINATION MANAGEMENT ................................................................. 201
Yinghua Huang, Tsu-Hong Yen, Hsuanwei Michelle Chen, Pi-shin Wey

ECONOMIC GAINS OF TOURISM IN THE GOOD GOVERNANCE OF THE CITY OF NAGA, PHILIPPINES ................................................................. 203
Orhel S. Cepeda

LEVEL OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN THE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF
PANGUIL RIVER ECOPARK IN LAGUNA, PHILIPPINES ............................ 205
Lynn Donesa

THE EFFORT TO DEVELOP RESIDENTIAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM INDICATORS (STI)
FOR JAPAN’S OKU-NIKKO AREA: ON THE RESIDENTS’ PERCEPTION
QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY ........................................................................ 207
Mami Kadowaki

USING DATA ENVENLPEMENT ANALYSIS TO BENCHMARK HOTEL EFFICIENCY:
A CASE OF HOTEL PERFORMANCE IN SILICON VALLEY, CALIFORNIA ................................................................................. 211
Yinghua Huang, Tsu-Hong Yen

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES
IN HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY IN SOUTH KOREA ........... 214
Young-Joo Ahn

HOTEL SUPERVISOR AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP, EMPLOYEE MINDFULNESS,
THRIVING AT WORK, AND HELPING BEHAVIOR .................................... 216
Chi-Min Wu, Tso-Jen Chen, Tsung-Cheng Huang, Tsung-I Pai, Jiunn-Der Wu

APPROPRIATE SERVICE ATTRIBUTES FOR OPTIMIZING THE “MINBAK” OPERATION ...... 221
Seung-Woo Choo, Yeong-hyun Hwang

ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, BURNOUT, DEPRESSION SYMPTOMS
AND JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG CHINESE ECONOMY HOTEL EMPLOYEES .......... 222
Ming Lei, Xiaodi Zhu

*THE EVOLVING SOCIAL ROLE OF CHINESE HOTELS SINCE 1949:
BASED ON DATA FROM PEOPLE’S DAILY (1949–2013) .............................................. 228
Qin Yu, Li Bin, Jiang Guodong
PREDICTING RESTAURANT OPERATORS’ INTENTION TO SUSTAIN HEALTHY RESTAURANT BY THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR AND INNOVATION ADOPTION THEORY ........................................ 229
Sun Hee Seo, Hyun Jeong Lee

Consumer Behavior

*EXPLORING THE IMPACTS OF BRAND IMAGE AND TRUST ON BRAND EXTENSION ATTITUDE IN TAIWAN’S HOTELS: THE MODERATE OF PRODUCT CATEGORY FIT .......................................................... 231
Chun-Fang Chiang, Yu-Min Huang

EXAMINING THE ANTECEDENTS OF A CONSUMER’S FLOW EXPERIENCE WHEN BOOKING HOTEL ROOMS ONLINE .................................................................................. 235
Tsungpo Tsai, Jinxue (Jessica) Yuan

Information & Technology 1

WHY DO THEY USE SOCIAL MEDIA TO ORGANIZE VACATION TRIP? EXPLORE THE EFFECT OF ATTITUDE, BENEFIT AND INCENTIVE ON TOURISTS’ INTENTION OF USING SOCIAL MEDIA ......................................................... 239
Kaede Sano

*EFFECTS OF SOCIAL INFLUENCE ON CUSTOMERS’ MOTIVATIONS AND THEIR BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS: IN BED AND BREAKFAST VIRTUAL ENVIRONMENT ........................................... 243
Myunghee (Mindy) Jeon, Soonjeong (Ally) Lee, Miyoung Jeong

Special Issue 2

WORKING ENGLISH IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN JAPAN: FROM AN ELF PERSPECTIVE .......................................................................................................................... 247
Setsuko Miyamoto, Yukiinori Watanabe

*THE IMPACT OF THE HIGH-SPEED TRAIN ON REGIONAL TOURISM ECONOMIES: EVIDENCE FROM CHINA ............................................................................. 251
Bo Zhou, Ningqiao Li

Corporate Social Responsibility 1

MODELING DRIVERS OF SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY OF TAIWANESE TOUR OPERATORS IN REDUCING GHG EMISSIONS ........................................................................ 254
Li-Pin (Lynn) Lin, Shu-Chun (Lucy) Huang

CORPORATE GIVING DECISION OF HOSPITALITY FIRMS IN A DUOPOLISTIC COMPETITION MODEL ........................................................................................................ 260
Ming-Hsiang Chen, Washington State University, Chien-Pang Lin

THE IMPACTS OF HOTELS’ CSR MARKETING ON CONSUMERS’ RESPONSES AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS ........................................................................ 266
Donghwan Yoon, Youn-Kyung Kim, Rachel Chen

IMPROVING SUSTAINABLE INNOVATION IN TOURISM INDUSTRY: THE PERSPECTIVE OF INNOVATION DIFFUSION ........................................................................ 270
Jeou-Shyan Horng, Chang-Yen Tsai, Chih-Hsing Liu, Sheng-Fang Chou, Da-Chian Hu
**Destination Marketing 1**

*CULTURAL REPRESENTATION THEORY IN CONSTRUCTING REPRESENTATIONS FOR U.S.A. IN CHINESE AND U.S. GUIDEBOOKS* ..................................................... 273  
Yasong Wang, Stephen Shiring

VISITORS’ MOTIVES TO KANAS: DETERMINANTS AND IMPLICATIONS ................................................................. 277  
Jingjing Yang, Chris Ryan, Zhang Lingyun

A STUDY OF STRUCTURAL CHANGES IN THE COLLABORATION OF STAKEHOLDERS IN THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPING COMMUNITY–BASED TOURISM, AND THEIR CAUSES …… 280  
Masahiro Kanno, Tatsuo Terasaki

*COMMUNITY–BASED TOURISM (CBT) IN BAGOLATAO, MINALABAC, CAMARINES SUR, PHILIPPINES: A CASE STUDY ON COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION* …… 285  
Mariel R. Estrella, Marilissa J. Ampuan, Arthur B. Estrella

**Ecotourism**

LOCAL RESIDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS ON ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM IN MT. PINATUBO …… 288  
Tengfei (Chris) Xu, Chris Ryan

*DUMAGATS AS ENVIRONMENTAL STEWARDS AND THEIR ROLE IN SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT USING TRADITIONAL ECOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE* …… 290  
Carl Francis T. Castro, Reyman Gapas

A GREENER FESTIVAL: THE AGENT OF CHANGE …… 292  
Marianna Strzelecka, Young Hoon Kim, Andrew McGovern Jr., Barath Josiam

TOURIST PREFERENCES FOR ECOTOURISM IN AMAMI OSHIMA: CHOICE EXPERIMENT IN THE RUN–UP TO THE DESIGNATION AS A WORLD NATURAL HERITAGE SITE …… 299  
Natsumi Izu

**Poster Session 3**

CONFLICT OF LAWS: A CASE STUDY OF THE PHILIPPINE TOURISM PROMOTIONS BOARD …… 303  
Callejo, Jaspher

THE EFFECT OF TANGIBLE AND INTANGIBLE HEALTHY FOOD CLUES ON FULL–SERVICE RESTAURANT CONSUMERS: BASED ON HEALTH BELIEF THEORY …… 307  
Haebin Park, Soon-A Lee, Sungmook Lee

MEASURING THE DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS TO GAIN A COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE: A CASE STUDY OF VIETNAM AS A DEVELOPING TOURIST DESTINATION …… 313  
Giang Quach

WHAT FACTORS MOTIVATE CONSUMERS TO SPREAD EWOM? …… 317  
Youhan Shi, Rachel Chen

A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CHINESE TRAVELER RELATED RESEARCH …… 321  
Shu Luo, Ki-Joon Back
BUSINESS CASE FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM: SUPPORTING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT THROUGH IMPROVED BUSINESS PERFORMANCE ........................................ 326
  Gedre Sadeikaitė

STUDY ON NORDIC RESIDENTS’ PERCEPTION AND COGNITION OF BEIJING TOURISM IMAGE – A CASE STUDY OF DENMARK AND NORWAY ........................................... 332
  Linlin Huang, Tongqian Zou, Xiaoxia Guo, Chang Wang, Liduan Yang

WHAT IS THE CHALLENGE OF TURKEY IN THE LGBT TOURISM?
FROM THE PERPECTIVES OF IGLTA ................................................................. 333
  Sonay Kaygalal Çelebi, Ebru Gultu

*THE USER-GENERATED CONTENT EVALUATIONS OF CHINESE RESTAURANTS IN TURKEY IN TERMS OF CUSTOMER SATISFACTION ............................................. 336
  Mehmet Ertas, Burcin Kirtar Can, Sonay Kaygalal Çelebi, Soner Söyler, Ebru Gultu

ANALYZING THE EFFECT OF SATISFACTION DURING DIFFERENT TRAVEL STAGES ..................................................... 340
  Zhao Tingting, Jose Wong

STUDY ON RELATIONSHIPS AMONG WORKPLACE SOCIAL SUPPORT, EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT WITH HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES ....... 346
  Shiping Tong, Yuhua Wu, Qin Liu

Information & Technology 2

IS TECHNOLOGY CONGRUENCE A FACTOR AFFECTING TOURISTS’ PRICE TOLERANCE AND PURCHASE INTENTIONS? ............................................................... 352
  Wei Wang

DIGITAL MARKETING COMPETITIVENESS OF DESTINATION MARKETING ORGANIZATIONS AND CONFERENCE CENTERS IN SOUTH EAST ASIA .................. 355
  Junyong Lee, Bomi Kang

AIRBNB – IS THE HOTEL INDUSTRY READY? ...................................................................... 359
  Melanie Ritz, Jerome F. Agrusa, Joseph Lema, Wendy Lam

INFORMATION MANAGEMENT CAPABILITIES OF DMOS: A CASE STUDY .......................... 363
  Yu-Lan Yuan, Chaung-Iuan Ho, Sendo Wang, Tsung-Yi Lin, Su-Hsin Lee

Mental Health 2

DOES TALKING ON SOCIAL NETWORKING SERVICES ABOUT VACATION EXPERIENCES CONTRIBUTE TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING? ......................... 366
  Tomomi Hanai, Atsushi Kawakubo, Takashi Oguchi

EFFECTS OF MANAGEMENT COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION ON EMPLOYEES’ DEPRESSION AND INTERPERSONAL SERVICE .................................. 373
  Kazumi Yamaguchi, Takashi Oguchi

OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES OF EMERGING FOREST–THERAPY TOURISM:
EVIDENCE FROM JAPAN .................................................................................... 376
  Yasuo Ohe
ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF MENTAL HEALTH TOURISM FOR WORKING PERSONS AT KYUSHU DISTRICT IN JAPAN: EVIDENCE BY INTER–INDUSTRY ANALYSIS
Kunio Urakawa

**Special Interests Tourism 2**

IMPAKTOS OF ELECTRONIC DANCE MUSIC TOWARDS SOCIAL HARMONY:
THE MALAYSIAN PERSPECTIVE
Ng Kok Meng, Norsafizar Binti Mohd Noor

SATISFACTION AMONG VISITORS TO THE SHAANXI HISTORY MUSEUM
– A PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS.
Chen Hui, Chris Ryan

MAKING LOCAL FRIENDS DURING A WORKING HOLIDAY EXPERIENCE IN AUSTRALIA
Hayato Nagai, Pierre Benckendorff, Aaron Tkaczynski

KEY TYPES OF RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES TO EFFECT ON TOURIST POPULATION AND TICKET SALES IN NATIONAL FORESTRY RECREATION AREAS, TAIWAN
Ching Li, Ping-Feng Hsia

**Corporate Social Responsibility 2**

DOES CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY MATTER TO THE HOTEL GUEST? DO GUESTS KNOW ABOUT SUCH POLICIES? A STUDY OF CHINESE HOTEL GUESTS’ PERCEPTIONS AND INTENTIONS TO STAY.
Zhao Kuan, Chris Ryan, Zhang Shuai

CONSTRUCTION ETHIC AND CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY – TAIWAN HOTEL INDUSTRY’S PERSPECTIVE
Chung-Yen Tsai, Jeou-Shyan Horng, Fang-I Ku, Da-Chian Hu

THE INFLUENCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, ABILITY, REPUTATION, AND TRANSPARENCY ON U.S. HOTEL GUESTS’ LOYALTY: THE MODERATING ROLE OF GENDER
Sung-Bum Kim, Dae-Young Kim

*STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY ON HOTEL EMPLOYEES, TURNOVER INTENTION: ORGANIZATION IDENTIFICATION AS AN INTERMEDIARY
Huimin Gu, Pengbo Li, Yaxing Zhao

**Destination Marketing 2**

ADAPTIVE CAPACITY OF THE LGUs ON CLIMATE CHANGE IN SELECTED TOURISM DESTINATIONS IN CAMARINES SUR
Marilissa J. Ampuan, Francis Gladys B. Abad

IMAGE OF THAILAND AS A BUSINESS TOURIST DESTINATION FROM THE PERCEPTION OF BUSINESS AND LEISURE CHINESE TOURISTS
Bongkosh Rittichainuwat, Judith Mair, Dong (Bruce) Yang
*METEORIC CHANGE OF CHINESE CRUISE MARKET AND PROSPECTS ON JAPANESE DESTINATIONS – A CASE STUDY OF FUKUOKA BETWEEN 2010 AND 2015—............. 420
Ryoji Maeshima

ESTABLISHMENT OF TOURISM CENTER IN BATAAN PENINSULA STATE UNIVERSITY—-424
Joanne Lobrino, Bernadeth Gabor, Anne Regina Lim

□ Special Interests Tourism 3
SAN MIGUEL DE MAYUMO’S PASTILLAS DE LECHE PABALAT (BORLAS DE PASTILLAS): A “DYING” CULTURAL HERITAGE?................................. 428
Shirley V. Guevarra

TRAVELLING TO SOUTH KOREA: EVALUATION OF CRUISE SERVICE.................. 435
Haiyan Kong

□ AGRITOURISM: GOVERNMENT MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL THROUGH SUSTAINABILITY AND TOURISM ECONOMIC STABILITY IN THE PHILIPPINES—-441
Harold Bueno

□ THE INFLUENCE OF FILM ON TAIWANESE TOURIST BEHAVIORS: THE INVOLVEMENT CONSTRUCT.................................................. 444
Bharath M. Josiam, Yi-Ju Tao, Yen Ju Chen, Tai-Yi Huang, Bailey M. Moody, Tsong-Zen Liu

□ Poster Session 4
THE PERCEPTION OF SUSTAINABLE, VALUE EVALUATION AND DESTINATION CHOICE........................................................................ 448
Chih-Hsing Liu, Sheng-Fang Chou, Ying-Chun Chen, Jeou-Shyan Horng

EVENT TOURISM: AN EXAMINATION OF VISITORS’ MOTIVATION, LEISURE BENEFIT, AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTION............................ 451
Ying-Hsiao(Rebecca) Lai, Li-Wei Liu

EXPLORING TOUR LEADERS’ JOB CRAFTING.................................................. 454
Sheng-Hsiuh Tsaur, Chang-Hua Yen, Cheng-Hsien Tsai

□ THE STUDY OF BRAND ATTITUDE IN FACTORY TOURS..................................... 458
Pin-Ju Juan, Tsungpo Tsai, Yu-Chieh Chang, Tzu Lin Wei, Yu-Ya Chiu, Yi Hsuan Wang
Yu-Chun Cheng, Ya-Ching Chuang

DESTINATION BRAND EQUITY MANAGEMENT: BUILDING, MEASURING, AND EXAMINATION OF NIGHT MARKET TOURISM........................ 464
Chih-Hsing Liu, Yung-Chuan Huang, Sheng-Fang Chou

THE STUDY OF LEISURE CONSTRAINTS OF TAIWANESE PEOPLE...................... 467
Pin-Ju Juan, Yung-Kuei Huang, I-Chien Tsai, Yi-Chun Chiu, Man-Ting Lo,
Pei-Hsuan Chou, Chia-Ju Wu

THE EFFECTS OF COUNTRY IMAGE ON QUALITY AND VALUE OF CRUISE TRAVEL PRODUCT................................................................... 471
WooMi Jo, Choong-Ki Lee, Hyesun Kim, Joanne Jung-Eun Yoo
PROMOTING SUSTAINABLE INNOVATION ABILITY THROUGH THE ACCUMULATION OF TECHNOLOGY APPLICATION AND ORGANIZATION ENVIRONMENT: A CASE STUDY IN TAIWAN

Sheng-Fang Chou, Jeou-Shyan Horng, Chih-Hsing Liu, Yang-Chuan Huang

475

DO SERVICE BRAND ORIENTATION MATCH EMPLOYEES’ FIT AND IMPACT THEIR BRAND CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR?

Ming-Yu Lin, Chun-Fang Chiang

479

Special Issue 3

THE HOTEL INDUSTRY AND HUMAN RIGHTS: A PRELIMINARY STUDY IN JOGJAKARTA

Yesaya Sandang, Rini Hudiono

483

THE ROOT OF TOURISM IN JAPAN FROM A PERSPECTIVE OF THE SUICIDE RATE OF THE AGED PEOPLE IN AKITA PREFECTURE

Maiko Nishida, Reiji Chubachi

486

A COMMUNICATION-BASED MARKETING MODEL FOR POST-DISASTER TOURISM DESTINATIONS

Kwang-Ho Lee

492

APPLYING THE HYBRID FORECASTING MODEL FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN TAIWANE

Yi Hui Liang

496

Marketing 2

EXPLORING THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TOURISM EXPERIENCE, AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY, AND REVISIT INTENTION

Kang Wook Cho, Beom Soo Han

497

SERVICE CHARGES AND TIPPING: A CASE STUDY OF THE SHANGHAINANE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Ben Dewald, Patrick Lee, Rick Wang

501

FAMILY DOMESTIC TRAVEL MOTIVATION, PREFERENCE, AND IMPORTANT-PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

Jun-Long Chen, Ming-Yu Kan, Sha Zhu

504

STUDY ON CHINA HOTELS’ ENTRY MODE OF INTERNATIONAL MARKET UNDER RESOURCE BASED VIEW: BASED ON COMPARISON OF HOTEL COMPANIES IN JAPAN AND CHINA

Huimin Gu, Pengbo Li, Xiang Li

511

Special Interests Tourism 4

AN EMPIRICAL TEST OF A MODEL OF INFORMATION ACQUISITION AND SHOPPING FOR FOOD SOUVENIRS

Chaung-Iuan Ho, Yu-Lan Yuan, Ming-Chih Chen

514

EVALUATING SERVICE QUALITY OF AGRITOURISM: THE TAIWAN CASE

Jennifer Chen-Hua Min, Shu-Hua Chen, Chien-Lin Lin

519
TOURIST PREFERENCES ON A SHOPPING TOURISM DESTINATION IN METRO MANILA, THE PHILIPPINES ................................................................. 533
  Marck Bryan David, John Jeri Dinozo

* MODELLING TOURISM IN AGRICULTURAL REGIONS: A NEW APPROACH TO CONCEPTUALISING AND UNDERSTANDING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT ............................................ 536
  Michelle Thompson, Bruce Prideaux

* Full paper was submitted and reviewed for the inclusion of presentation.
TRAVEL DIARIES: A NARRATIVE ANALYSIS OF LEISURE TRAVEL EXPERIENCES OF FILIPINO YOUTH

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INTRODUCTION

Social media, often used as a means for fast and efficient information dissemination has transformed the travel industry with its new role throughout the travel process and as a major source of travel inspiration (Bosangit, et al., 2015). Youth, ages 18 to 25 are usually the early adapters and primary consumers of social networking sites (Blumenberg, et. al., 2012), and studies have since recognized the influence of social media on consumer behavior and travel process (Fotis, Buhalis & Rossides, 2012; Blumenberg et. al., 2012).

Several definitions of leisure travel may arise across groups of people, but a unique meaning may be formed in an individual’s own interpretive frame (Krauss, 2005). As different perspectives arise from collaborating with society through social media and personal communication transactions, an individual’s own cognitive processes still play the most significant role in meaning making (Garfat, 2004).

This study explored the meaning making process of Filipino youth through their narratives of ideal and actual travel experiences. This study utilized narrative analysis to surface the ambivalent nature of youth’s meaning-making through intrapersonal communication. To accomplish this major goal, several specific objectives were addressed: (a) illustrate the leisure travel ideals through the narratives of Filipino youth; (b) explore the role of social media in building travel expectations; (c) describe the leisure travel experience of Filipino youth; and (d) surface the complexity of Filipino youth’s process of meaning-making in defining a meaningful leisure travel.

This study, anchored on Harvey’s (2004) Simplified Model of Leisure Experience (see Figure 1) which is an integration of expectancy value theory and recreational activity, combines the concepts of meaning making in the building of ideal travel experiences. As social interaction is enhanced by social media, the opportunity for sharing travel-related experiences also widen. As a result, expectations of an ideal travel experience are raised, making them more difficult to satisfy. In some cases that these desired ideals are not realized, tourists “may reconcile their experience preference with their actual experience by reducing the importance” of the unmet expectation (Baker, 2008, p.55). Human experiences are made meaningful through the process of sensemaking (Brown, Stacey & Nandhakumar, 2008) wherein ‘individuals attempt to make sense of ambiguous stimuli in ways that respond to their own identity needs’ (Coopey et al., 1997, p. 312).

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework adapted from Harvey’s Simplified Model of Leisure Experience (2004)
METHOD

This study is exploratory in nature, utilizing qualitative research methods. The study focused on gathering insights from young adults as a result of the growing market in youth tourism (Mohn, 2013). The researchers conducted semi-structured interviews to seven (7) young adults of ages 18-25 residing in the Philippines’ Greater Manila Area, who constantly travel on a yearly basis. Purposive sampling was used to be able to conduct an exploratory and in-depth study on youth who have travelled domestically and/or internationally. Data were gathered and analyzed from October 2015 to December 2015.

FINDINGS

#TravelBucketList: The Filipino’s ideal leisure travel

Findings of the study reveal that social media is seen as a curation of beautiful photos that contributes to the picture of what ideal travel is. Standards of ideal travel experiences can be affected by social media posts because it serves as a major source of travel inspiration. It is regarded to be more transparent and trustworthy than paid advertisements; however, travelers are aware of its sometimes deceptive nature and have become wary in evaluating social media text.

Apparently, there is no single picture of an ideal travel. Although the idea of a leisure travel varies from one informant to another, all of them share the same goal of being able to fully enjoy the experience by being in the right place, doing the right things, and being with the right people. In line with this, the expectancy-value approach to recreational activity assumes that people generally know what they like and what they perceive as good and beneficial (Harvey, 2004). The informants have different requirements in their description of an ideal travel, however, it can be drawn out that the things that they find essential in a leisure travel are highly individualistic and are anchored in their specific interests (Venkatesh, 2006). The distinctive nature of ideals may result from the different experiences and outcomes that the youth have encountered in the past. These experiences, whether positive or negative were all assessed internally. As much as individual sensemaking is concerned, actual travel experiences are individualized (Garfat, 2004) and assessed, forming different pictures of an ideal travel.

Been there, done that: Travel experiences of the Filipino youth

When travelers have a set of motivations, factors sought out by the individual like emotional and social experience, as well as tangible characteristics of the trip itself like cultural and gastronomical experience and attractiveness of destinations, travelers become more specific with their evaluation of actual travel experiences (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). When these expectations are met, as Expectancy-Value Theory suggests, the traveler feels satisfaction and fulfillment. However, as it was found, unmet expectations do not necessarily result to dissatisfied travelers. There may be instances when frustrations arise from unmet expectations or missed opportunities but travelers shift their perspective to see the good in each challenging experience. As discussed in the framework, any experience is very personal to each individual as an “active self,” (Sandelowski, 1991) the travelers tend to construct meaning to each one (Krauss, 2005). Likewise, the meaning of travel is not anchored on the positive experiences alone but also shaped by the negative experiences of the individual.

Round and round: The complexity of leisure travel sensemaking

Findings suggest that sensemaking is a cyclical process of evaluation and reevaluation forming complicated webs when mapped out. However, it does not follow the unidirectional process suggested by the Simplified Model of Leisure Experience (Driver & Tocher, 2010, as cited in Harvey, 2004) for in the process of sensemaking, the starting and end points are unclear. For one, the ideal and actual experiences have overlapping elements, no matter how similar or different they are from each other. As illustrated in this study’s integrated framework, the process of sensemaking through intrapersonal communication involves the interaction and convergence between the ideal and the actual experiences which produce an evaluation that cannot be considered as final. The evaluation that results from the integration of both modes of thinking when an individual engages in a conversation with the self, (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009) would then be the new standard, thereby affecting
the new leisure travel ideals of an individual.

Although this process happens internally, it has been found out that these two modes of thoughts (i.e. ideal and actual experiences) are not the only things that affect the sensemaking process for an individual who is a member of a larger social context may still be affected by the environment in which s/he is part of.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In contrast with the linear nature of expectancy value theory, findings of the study clearly illustrate that a traveler’s intrapersonal meaning making process is neither linear nor a unidirectional cycle. Aside from the actual and ideal travel, there are many other social contextual factors that play in the construction of leisure travel assessment. There’s something outside the experience that affects the process of meaning-making which cannot be wholly quantified and attributed alone to media and social contact. It can also be derived from the normative evaluation of leisure travel as group ideas blend into one another, and individuals consciously and subconsciously align their perception due to shared experience and social context (Frivaldo, 2014).

Sense and meaning making of leisure travel among Filipino youth is a complex, big, and confusing web where the lines between actual and ideal travel are blurred and cannot be detached from one another. Based on the findings, the tourism industry is recommended to allow young individuals to enjoy their travels without any pressure of living the ideal, perfect travel experience. Rather than insisting travelers to have ideal, “perfect” travel experiences, the industry should foster an encouraging atmosphere where travel becomes leisure in its fullest sense for each individual.

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EXAMINING INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS’ SATISFACTION WITH HANOI TOURISM

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INTRODUCTION

As a heart of Vietnam with the cultivation of thousands of year history, Hanoi has become a cultural center of the country with many attractions including natural landscapes, long-standing historical sites as well as the intangible cultural heritage. Those elements have turned the city into a popular tourist destination in the world, which attracts a large number of domestic and international arrivals every year. However, most tourists leaving Hanoi do not want to revisit. Thus, the study of “Examining international tourists’ satisfaction with Hanoi tourism” was conducted to explore the relationship between the international tourists’ initial expectations and their perceptions to examine their (dis-)satisfaction level with the current tourism destination attributes in Hanoi. In addition, the researcher’s key objectives are to offer insightful recommendations to enhance the visitors’ satisfaction with an expectation to assist promote Hanoi tourism.

METHODS

In the study, the combination of both qualitative and quantitative research (Creswell, 2003, p.18-21) allows the investigator gain better understanding about the research problem by collecting either sequential or simultaneous data.

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

In the survey, 246 respondents were asked to denote their expectation, perception and general satisfaction with tourism products and services in the nine parts of tourism destination attributes to Hanoi as a destination on a five-point likert rating scale where a “1” response indicating ‘strongly disagree’ and “5” correspond with “strongly agree”. From that, the author used the experience/expectation matrix of HOLSAT model to compare the difference between tourists’ expectations (Y-axis) and perceptions/ experiences (X-axis) to measure the tourists’ satisfaction. Among 61 elements of these nine given destination attributes, there were 17 elements which had no difference between the two means of expectation and experience. Only 9 of 61 given elements were lied on the “win” area of the matrix which illustrated the positive tourist’s perception and satisfaction. Conversely, there were 35 factors which were disappointed tourists with Hanoi tourism, such as “personal safety and security”, “cleanliness” of city environment, “easy to walk around”. There are a number of reasons why respondents gave ridiculous low rates to these elements. First, it includes the alarming level of air pollution, water pollution, or even noise pollution in the city (Nguyen, 2012). Second, it is difficult for tourists to go around city by local bus because the information is not available in foreign languages and bus workers only speak Vietnamese. There is also one issue with a taxi as the taxi driver may not well-versed in English, some would try to impose an inflated rate instead of relying on the meter or even having a defective meter. Then, in many cases, tourists visit a street stall or check some snack items of a street vendor, they may be paid twice or three times than the actual value of the goods, especially food items, beverages. Last, it may cause by the poorly preserved conditions of the historical sites that are different from description and recommendations on newspapers or online webpages.

The researcher also used semi-structured interviews to have in-depth interview and guide respondents with discussion topic without any limitation of the communicated discussion area.
During the interview, seven tour operators agreed that Hanoi has a strong impression of a city's tourism with its rich culture, historical and traditional value. Not only Hanoi known as a safe destination, but it also boasts a peaceful status that promise to bring tourists a peace of mind and enjoyment to explore the city. However, the city’s tourism development has still not matched with its potential. First, there is lack of synchronization between government sector and private sectors in Hanoi tourism development to attract foreign visitors. Many travel companies have to make tour discount and find new markets in order to attract tourists to visit Vietnam in general and Hanoi in particular. Second, the tours around Hanoi and its surrounding areas are monotonous and low service. Last but not least, un-safety and insecure situation including pick pocketing, purse snatching, bad slashing, which have negatively, impacted on even full package tourists.

SUGGESTIONS

As a blessed location with an overwhelming beauty and rich natural resources, Hanoi clearly have an enormous potential for its tourism development to turn it into a spearhead economic sector. The challenge is how to effectively expand Hanoi tourism while support preserving the current natural wonders. First, the Hanoi Department of Culture, Sport and Tourism should establish a close relationship with travel agencies and other local service providers in order to provide better products and services of Hanoi to its customers. Not only does the Hanoi Department of Culture, Sport and Tourism have a tight relationship with private sectors, but it also need to cooperate with other departments such as Department of Transportation, City Police Department, and Department of Nature Resource and Environment, to have a better plan for improving Hanoi image as a safe and friendly destination to tourists. The tourism services in Hanoi should be cooperated and connected to other areas to offer various options in term of satisfying customers’ need. Second, Hanoi needs to establish its tourism logo and slogan to promote its brand to international market on different media channels and world tourism trade fairs. Third, it can be said that the construction and maintenance of the infrastructure facilities such as road system, water supply and sewage disposal, urgently need reconstructing and renovating to create a better image and life quality for Hanoi. Next, the service attitude should be improved because it is the dominant element to decide the quality services in a strategy to attract customers. Then, the city government should have some solutions to reinforce and certify food hygiene and issue a formal rating for each restaurant, vendor to gain tourists’ trust on the healthy quality of local street cuisine. By regularly implementing sanitary requirements in tourist areas and even making heavy fines and strict penalties for littering behavior, it supports create a clean environment and raise awareness of hygiene to both locals and visitors.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, Hanoi has many beautiful landscapes and tourist relics which are promising conditions to develop tourism into a spearhead economic sector. However, due to the inappropriate management and exploitation of tourism, the city has not been promoting its existing potential characteristics to be a key economic sector in Vietnam generally, and in Hanoi particularly. Therefore, the study was to find out what foreign tourists expected their trip to Hanoi and reflected to what they truly perceived at the destination as well as to examine how satisfied and dissatisfied they were with the current tourism offerings in the city.

REFERENCES


INDIVIDUALISM, COLLECTIVISM, AND TRAVEL MOTIVATION: A COMPARISON STUDY OF WESTERN BORN CANADIANS AND ASIAN BORN CANADIANS

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Mingjie Gao
University of Waterloo

INTRODUCTION

People from different cultures have different perceptions, cultural values, and rules of social behavior, which consequently influence their work, leisure, consumer behavior patterns, and lifestyle (Richardson & Crompton, 1988). The cultural dimensions theory maintains that six basic dimensions reflect culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity, indulgence/restraint, long-term orientation versus short-term normative orientation (LTO), and individualism/collectivism (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede, 1980; 1997; 2001). A review of cross-cultural studies on travel behavior revealed that individualism/collectivism represents the most-discussed cultural dimensions in the tourism literature (Meng, 2010). Individualism refers to the degree to which individual welfare is more valued than group welfare (Hofstede, 1980, 1997, 2001); as the opposite of individualism, collectivism means a way of societal being, positioned towards in-groups and apart from out-groups (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Oyserman, 1993). Individualism features independency and egocentricity, whereas collectivism is characterized by interdependency, communality, and social-centricity (Markus & Kitayama, 2010). Reisinger and Turner (2003) have suggested that the greatest cultural differences appear between Asian and Western cultures. Many Asian countries demonstrate collectivist cultures, in salient contrast to the individualism-oriented cultures shared in most Western countries (Hofstede, 1980; 1997; 2001).

The concept of push and pull theory explains that people travel because they are pushed into making their decisions by internal forces and pulled by eternal forces such as a destination’s attributes (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). There is a reciprocal relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure travel: individual choices of destinations are driven by their intrinsic motives, which are, at the same time, reflected in their preferred destination attributes (Uysal & Jurowski, 1994; Kim & Lee, 2002). Empirical evidence (e.g., Yuan & McDonald, 1990) has also clarified that travelers from Japan, France, West Germany, and the United Kingdom attach different importance to the push and pull factors.

However, little is known whether push factors affect pull factors, and to what degree. Travel motivations, for example, enrichment, relaxation, and social motivations, tend to differ from country to country (Yuan & McDonald, 1990). Although increasing attention has been paid to interpret the impact of cultural differences on tourist motivation and behavior (e.g., Meng, 2010), cross-cultural studies are still limited in the tourism domain. In particular, very few studies have addressed cultural differences in push factors’ impacts on pull factors. Given the substantial distinctions in social relations and social norms, tourists from collectivist cultures may weigh travel motives differently from their counterparts in individualistic cultures. The influence of push factors on pull factors can also vary across cultures.

In order to narrow the above-mentioned research gaps, this study aims to 1) identify how three travel motivations (enrichment, relaxation, and social) differ between travelers from individualist and collectivist cultures; 2) explore push factors’ influences on pull factors among travelers from the
two culture groups. The results shed light on
cross-cultural comparisons of travel motivation.
This study may also help the inbound and outbound
travel industry understand the behavioral differences
of travelers from various cultural backgrounds,
thereby facilitating the optimization of tourist
experience design and implementation strategies.

METHOD

We chose the Canadian Travel Activities and
Motivation Survey (TAMS) 2006 as the data source.
The respondents of TAMS 2006 consisted of both
Canadian travelers and Canadian non-travelers; only
Canadian travelers were chosen for this study. With
a population larger than 100,000, the sample size
of 1,111 can represent the population at a 95%
confidence level (Israel, 1992; Desu, 2012).
Considering the fact that Canada has a population
of approximately 30,000,000, this study randomly
chose 1,559 Asian born Canadian travelers and
1,479 Western Canadian travelers from the original
TAMS 2006 data set.

For purposes of all comparisons, this study
divided the selected Canadian traveler respondents
into two groups: Western born and Asian born
Canadians. The former group represents individuals
born in countries traditionally seen as following
individualistic patterns. The latter group covers
individuals born in Asian countries, which are
traditionally believed to have a more collectivistic
mindset. TAMS 2006 used the “country of birth”
variable to differentiate respondents’ ethnic
backgrounds: Asian born Canadian travelers were
born in Asia but living in Canada at the time of
the survey; western Canadian travelers were born
in Canada, Western/North Europe, Australia, New
Zealand, and the US.

Three-point Likert scales (1=of no
importance; 2= somewhat important; 3=highly
important) were employed to measure the three
types of tourist motivations (enrichment, relaxation,
and socialization) and the perceived importance of
destination attributes. Initially there were a total of
15 motivational items in the TAMS 2006 data set.
Three motivational dimensions emerged in the
exploratory factor analysis (EFA) output:
enrichment, relaxation, and social motives. After

EFA, Partial Least Square Structural Equation
Modeling (PLS-SEM) was carried out in SmartPLS
3.0 to examine the influences of the three types
of motivations on perceived importance of
destination attributes among Canadian travelers
born in both individualistic and collectivistic
cultures. Descriptive statistics and independent
sample T tests were also conducted in SPSS 23.0.

FINDINGS

Demographic Characteristics

The selected sample consisted of 1,559 Asian
Canadian travelers and 1,479 Canadian travelers.
The sample represented an equal split between male
and female. Table 1 in the appendix displays the
sample’s specific demographic information.

Independent Sample T-test Results

Independent sample T tests revealed that
Asian born Canadians and Canadians weighted their
enrichment (t= 8.407, p<.001) and social motives
(t= 2.931, p<.01) differently. Specifically, Asian
Canadian travelers pay more attention to social
motives while Canadian travelers focus more on
enrichment. In contrast, they did not express
significant difference on the relaxation motivation
dimension (t= -1.486, p=0.137).

PLS-SEM Results

The researchers ran two models separately:
Asian born Canadian travelers’ push-pull model
(Model 1: in Figure 1) and Western born Canadian
travelers’ push-pull model (Model 2: in Figure 2).
Convergent validity of the two models was
confirmed following Fornell and Larcker’s (1981)
widely adopted criterion of Average Variance
Extracted (AVE) of 0.5 or higher. Furthermore, the
square roots of construct AVEs were higher than the
highest corresponding inter-construct correlations,
thereby proving sound discriminant validity (Fornell
& Larcker, 1981). Each latent constructs’ composite
reliability and validity were also supported. As
shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2, the 24 manifest
indicators’ standardized regression weights (β)
ranged from 0.620 to 0.920. The variances
explained by endogenous variables (R²) in the two models
were 0.423 and 0.454, respectively, indicating a
moderate level of variance explained. For example,
for Asian born Canadian travelers (Figure 1),
enrichment, relaxation, and socialization motivations can explain 42.3% of the variance in the perceived importance of destination attributes. Furthermore, the RMSR values of Model 1 and Model 2 were 0.047 and 0.045, respectively. PLS-SEM in SmartPLS 3.0 does not generate Goodness-of-fit (GIF) indices, for instance CFI and GFI, unlike that in most covariance-based SEM software such as AMOS.

![Figure 1: Asian born Canadian Travelers](image1.png) ![Figure 2: Western born Canadian Travelers](image2.png)

Notes: 1. All the four paths are statistically significant at a .05 confidence level.
2. The numbers in the endogenous variables represent $R^2$.

CONCLUSION

The current findings add to a growing body of literature on behavioral comparisons between Western born and Asian born Canadian tourists. This study demonstrated the distinctiveness of travel motivations between Canadian tourists who are originally from individualistic and collectivist cultures. It also revealed the varying impacts of push factors on pull factors between the two cultural groups; however, push factors significantly affect pull factors in both culture backgrounds. Canadian tourists originally born in individualistic cultures focus more on enrichment. In contrast, social motivations are the main intrinsic forces pushing people from collectivist cultures to travel. Relaxation is the most important motivation affecting tourists’ perceived importance of destination attributes, regardless of cultural backgrounds.

More importantly, enrichment motives’ impact on the perceived importance of destination attributes is greater for Western born Canadian tourists who were born in individualistic cultures. By stark contrast, for Asian born Canadian tourists who are originally from collectivist cultures, social motives have a greater impact on their perceived importance of destination attributes.

IMITATIONS AND FUTURE STUDY

The present study has several limitations concerning secondary data use.

First, only “Country of birth” does not give the whole picture of cultural influences. At the time of this study, it was not possible to assess how many years the Asian born Canadian tourists lived in Asia; therefore, it is unknown if they were highly influenced by Asian cultures when they lived in Asia. Additionally, the places where people are raised up influence their mindsets greatly. It’s highly probable that many Asian born respondents were born in Asian countries/regions but were raised up in Canada, thus they are also highly influenced by individualistic cultures. In this sense, the Asian born respondents are not absolutely representative of collectivist cultures.

Second, Asian born Canadians are not necessarily all collectivism-oriented. Singaporean and Hong Kong people tend to be more individualistic and western than their counterparts in other Asian countries.

This research has thrown up many questions in need of further investigation. Further work needs to be done to collect primary information with specific parameters to ensure that Canadian tourists
are more clearly influenced by individualistic and collectivistic cultural backgrounds.

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APPENDIX

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TOURISM INDUCED MOBILITIES AND COMMODIFICATION OF INDIGENOUS COMMUNITIES: A COMPREHENSIVE STUDY ON VEDDA COMMUNITY IN SRI LANKA.

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INTRODUCTION

Within contemporary global phenomena, mobilities encompass all sorts of transformations in the spheres of politics, technology, finance and transportation. It links distant socio economic and political structures into evolving global networks. New paradigm of social science, “mobilities”, encapsulates global and local level movement of people, capital, information, material and intangible heritage across boundaries. Given the fact that indigenous communities are socio-economically feeble, indigenous cultural tourism is practiced globally as a mean to garner economic benefits for them (Andrew et al, 2015). Novel empirical approaches in tracing cultural conflicts in ethnic and indigenous communities need further examination for better elucidation. (Zeppel, 2009). Hannam (2009) argues that tourism and socio economic thesis is being changed every moment through the constant and evolving mobilities and even it will demarcate the end of tourism. The role of tourism in influencing the behavioral choices of indigenous populations should further be explained and researched as concluded by Heather and Jennifer, (2015). Contrarily, Vedda community of Sri Lanka is one of the few tribal groups in the world living in forest for centuries. This study attempts to elucidate their concurrent socio-cultural context within the light of mobilities theory and to investigate how mobilities have challenged the existence of their traditional social structure. This paper argues that breakthrough of (im) mobilities through indigenous tourism, modify, transform and link remote and authentic social structures into globally driven networks of this universally significant community.

Tourism and other types of mobilities have been recognized in conceptualizing the notion of tourism, nevertheless the efforts of merging it into the traditional tourism studies remain insufficient (Coles and Timothy, 2004; Hall, 2005; Hall and Williams, 2002; Minca and Oakes, 2006, cited in Allison, 2009). Many indigenous societies are endowed with significant intangibles embedded in their cultures such as dances, stories, hunting methods, songs, curing and the language itself as proposed by Fredrick (2003). It is challenging for such intangibles to remain immobile amidst the swiftly mobile societies in the 21st century. The thesis of tourism is allied to certain forms of mobilities while it is not the sole agent of all types of mobilities cause socio-economic and cultural transformations (Hannam et al, 2013). Tourism is vital to investigate in community context through applied and rigorous approaches to comprehend the mobility driven realities (Allison, 2009). Amidst this background the present study is positioned on the nonaligned pathway to ascertain both affirmative and adversative consequences of indigenous tourism. Equally, deepening the knowledge of various grounds on which residents of communities support or oppose tourism development initiatives has been, and still under exploration, an increasingly imperative yet often elusive exertion within tourism academic research (Boley (2014). This study focuses on how and to what extent indigenous tourism contributed in the transformation of indigenous communities amongst the other forces of mobilities. This study examines mobilities and its impacts in the backdrop of commercial tourism over an indigenous community (Vedda or Vanniyalaeththo) of Sri Lanka. It strives to clarify nexus of indigenous tourism and mobilities by evaluating the Vedda indigenous community of Dambana Sri Lanka.
METHODOLOGY

The key focus of this study was to trace the tourism induced mobilities and community perceived impacts over their existence. This kind of investigations are socio-culturally located and such complex issues need deeper elucidation of thoughts, feelings and anticipations of individuals of the community itself under investigation. To support such deeper stimulations of individual feelings in tracing sensitive issues, qualitative approach was employed as it was identified more appropriate in answering research questions. Several qualitative techniques were used to collect raw data over the period from 2009 to 2015 by the principle researcher. The researcher made number of random visits to the community and observed the Vedda village and behavior of the community. According to Boley et al (2014), the impact of resident empowerment and its influence on resident attitudes toward tourism is needed to observe across various settings and environments. Moreover, based on their research findings Boley et al (2014), have emphasized the importance of qualitative inquiries using in depth interviews to deepen the understanding of psychological, social and political nexus of the communities in tourism development areas. Extensive review of literature supported to establish research question and specifically triangulation in the analysis and discussion section. Comprehensive analysis of related documents, policy papers and publications related to study setting and field observations were employed to better apprehend the mobilities and indigenous tourism nexus of Vedda community. A series of interviews with Vedda community members (37 persons) and observation of the community behavior were key methods applied by the researcher in answering research questions. Correspondingly, the indigenous community’s perspective of economic, social/cultural and environmental deviations due to mobilities are evaluated through a series of in-depth interviews with different ranks of community members which includes the community leader, deputy leader, old and young members as well as women (traders). Moreover, the Vedda community members who were resettled in Dambana periphery during the Extensive Mahaweli Development Project by the government in the 80’s decade also included in the interviewee list. These resettled groups were also important in understanding the temporal mobilities of Vedda community amidst their socio-cultural (im) mobilities and neoliberal economic, political and technological transformations. The interview transcriptions and other related information sources were scrutinized through content analysis and winnowed narrations to extract relevant contents in order to answer the broad research questions.

FINDINGS

The original owners of (Lanka, Ceylon) Sri Lanka are considered to be Vedda who have been living on this land for several millennia of years. Historians accepted that arrival of indo Aryans in 6th Century BC set grounds for the start of modern civilization of which the Sinhalese are dominating at present. A considerable number of Vedda people joined the new Aryans and settled in villages (Gunawardana, 1981; Deraniyagala, 1963). However, substantial proportion of Vedda community continued to live inside forest in centrals parts of the Island and presently confined to live in Hennanigala, Nilgala and Ratugala forests (inside Maduruoya National Park) as three main groups of Vedda in existence today. Hence, the notion of geo-political mobilities dates back to millennia of years in the context of Vedda community. The origin of the civilization in Sri Lanka dates back to 250,000 years during pre-historic age. According to Stegeborn (1993), the government passed a policy to restrict the hunting areas and to re-settle Vedda people in agricultural villages under the irrigation scheme of Extensive Mahaweli Development Project. Consequently, Maduruoya National Park was declared and Vedda people were re-settled in Mahaweli scheme Zone “C”. The new laws and regulations were enacted particularly on hunting and trading of wild meats as argued by Kennedy (1993). These reforms have pushed Vedda community to divide again and a good half of the community was re-settled in agricultural villages under above irrigation scheme. Another group still continue to live in the forest as traditional Vedda people who rejected to be civilized under the former regulations and reforms (Chandrasena 1993, Brow, 1978).

The study found that Vedda community is among the rare tribal groups in the world which
is a universal heritage. Moreover, tourism and commercially driven technological, informational, transportation and financial mobilities have challenged the existence of Vedda community. Further, it was evident that politically driven mobilities and neo-liberal socio economic nexus are more powerful forces of transformation. Traditionally, forest has been the living source as well as the home of existence for Vedda people. Hence, their entire way of life is strongly related and bound inside the forest. Hunting of deer, wild boar, iguana and various birds, collecting bee honey, fruits and nuts, husks etc. are the main economic activities of their survival. Vedda believed to be masters of traditional medicine. Particularly, in the events of venomous serpent bite, breaks or cracks of bones Vedda’s treatments have incredibly been effective. On the contrary, the author happened to observe the chief of the community was admitted in the Mahiyangana District hospital for medical treatment for a problem in his shoulder reflecting their belief in Western medicine (Observation, 2013). The information breakthrough and mingling with visitors have diluted the traditional way of life and this was further confirmed through the remarks of community members.

Vedda language is been replaced swiftly with Sinhalese and even English among the new generation through technological, material and information mobilities. Culture and traditions of communities could enhance, revived or destroyed by interactions with tourists while identities could be reconstructed (Yang 2013, Yang 2011). Such language deteriorations, cultural transitions and identity reconstructions as evident in Vedda community have severe threats for their existence as explained by the community leader himself. These findings are firmly consistent with the findings of Ming et al (2014), who revealed that the Tuva community’s socio cultural impacts of tourism. The linguistic transformation and the mobilities of influential languages have strong impacts over the annihilation of indigenous languages particularly among indigenous communities in Asia.

Surprisingly, the author happened to evident an informal trade of sex between male Vedda community members and female visitors both foreign and local. If the tourist (female) interested in having sex with Vedda person, they will be taken to city. In turn Vedda person will get good money even though the amounts were not disclosed by the informants. This was a taboo subject of discussion since, it is a very sensitive issue which decide the Vedda persons’ existence in the community. The indigenous people have become money oriented through practices of their cultural events and selling their products to visitors including trade of sex (only males). The economic mobilities are of threatening and even creating competition among groups and individuals in the community. They prefer if more foreigners visit the village since they can earn more money from them.

**IMPLICATIONS**

Indigenous tourism is a major facilitator which stimulates the socio-cultural modifications. Vedda people have become a classic example for a highly susceptible tribal group in the modern time who are under the influences of rapid mobilities beyond tourism nexus. The neo-liberal economic conditions have drastically affected the traditional way of life of Vedda people and the recent mobilities of information communication technologies and intangible heritages have threatened the existence of Vedda’s heritage, identity, language and culture. The development of tourism and other forms of mobilities in Vedda community of Dambana has created drastic and critical changes over time. In an anthropological viewpoint such changes are inevitable. The community views that concurrent mobilities and changing cultural identities and values of younger generation would lead to an annihilation of the indigenous community swiftly. According to the proponents of mobilities paradigm, tourism is no longer an organized activity yet another pattern of life and this is reflected in this remote tribal community (Hannam, 2009). Awkwardly, the former itself has threatened the existence of this global heritage. Extensive research based on anthropological approaches and sustainable indigenous tourism management are recommended to support the endangered cultural heritage of Vedda amidst the overpowering mobilities. The resource interests of both indigenous as well as non-indigenous people need to be harmonized prioritizing the needs and this too need extensive research work. The Vedda language which
is the core of their culture was observed under severe transformation. Influences of indigenous tourism nexus for the former revealed extensive. Studying the cross-cultural conflicts among different Vedda groups, located in different places in the Island as well as those who embraced the Sinhalese Buddhist culture would be interesting for future research. Mobility and migration would be pivotal for future of the county side and this notion has been reconfirmed in the case of Vedda community. The study concludes with the reinforcement of prior view put forwarded by Diekmann and Hannam (2012), Hunter (2011), that, tourism planning and management are extremely complex predominantly, in the indigenous communities under aggravating mobilities. Tourism policy planners need to realize the evolving cultural identities amidst the dynamic and unique characteristics of indigenous communities. Tourism is beyond garnering economic benefits to socio-economically marginalized indigenous communities and is inclusive of socio-cultural exchange, educational, cultural transfer and technological dissemination driven by various forms of mobilities (Andrew et al, 2015). The planning and development schemes for fragile communities like Vedda should be extremely sensitive to their specific tribal needs, or else, such communities would disappear in the black woods of Asia shortly. Future research should focus anthropological approaches of policies to preserve such unique social systems amidst the indigenous tourism nexus and commercially driven mobilities.

Keywords:
Tourism mobilities, Vedda community, Indigenous culture, Commodification, Interviews

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and International Centre for Ethnic Studies, Vikas, Colombo.


KAIN, KUMAIN, KAKAIN: CULINARY HERITAGE TOURISM SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK – AN INTRODUCTION

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Food (culinary or gastronomy in other terms) is an essential need of a person. As a person wake-up every morning, one of the things that he needs to do is to cook food and eat. This is being done to gain enough vitamins and nutrients that will give him energy for the day. Socio-culturally, food is considered as one of the identities of the community. It represents a value that is both tangible (the food itself) and intangible (the reason of cooking it and the process of producing it) in nature. In heritage, it is called as the culinary tradition of the community. Food is affected by historical and cultural development of the society and then passed down through generations. In that sense, it contributes to the uniqueness and differences of food as it is compared from one place to another. Therefore, food is considered to be a heritage of the community. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) defines heritage as “legacies from the past, what we live with today, and what we individually or collectively pass on to future generations” (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2002). Culinary traditions come from the influences and changes of history of a certain place; then continues to use it from an individual, to the family then to the community; and conserves, preserves and shares it to future generation. That is why in the perspective of the UNESCO, culinary tradition is considered to be part of the main domains of the intangible cultural heritage under social practices, rituals and festive events (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003).

As an identity, food shows significance that contributes to its uniqueness and difference. This significance is based on different aspects such as historical, cultural, aesthetic, social, symbolical, economic and educational. It is important to analyze these details as it contributes to the story and importance of the community; and how it evolves and develops as the heritage of the people.

People are now looking for new motivations to travel in their recreational and leisure time. Most of them are expecting for some different and at somehow related to cultural and heritage identity of the place. According to Reynolds (1993) and Richards (1996), tourists are now looking for cultural oriented attractions and it is now a growing resource for tourism (Reynolds, 1993; Richards, 1996). From heritage and cultural tourism, food is considered as a motivator for tourist to visit the sites. It is also known as food tourism, gastronomic tourism or culinary tourism. In literature studies, it “applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy” (Herrera, 2012). Tourists seek these attractions to know its origin and production processes, making it an expression of cultural and heritage tourism (Arilla, 2012). It contributes to the economic growth and development of an area. Local community will offer food that is very unique in the perspective of the tourists but for them, it is a normal part of their everyday diet. As culinary traditions are used for economic development, the significance starts to deteriorate. Details regarding sustainable development must be considered. This is where development for economic reasons and conservation for heritage and culture must be balanced. It means that any development plans for certain heritage properties or tradition must be based from its significance. This is called as sustainable tourism. “Sustainable tourism takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors,
the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005).

The researcher will identify, create and introduce a culinary heritage sustainable development framework as a foundation for future researchers to understand and analyze heritage resources, especially culinary traditions, based from its significance or value. The created framework of the researcher will be based from the existing international and national-based frameworks for heritage significance. This will be used for further development of the heritage resource especially for tourism purposes.

METHOD

The study is a qualitative type of research specifically focused on determining and analyzing information related to heritage sustainability and conservation frameworks based from the different documentary or archival evidences. Research materials and information will focus on heritage significance setting specifically related to intangible cultural heritage. Literature reviews and case study analysis using the different heritage frameworks were also used to determine its effectiveness and how these frameworks were implemented. International and national-based frameworks will be examine such as the 2003 UNESCO Convention for Safeguarding the Intangible Cultural Heritage; Australia ICOMOS Burra Charter of Places of Cultural Significance, The Getty Conservation Institute’s Assessing the Value of Cultural Heritage and the Republic Act No. 10066 or the National Cultural heritage Act of 2009. From the results of the research study, the researcher will come up with a framework generally applicable to intangible cultural heritage specifically to culinary traditions.

FINDINGS

International and National-based Framework Analysis. Based from the literature reviews and case analysis (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003, 2010, 2013, 2014; Australia ICOMOS, 1999; Nemani, 2011; de la Torre, 2002; Congress of the Philippines, 2009) of the different frameworks on heritage conservation and development, the researcher identified the following:

• All frameworks are designed to balance heritage conservation and development;
• All frameworks are applicable to any heritage resource, either tangible or intangible in nature;
• Tourism is a vital force to develop a heritage resource. This can make a resource better because of the conservation efforts or can deteriorate the significance because of mismanagement and some of the implemented projects;
• It is important to determine the significance of a heritage resource using the different evidences such as physical, oral and documentary;
• It is important that stakeholders of a heritage resource must contribute to every plans and programs to be implemented for the conservation and development;
• Plans and Projects must be based from the Statement of Significance (SOS);
• A common denominator of creating a documentation and inventory of all intangible cultural heritage available for a continuous and a comprehensive conservation management plan; and
• A comprehensive assessment of the current governance and management are needed to understand the current situation of a heritage resource.

From the observation of the researcher, a comprehensive framework is designed specially for studying and analyzing culinary traditions. The framework was named as the Culinary Heritage Tourism Sustainable Development Framework. The framework is concentrated on both conservation and the development phase of the culinary tradition. Then the researcher created six (6) parts that will benefit both aspects of sustainability of heritage (See Figure 1).
IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

From the findings of the research study, the researcher believed that through proper construction and implementation of a framework for heritage, conservation and development would be balanced. The suggested framework was created to properly document the culinary tradition of the community and once it collected outstanding information, this can be use to promote the food as the culinary tourism identity. Further implementation of the framework is highly recommended to fully test its viability and credibility.

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IDENTIFYING POTENTIAL ECOTOURISM PRODUCTS IN COMMUNITY-BASED HOMESTAY PROGRAMME: A STUDY IN LOWER KINABATANGAN, SABAH, MALAYSIAN BORNEO

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of community-based tourism is not new in the tourism literature and substantial studies have been done by the western and local researchers all around the world (Mbaiwa, 2005; Hussin, 2008; Pookhao, 2014; Afenyo & Amuquandoh, 2014; Iorio & Corsale, 2014; Kunjuraman, Hussin & Yasir, 2015). In Malaysia, homestay programme has been recognised as community-based rural tourism product (Kayat, 2008) and a good tool to promote the rural community development (Hussin, 2006). Under this programme, visitors are given an opportunity to stay together with the host under single roof and experience the rural socio-cultural events performed by the host. Homestay programme in Malaysia is could be a development tool for rural areas in Sabah as well as a platform to rural communities to engage in tourism activities. In Malaysia, each homestay programme offers different types of activities, depending on the culture, food, economic activity as well as location. In addition, every state in Malaysia has its own uniqueness in terms of culture, ranging from the nasi dagang in Kelantan to the sumazau traditional cultural dance in Sabah, as well as the long houses in Sarawak (Ministry of Tourism and Culture Malaysia, MOTAC, 2016). A most important contributions of homestay programme to Malaysia as the rural tourism destination was where in 2012 Malaysia’s Homestay Programme wins the UNWTO 2012 ULYSSES awards from the global tourism organization. This is the biggest achievement since the homestay programme has been reach internationally and recognised globally. To enhance and ensure the homestay programme to be effective the Malaysia government especially MOTAC, has introduced the website of homestay programme called (www.go2homestay.com) for marketing and promotional purposes. Since, information technology is everywhere the transformation of homestay programme is needed and this is the best way to promote globally. The website is provided all the information about the homestay programme in Malaysia and its products.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism products in the tourist destination is vital to satisfy the tourist’s expectation and their demands. Tourism attractions in the specific destination are comprised multiple elements and Gunn (1988) note that tourism activities, local scenery, service and entertainment are among the main elements in the tourist destination. Inskeep (1991) also stated that tourism attractions in the tourist destination can be divided into 3 categories including, nature attraction which consists of the environment and natural resources. Tourist attractions could be also referring to tourism products where without the attractions of the specific product probably the tourist will not to interest to make a visit. In order to sustain the tourism industry, tourists’ satisfaction and expectation is crucial to be considered by the tourism stakeholders especially tourism service providers. In addition, based on the responses from the tourist a tourism product has been comprised into three elements: (1) Experiential-festivals, activities, community, event, dining and entertainment, shopping, safety, service, (2) Emotional-human, cultural and historic resources, hospitality, and (3) Physical-infrastructure, natural resources, accommodation, restaurants, shops and other buildings visited (COMCEC, 2013: 5).

In Sabah especially Lower Kinabatangan is
rich with natural resources and beautiful scenery of environment has potential to be promoted through tourism initiative. The Lower Kinabatangan River in Sabah is one of 10 special destinations for Malaysian ecotourism destination and was outlined in the Malaysian National Ecotourism Plan 1996. Moreover, the Lower Kinabatangan area becomes a ‘protected area’ for wildlife where Wildlife Conservation Enactment was established in December 1997 and the sanctuary is protected under the State Land Ordinance (1930) (Vaz & Payne, 1997: 8). According to the Malaysian National Ecotourism Plan, the Lower Kinabatangan area was highlighted as ‘an ecotourism hotspot’ in Malaysia due to the richness of environment and natural resources. Based on the sustainability paradigm (WCED, 1987), a balance among economic, social and environment should be integrated in all fields including tourism industry. The potential of Lower Kinabatangan as tourism based activities not only focus the economic benefits to the country but should be considered the local community development. Thus, community-based homestay programme has been considered development tool for local community to enhance their livelihoods. Studies on tourism development in Lower Kinabatangan area of Sabah have carried out by the local researchers which mainly focused on Sukau Village (Hussin, 2006, 2008, 2009; Hussin & Mat Som, 2008; Chan & Baum, 2007) and there are other villages at Lower Kinabatangan still lack of empirical research on tourism development especially Sri Ganda Village. Thus, this study aimed to fill in the gap in the previous literature. The main objectives of this study is to identify the potential ecotourism products which could be developed via homestay programme in Sri Ganda Village, Lower Kinabatangan, Sabah. The significant of this study that the results of this study could provide valuable information to the state tourism industry and tourism planners able to identify the potential of tourism products in Lower Kinabatangan region.

RESEARCH METHODS

This study was carried out at Sri Ganda Village, one of the village near to Lower Kinabatangan River. The reason Sri Ganda Village chosen as a case study was the potential ecotourism products to be developed systematically by having homestay programme as a platform. Both primary and secondary sources took place between September and November 2014. Primary sources such as in-depth interviews and field observation were carried out in the study site (Patton, 2002). In-depth interviews with local tourism operators were held to identify potential ecotourism products could be developed and integrated with homestay programme. Field observations included the visits to tourist attraction places and identify the potentials to be developed in the near future. This was done where the authors played a tourist’s role and stayed at village homestay as a paying guest. By having both primary methods, the authors were able to discuss and share with the informants about the potentials tourism products at the village.

On the other hand, secondary sources of data collection include journals, published books, unpublished reports such as homestay annual report, unpublished doctoral thesis and government policy reports were used to get information on CBT literature. For the data analysis, thematic analysis technique was used (Braun & Clarke, 2006). By using this technique important information regarding the potential of ecotourism products and homestay programme were gathered and were grouped with themes for discussion.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Potential ecotourism products in Sri Ganda Village

This study observed that, Sri Ganda Village in Lower Kinabatangan is rich with natural resources and beautiful healthy environment, for instance, the forest reserve has potential to be developed as a tourist attraction destination. Similar to other villages along the Lower Kinabatangan River for example Sukau and Batu Puteh villages (Hussin, 2006), Sri Ganda Village successfully established a homestay programme and it has been fully managed by the locals. The homestay programme was started in 2014 and slowly developed its ecotourism products, as well as the management as a whole. At present, the locals in Sri Ganda village have realised that tourism activities through homestay programme is their livelihood strategy despite being involved in their main employment, such as being fishermen and oil palm workers. Based on the qualitative data, the informants revealed that the fishery
sector was the main sector involved by the households at Sri Ganda. Thus, the alternative livelihood through tourism activities is relevant and the people have started up homestay programme in collaboration with other stakeholders, such as the Ministry of Tourism, Culture, and Environment Sabah and heads among the local. Besides, in an interview, a homestay coordinator shared some experiences of implementing the homestay programme and its potential products within the programme as listed below:

i. Trip to ‘Volcanic Mud’

   Sri Ganda Village is blessed with a special place called ‘Volcanic Mud’ located in Kulamba Wildlife Reserve about 27 km from the Sri Ganda Homestay. This is an interesting place in Lower Kinabatangan as the ‘Volcanic Mud’ can only be seen in here. The researchers observed that the ‘Volcanic Mud’ in Lower Kinabatangan has the potential to be developed and it could be a perfect place to be included in the homestay programme package in Sri Ganda Village. To reach this place, only a 4-wheel vehicle is suitable, as recommended by the tourist guides and homestay operator. Moreover, the Unico Plantation is the main gate to this Volcanic Mud and people are always welcome to visit this place. This Volcanic Mud is rich with natural flora and fauna, and tourists will definitely enjoy visiting this place. On the other hand, hard-core tourists (researchers, students, and academicians) visit this place to conduct researches regarding flora and fauna. Besides, an in-depth interview with one of the homestay operators revealed the uniqueness of this mud. According to him, this mud has some medicinal features whereby this mud can be applied on human body and it is good for our skin. In fact, a villager from Sri Ganda who suffered from skin diseases tried applying this mud onto his skin. As a result, that person recovered from the skin diseases and proved that the mud had some medicinal significance. From this evidence, those who have heard about this have visited the place and the homestay programme has become popular among the visitors especially in Sandakan Town. Thus, this Volcanic Mud has potential to be included in the homestay programme and tourists will be more than interest to visit.

ii. Trip to ‘Gelukob Stone’ (Batu Gelukob)

   This Gelukob stone is located in the middle of Gelukob river and the estimation distance is about 18 km from the homestay. Moreover, this place is also popular with fishing activities and some tourists do enjoy these activities. Besides, based on an interview with the local head, this place has great potential to be developed and they are currently promoting this place to outsiders through Facebook pages and other alternative media.

iii. Trip to Memoyoh Cave (Gua Memoyoh)

   This Memoyoh Cave is another potential tourist attraction and is currently being popularised through the homestay programme in Sri Ganda Village. This cave is located near to the Memoyoh river along the Kinabatangan river. Moreover, this cave is surrounded with mangrove forest and has beautiful, as well as natural scenery. This cave is accessible by boat and it is about 13 km from the homestay at Sri Ganda or 30 minutes journey. Moreover, the fauna that can be seen inside the cave are bats, which are unique and different compared to the normal ones. On the other hand, according to the informant, there is a belief that a huge snake is inside the cave. Throughout the journey to this cave from the homestay, visitors have a chance to see many natural resources, including different species of trees, mangrove, and wildlife animals such as birds and monkeys. Sometimes, the visitor could also get a chance to see different species of monkeys along the river, as well as crocodiles.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that Sri Ganda Village has great value and excellent ecotourism products to be developed through homestay programme. Through this study, potential ecotourism products have been identified and could be promoted if the relevant tourism authorities play significant role in development and promotional activities. Nair, Munikrishnan, Rajaratnam and King (2015) claimed that tourism stakeholders could be understand the destination niche market if the definition of rural tourism in Malaysia included the element of tourist’s purpose to visit. The authors argue that tourist at the rural areas perceive and consume the attractions at the destinations according to their needs and wants. This is highly applicable in the context of ecotourism.
products in Sri Ganda Village, where the ecotourist will enjoy the ecotourism products and bring the benefits to local people who operate the homestay programme.

This study provided some contributions to the current tourism policy in Sabah, Malaysia. From a planning perspective, this study has identified the potential ecotourism products in Sri Ganda Village one of the village near to Kinabatangan river. The identification of ecotourism products in Sri Ganda Village could be provided some ideas to the state tourism organization to draw some relevant intervention to develop the destination. Moreover, it is also suggested that, private and non-government organization (NGOs) still need to play their roles in order to develop the sustainable tourism development. Based on the previous literature, many tourism studies only focused at Sukau Village, other village in Lower Kinabatangan river still needed empirical research to developed many ecotourism destinations and this study was fill in the gap by having Sri Ganda as the case study. Finally, successful ecotourism development need community participation as the key principle (Afenyo & Amuquandoh, 2014) and conservation of natural resource at par with environmental sustainability could be achieved (Zhang, Cole & Chancellor, 2013). To achieve this, relevant intervention needed in the tourist destination in order to have successful ecotourism destination at par with sustainable tourism goals (Sebastian & Rajagopalan, 2009).

REFERENCES


SUSTAINABLE WATER MANAGEMENT IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY: A PRELIMINARY POLICY NETWORK ANALYSIS OF SINGAPORE

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INTRODUCTION

The hotel sector is an essential component of the tourism industry (Hawkins & Bohdanowicz, 2012). Indulgent demand on water resources at hotel establishments can jeopardise water sustainability of a tourist destination (Chung & Parker, 2010; Gössling, 2015). World Tourism Day (WTD) of 2013 has acknowledged the significance of stakeholder collaboration for sustainable water demand management (WDM) in the tourism and hotel industry (UNWTO, 2013) particularly in water scarce regions (Gössling et al., 2012). Being a small island state, Singapore is one of the world’s most water-stressed countries (Onn & Lee, 2013; Wong, Yuen, & Goldblum, 2008; Ziegler et al., 2014). It is important to understand how stakeholder relationship contributes to participatory policymaking on sustainable water management in the hotel industry in Singapore. Network analysis could offer a valuable perspective from which the prevailing interconnectedness of relevant stakeholders could be examined (Lienert, Schnetzer, & Ingold, 2013). Using Singapore as a case, this study attempts to explore the current interrelationships of diverse actor with regard to WDM in Singapore’s hotel industry. It was expected that this study could shed some insight on complex modes of integration among actors across sectorial boundaries.

METHOD

Sustainable tourism policymaking is complex system due to the existence of multiple stakeholders (Buhalís & Costa, 2006; Timur & Getz, 2008). Stakeholder analysis has been popularly used for gaining an understanding of a system, identifying the (key) actors in the aspects of a tourism system and assessing their respective interests in a system (Lim, Quercia, & Finkelstein, 2010; Prell, Hubacek, & Reed, 2009).

Looking beyond the attributes of individual actors, social network analysis (SNA) emphasises the meaningful relations among actors (Scott, 2012). Additionally, SNA concentrates on structural patterns between policy actors instead of isolated individual actions (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). Using structural measure like centrality, centralisation and density, it allows for a comprehensive understanding of characteristics of a network (Baggio, Scott, & Cooper, 2010; Ying & Xiao, 2012).

Singapore was chosen as the case study site of this empirical investigation. The stakeholders involved in the demand-side water management formed the subjects of this study.

A two-wave research design was performed for this particular study. Local archives were first analysed. The identification of network actors set off interviewing a group of water policymakers and hotels. The ‘snowball sampling’ technique approach (Robins, 2015) was then adopted to continue nominating other water policy stakeholders until the list was saturated.

In the following wave, a structured questionnaire was finalised with a roster containing a total of 33 names of organisational stakeholder (or stakeholder groups) generated. The questionnaires with cover letters were then sent to the key and newly nominated organisations. In order to gather network data, the following questions were asked:
How many times has your organisation had formal and/or informal contacts with the following stakeholders [a stakeholder list containing 33 organisations/groups is shown here] in the past 12 months for WDM issues in the hospitality industry? (Never, Once, Twice to six times, Once or twice a month, More than twice a month)

The resulting data was then symmetrised and dichotomised by UCINET VI for virtualising relative positions and relationships of the network nodes (Kadushin, 2012).

**FINDINGS**

The structures of formal and informal contacts networks were virtualized using NetDraw to illustrate the interconnectedness among organisational stakeholders in the networks (see Figure 1 and 2). Neither of the represented networks considers the direction and the value of communication between actors mentioned by the respondents.

![Figure 1. Network graph of formal contacts](image1)

![Figure 2. Network graph of informal contacts](image2)
CONCLUSIONS

Data analysis that have been done
In Figure 1 and 2, consulting and advisory services providers has the highest level of centrality (0.91) in both networks. Conversely the results also indicate that there are some stakeholders from the public and third sector are located peripherally in the networks. Analysis also found degree centralisation of both networks is slightly more than 50% (they are 52.32% and 55.14% respectively). Meanwhile, the density of neither formal contacts network nor informal contacts network has reached 0.5 (they are 0.42 and 0.39 respectively). Generally, prominent key actors and obvious peripheral ones do exist in both networks. Besides, neither network appears cohesive because of relatively high degree concentration with low density. Simultaneously, it is likely to be even more challenging for the network actors to communicate in unofficial manners.

Data analysis that will be done
The next step of data analysis is to study ego network size, ego network density and structural holes. In studying ego networks, the researcher is interested in looking at how egos make use of and are influenced by their immediate contacts or ‘alters’ (Borgatti, Everett, & Johnson, 2013).

By analysing linkages and structural positions, the methodology can facilitate highlight limitation and opportunities in the network structures. Network analysis, with its complementary visual and statistical elements, yields more quantitative results. The visualisation of the stakeholder relationships could serve as a basis for further research.

Only the most fundamental steps necessary to conduct a network analysis have been discussed. A method mix of a quantitative tool and a complementary qualitative approach will help more in-depth and widespread application to participatory natural resource management in the domain of sustainable tourism policymaking.

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NORTH KOREA - CHINESE TOURISTS’ EVALUATION OF THE “HERMIT KINGDOM”

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Introduction

Chinese tourists account for about 80% of North Korea’s overseas tourists. Given the ‘blood alliance’ between the two countries because of the 1950s Korean War, a shared tradition of authoritarian regimes, geographical proximity and the relative price competitiveness of North Korea as a foreign destination for Chinese visitors, this statistic is not overly unexpected.

The purpose of this study was to examine the reasons why Chinese tourists visit North Korea and their evaluations of the country. Behind the study lay an assumption that the unique characteristics of North Korea as an ‘isolated’ nation and the additional element of shared histories would offer findings not normally associated with holiday motivations. If this were to be the case then the study would add to the wider literature by drawing attention to the role played by a country’s characteristics as a factor in destination choice.

The study is therefore an exploratory study as there is relatively little literature on North Korea as a holiday destination.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It has been suggested that China and North Korea are, globally, the two most intriguing ‘socialist’ systems, and that there are many similarities between them (Chung & Choi, 2013). Specifically, China and North Korea “shared not only a common border, a long symbiotic historical relationship, a Confucian heritage, and a history of Japanese occupation, but also a communist/Marxist-Leninist ideology, a ‘divided state syndrome’, a history of fighting US and UN forces in the Korean War, a shared pariah status (at least for a time) in the international community, and a past refusal of diplomatic recognition by all but a few nations” (Moore, 2008, p.4).

According to a PATA (2003) report, there are 10 major characteristics of tourism specific to the DPRK due to it juche (self dependency) system, including: 1) all tourism organizations and agencies in North Korea belong to the public sector, 2) only the North Korean government has the right to determine tourism pricing policy decisions, 3) all hotels in North Korea are state-owned and managed, 4) all types of tourism activities are based on guided tours, 5) the number of tourism facilities that would meet international standards outside of Pyongyang is very limited, 6) there is a severe lack of package tour products and open destinations, 7) tour schedules can be unexpectedly cancelled because of unstable circumstances, 8) stringent visa requirements, 9) by visiting North Korea one can see an unspoiled natural environment, and 10), foreign tourists can find only limited information about tourism in North Korea.

The majority of Chinese tourists who visit North Korea were traditionally middle-aged and often of senior years (Chen, 2010), although it will be noted from this study that younger people also travel to the country. The four and five-day tour programmes are the most popular for Chinese tourists. The cost is from 4000 RMB to 5000 RMB (Chongqing Daily, 2010). Past studies indicate that most Chinese visitors to North Korea are highly motivated to attend the unique performance of Arirang (Li, 2010). They have also been found to be motivated by nostalgia about Korean War memorials and North Korea’s history, which is not unlike China’s (Li & Ryan, 2015). Being curious
about North Korea’s ‘closed and mysterious’ life is another important reason motivating Chinese tourists (Southern, 2010, Li & Ryan, 2015).

RESEARCH METHOD

The research comprised various stages that included (a) with the permission of Chinese outbound tour operators to North Korea, contacting past visitors to North Korea and engaging in open-ended interviews via telephone or internet services, (b) direct contact with returning groups of tourists at the offices of the tour operator (only guided group tour are permitted in North Korea) for more formal interviews that involved a sample of 50 respondents, (c) undertaking over time three trips to North Korea as a member of a tour group, (d) creating a questionnaire based on these experiences and (e) implementing the questionnaire with a quota-based sample of 252 males (56.5%) and 194 females (43.5%), divided into five age groups. For the purpose of this paper it is the latter dataset that is being examined.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

As noted the sample was based on a quota in order to permit comparisons between different age groups. The basis of quota sampling and its implications for variance are identified by Bornstein, Jager and Putnik (2013). The composition of the age group was 65 under the age of 25 years, 69 between the ages of 26 to 35 years, 57 for those between 36 years and 45 years, 177 between 46 and 65 years and 81 over the age of 66 years.

The reasons for visiting North Korea were identified from an analysis of the interviews, and were tested in the questionnaire using a seven-point scale where ‘7’ represented the maximum level of agreement with the statement. Similarly a scale was developed for assessing respondents’ evaluations of their trip. In both cases a seven-point scale was used to permit greater variation within a culture that tends to be loath to be overly and openly critical (Wang, Hempton, Dugan & Komives, 2008). The evaluations are shown in Table 1.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was 0.88. For reasons relating to issue of non-response a partial least squares analysis was undertaken against measures of overall satisfaction. After an EFA and an examination of the commonality scores three factor were identified that ‘explained’ 60% of the variance. These factors were the cognitive assessments, the feelings of restrictions and gifts and Arirang. An initial analysis indicated a Coefficient of Determination of 0.57 with the role of guides being a determinant of satisfaction and restrictions and high prices negatively affecting evaluations. The role of nostalgia and making comparisons with a China of the past appears to be a factor primarily pertinent to older Chinese tourists and not so much those under the age of 45 years. With reference to factor analysis, a principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation created four factors: “satisfying factors”, “food and accommodation”, “dissatisfaction with visiting North Korea”, and “tourism activities”. “Satisfying factors”, comprised six items: “The natural environment and scenery is beautiful”, “North Korean people are friendly to Chinese tourists”, “The North Korean tour guides were very informative”, “North Korea exceeded my expectations as a place for a holiday”, “I learnt a lot about North Korea’s history and culture”, “I learnt a lot about North Korea’s reality and society”. The second satisfaction factor labelled “Food and accommodation” which included three items: “I liked North Korean food provided by the travel agent/tour operator”, “I was satisfied with the accommodation for exceeding my expectations”, and “I enjoyed the company of the other Chinese members of the tour group I was with”. The third satisfaction factor, labelled “Dissatisfied with visiting North Korea”, contained 4 variables: “There are too many restrictions on tourist freedom”, “There was a lack of opportunities to contact North Korean people”, “The tourist attractions were limited”, and “The prices of goods were high”. The last motivational factor was labelled “Tourism activities”. This factor included three items: “It was easy to buy gifts for my family and friends”, “The Arirang performance was good”, and “North Korea was a good place for taking photographs”.

...
One factor that was considered was whether the restrictions imposed on the tourists inhibited their satisfaction. A model was envisaged where these restrictions were designated as inhibiting factors that impacted on trip aspects and would also frustrate the desire to learn about the country. In turn this would impact on trip evaluations. The model is indicated below.

![Image of integrated model](image-url)

**Figure 1. An Integrated Model of Assessing Tourist Satisfaction in North Korea**

Because the data were derived from a convenience sample and have issues of multicollinearity and skew partial least squares using SMART PLS v3.0 was used to analyse the data. The regressions are shown in Figure Two.

![Image of PLS-Path Model](image-url)

**Figure 2. PLS-Path Model**
The Path coefficients, alpha coefficients and average variance extracted (AVE) data are shown in the appendix to the paper. The coefficient of determination was estimated as being 0.67 and all the composite ratios were greater than 0.8.

The model thus appears to meet most of the criteria other than the AVE being 0.491 for the ‘trip aspects’ – just below the usual cut-off criterion of 0.50.

What Figure Two clearly shows is that the restrictions imposed on the tour had little impact on the final evaluation of the tour. It equally indicates when combined with Table One that North Korea generates a holiday experience that generally meets Chinese tourists wants.

**CONCLUSION**

This study examined Chinese tourists’ motivation and evaluations of North Korea. It was found that Arirang performance, being curious about North Korea and its people, and a sense of nostalgia derives the majority of Chinese tourists to visit North Korea. Age was found to be a determinant variable for Chinese tourists to North Korea. Tourist motivations of visiting North Korea are different for different age groups due to different life experiences and past family connections with North Korea. In terms of satisfaction, this study created four factors influencing tourist satisfaction in North Korea, including “satisfying factors”, “food and accommodation”, “dissatisfaction with visiting North Korea”, and “tourism activities”. It was also found that the presence of restrictions on tours did not inhibit holiday satisfaction for these Chinese tourists.

**REFERENCES**


## APPENDIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Path Coeff</th>
<th>Alpha Coeff</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>Overall, I am pleased that I came to visit North Korea</td>
<td>0.737</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>0.598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>North Korea exceeded my expectations as a place for a holiday</td>
<td>0.734</td>
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<td>I would recommend North Korea to my friends</td>
<td>0.844</td>
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<td>Inhibiting factors</td>
<td>There are too many restrictions on tourist freedom</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.751</td>
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<td>There was a lack of opportunities to contact North Korean people</td>
<td>0.796</td>
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<td>The prices of goods were high</td>
<td>0.673</td>
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<td>The tourist attractions were limited</td>
<td>0.786</td>
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<tr>
<td>Learning/curiosity</td>
<td>The North Korean tour guides were very informative</td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td>0.861</td>
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<td>I learnt a lot about North Korea’s reality and society</td>
<td>0.900</td>
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<td>I learnt a lot about North Korea’s history and culture</td>
<td>0.894</td>
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<td>Trip aspects</td>
<td>The Arirang performance was good</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.864</td>
<td>0.491</td>
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<td>North Korean people are friendly to Chinese tourists</td>
<td>0.609</td>
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<td></td>
<td>The natural environment and scenery is beautiful</td>
<td>0.695</td>
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<td>I was satisfied with the accommodation for exceeding my expectations</td>
<td>0.769</td>
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<td>I liked North Korean food provided by the travel agent/tour operator</td>
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<td>I enjoyed the company of the other Chinese members of the tour group</td>
<td>0.765</td>
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<td>North Korea was a good place for taking photographs</td>
<td>0.748</td>
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<td>It was easy to buy gifts for my family and friends</td>
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EFFECTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES ON INTERNS’ JOB SATISFACTION THROUGH ASSIMILATION-SPECIFIC ADJUSTMENT FACTORS

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INTRODUCTION

Globally, attracting and retaining high-quality employees has been an on-going problem for hospitality and tourism organizations (Song & Chon, 2012). One new approach to solve this problem involves achieving success-related outcomes of interns’ organizational socialization (D’Abate et al., 2009; Song and Chathoth, 2010, 2011). Among those success-related outcomes, employees’ job satisfaction is one of the most important outcomes (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007). Existing research findings indicate that newcomer job satisfaction is affected by factors in the organizations such as organizational socialization tactics (Bauer et al., 2007) and organizational learning opportunities (D’Abate et al., 2009).

According to Liu et al. (2011) and Beenen and Mrousseau (2010), learning opportunities during the internship are likely to be a crucial determinant which converts an intern to regular employment. This is mainly because learning opportunities signal to employees the potential to further their professional development with a particular organization (Fugate et al., 2004; Rollag et al., 2005). For this reason, employees are generally more desirable to work in organizations with learning opportunities (Sheldon et al., 2003). Despite of its importance, learning opportunities as well as their causal relationships with assimilation-specific adjustment factors have not, to our knowledge, been documented either internal or external to the literature of hospitality and tourism.

However, significant progresses have been made in the hospitality and tourism literature in terms of conceptualizing and measuring newcomer assimilation-specific adjustment. Song et al. (2012) have successfully developed a new measurement scale of assimilation-specific adjustment, which includes task mastery, fitting in, standing out, membership identification, role negotiation, and interpersonal relationships. The importance of this measurement scale cannot be overemphasized because assimilation-specific adjustment is the commented to be the “heart” of organizational assimilation (OA) phenomenon (Ashforth et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006).

In their empirical work, D’Abate et al. (2009) report that learning opportunities significantly predict interns’ job satisfaction. However, a review of the literature revealed that, however, no research has told that how and why the effects of interns’ learning opportunities on job satisfaction occur. In other words, there should be a set of putative mediators that transmit the influences of learning opportunities to job satisfaction.

In their work, Song and Chathoth (2013) successfully explored the mediating roles of assimilation-specific adjustment factors in the relationship between core self-evaluations and job performance. An important implication of Song and Chathoth (2013) work is that socialization specific adjustment factors jointly function as a set of putative mediators in newcomer organizational socialization process. Therefore, organizational socialization research could be extended to see whether or not the foregoing set of assimilation-specific factors substantially transmits the effects of interns’ learning opportunities in the placement organizations on their job satisfaction.

In recognition of the above-mentioned research gaps and new paradigms in the literature, this study proposes and tests a new mediation model, by which assimilation-specific factors mediate the
relationship between organizational learning opportunities and job satisfaction. In particular, this study raises the following research questions:

(a) Can learning opportunities in the placement organizations predict each of assimilation-specific adjustment factors including task mastery, membership identification, interpersonal relationships, fitting in, standing out, and role negotiations?

(b) What are those assimilation-specific factors that can predict interns’ job satisfaction in the placement organization?

(c) Can the relationships between learning opportunities and job satisfaction be mediated by the foregoing six assimilation-specific adjustment factors both specifically and totally?

METHOD

Data Collection and Instrumentations

The main data were collected in 2015 in 42 hospitality and tourism placement organizations on China’s Hainan Island. Hainan was chosen as the context of the study for one notable reason: since 2009 building Hainan into an international tourism destination has been China’s national strategies (Li & Feng, 2010). Hotels/resorts were selected for participation using snowball sampling, while respondents were contacted using convenience sampling. A small gift was offered to each participant, which served as an incentive to participate in the survey. As a result, a total of 269 valid questionnaires were obtained and respondents were all interns whose organizational tenures were between one and twelve months following their entry into the placement organization. Respondents are requested to fill out the questionnaires that involve a total of eight theoretical constructs (i.e., learning opportunities, the six assimilation-specific adjustment factors, and job satisfaction). The construct of learning opportunities has 3 measurement items that are adapted from previous works contributed by D’Abate et al. (2009). Whereas job satisfaction and the six assimilation-specific adjustment factors were measured by using existing measurement scales contributed by Song et al. (2012). Learning opportunities and job satisfaction were measured by 5-point Likert scale, the six assimilation-specific adjustment factors were measured by 7-point Likert scale. All scales range from “1” (strongly disagree) to “5” or “7” (strongly agree).

The Measurement and Structural Models of This Study

Since all the measurement scales were adopted from exiting works, we performed confirmatory factor analysis using all the measurement items as well as their theoretical constructs in an overall measurement model. Since the data present itself as multivariate non-normal, we took Preacher and Hayes’ (2008) suggestions by generating 10,000 bootstraps on the basis of 269 parent observations. This method is known as the maximum likelihood bootstrapping method. The confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) results indicate that the overall measurement and structural models of this study, exhibit, as per Hair et al. (2010), acceptable level of fit indices: \( \chi^2/df = 2.61, CFI = .911, IFI = .912, RMSEA = .078, RMR = .050 \). Moreover, all the theoretical constructs present themselves as being both reliable (composite reliability alpha values range from .88 to .95) and valid (AVE values range from .81 to .95). The mediation effects were detected by using the same methods as noted in Song and Chathoth’s (2013) work.

FINDINGS

Sample Characteristics

In the 269 parent samples, participants were predominately female (74%), between the age of 21 and 25 (81.8%), and with an education of College degree or above (67.2%). Most of respondents’ organizational tenure ranged from 1 to 6 months (83.3%), the rest ranged from 7 to 12 months.

Direct and indirect effects

As noted earlier, fit indices in both the measurement and structural models exhibit high levels of goodness-of-fit. This enables us to test the research hypotheses. In the structural model of learning opportunities \( \rightarrow \) job satisfaction, learning opportunities significantly predict job satisfaction directly: (\( \beta \) standardized = .446, \( p \leq 0.01 \)). But this direct effect disappeared (\( \beta = -.090, p \leq 0.01 \)) after controlling for the six proposed mediators of assimilation-specific adjustment. In the six CSE \( \rightarrow \) assimilation-specific adjustment casual paths, learning opportunities is predictive of all the assimilation-specific adjustment factors including task mastery (\( \beta = .228, p \leq 0.01 \), membership
identification ($\beta=.568, p<0.01$), interpersonal relationships ($\beta=.330, p<0.01$), fitting in ($\beta=.518, p<0.01$), standing out ($\beta=.320, p<0.01$), and role negotiations($\beta=.541, p<0.01$). Whereas, in the same overall structural model, job performance is significantly predicted by membership identification ($\beta=.641, p<0.01$) and role negotiation ($\beta=.704, p<0.01$) respectively, but not by the other four assimilation-specific adjustment factors (e.g., standing out, $\beta =.005, p>0.05$).About the overall and specific indirect effects, the total indirect effect of learning opportunities on job satisfaction is collectively and significantly transmitted by the whole set of the proposed six assimilation-specific adjustment factors ($\beta=.538, p<0.01$). Meanwhile, this indirect effect is specifically mediated by membership identification ($\beta=.364, p<0.01$) and role negotiation ($\beta=.198, p<0.01$) as well, but not by the other four assimilation-specific adjustment factors.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

To date and to authors’ knowledge, the effect between learning opportunities and interns’ job satisfaction has only been investigated in D’Abate’s et al. (2009) study. In this vein, we have extended the tourism literature substantially by exploring the direct and indirect effects between learning opportunities and job satisfaction, with the six assimilation-specific adjustment measurement scale conducted by Song et al. (2012). As a result, this study’s new multiple mediation model involves the causal antecedent (learning opportunities), mediators (the six proposed assimilation-specific adjustment factors), and effect (job satisfaction). In theoretically proposing this model and empirically testing the causal paths, the foregoing findings of this study substantially contribute to the literature in several important ways.

First and foremost, it provides, within the learning opportunities and OA literatures, the first-ever empirical evidence that learning opportunities has substantial indirect effects on job performance through assimilation-specific adjustment factors. Specifically, the indirect effects involve both the substantiated total indirect effect through the set of six assimilation-specific mediators and the specific indirect effects via membership identification and role negotiations. These findings support the broad theoretical notion that OA is an unfolding process of causal antecedents, mediating processes, and effects (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Jerusalem, 1993).

The second contribution of our study is related to the following three direct causal paths: (a) learning opportunities→assimilation-specific adjustment, (b) assimilation-specific adjustment →job satisfaction, and (c) learning opportunities→job satisfaction. Again, this study provides, within the OA domain, the first-ever empirical evidence that learning opportunities predicts each of the six assimilation-specific adjustment factors respectively. A broad theoretical notion in the OA context (Saks & Ashforth, 1997) further suggests that the proximal OA outcomes, in turn, should be predicated of more distal OA outcomes. In our study it got the empirical evidence that that job satisfaction is significantly predicted by membership identification and role negotiations, but not significantly by the rest of the four assimilation-specific adjustment factors. Last but not least, learning opportunities significantly predict job satisfaction directly; but this direct effect disappeared after controlling for the six assimilation-specific adjustment factors.

In practice, managers in the hospitality and tourism organizations are encouraged to use the validated scale of assimilation-specific adjustment to capture, diagnose, and manage their intern newcomers’ socialization problems. Managers are also encouraged to provide good opportunities for interns to effectively develop their career in the tourism and hospitality profession.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF FLEXIBLE WORKING ARRANGEMENT IN CHINESE HOTELS

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Yu Wang  
Beijing International Studies University

To survive in the increasingly competitive market, companies have to improve their human resource management efficiency. This together with technology advancements has triggered various flexible working arrangements in different organizations. Given the labor-intensive nature and its competitive business environment, the hotel industry has a need to improve its workplace efficiency. However, what type of flexible arrangement can be applied into hotels’ workplace and to what degree that may help to improve work efficiency and perhaps reduce labor cost are not clear. Thus, the main objectives of this research are two folded. Firstly, it aims to construct a flexible working classification model based on literature reviews, which including time, numerical, functional, location and financial dimensions. Secondly, it aims to explore the feasibility of applying existing types of flexible working arrangements into Chinese hotel industry.

In addition to introducing the classification of flexible working in general, this paper also reports the findings obtained from preliminary investigations using in-depth interviews with HR managers in four Beijing hotels including both luxury and economic ones. The results have shown that, for the time being, working time flexibility is rarely used in luxury hotels, but found with some informal applications in the sample economy hotels (i.e. this kind of flexibility is actually used by employees based on their informal agreements, rather than a formal hotel HR policy). All of the hotels interviewed have applied numerical flexible labor practices, mostly using trainees and outsourcing; none of them has used part-time workers. Functional flexible working practices are commonly adopted by all of the interviewed hotels. It means that they have all attached great importance to multi-skill trainings to their staffs. In terms of incentive system, the performance-related pay system is more comprehensive in luxury hotels than that in economy hotels. Considering the early stage of the study and the small number of case hotel included, the findings reported in this paper require cautions when interpreting.

Keywords:  
Flexible working, Chinese hotel industry, Feasibility
LUXURY TRAVELERS: TRAVEL EXPERIENCE WITH MOBILE DEVICE

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INTRODUCTION

The market size of luxury traveler, although small in size, is significant in terms of expenditure. In 2012, nearly US$500 billion was spent on luxury travel and hotels (The Economist, 2015). Recognizing the power of communication through mobile technologies, luxury travel suppliers are offering various mobile functions and applications to enhance customer experience (Solomon, 2014). To better understand the luxury travel sector, it is essential to explore how mobile technologies have affected luxury travelers’ experience and what mobile technologies mean to them. Findings from this study contribute insights of luxury travelers’ unique characteristics; and provide useful recommendations to businesses in the luxury travel sector.

Luxury travel has become an important emerging segment of tourism industry in recent years, considering the increasing number and spending power of affluent households in US, China, Japan and Europe (Coza, 2014). Demand for the luxury sector has not been affected by economic downturn and keeps increasing in volume and value (Popescu & Olteanu, 2014). According to ILTM (International Luxury Travel Market), the top three percent of the travelers spend 20 percent of the total travel expenditure, implying suppliers can earn high profits with fewer visits (Ikkos, 2003). Although luxury travel has increasingly received attention by industry practitioners, there is a lack of academic research in this area, and there is no consensus on the definitions of “luxury travel” or “luxury tourism”.

Extant literature consistently points that mobile technologies can substantially change travel behavior and influence touristic experience (O’Leary, Gretzel, & Fesenmaier, 2006; Wang, Park, & Fesenmaier, 2011; Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier, 2014a). Wang et al. (2014a) categorizes travelers’ use of mobile phone into four groups based on the purpose of usage: information search, communication, entertainment, and facilitation. Wang et al. (2014b) argue that as the use of mobile phone is “naturally embedded” in daily life, understanding the use of mobile phone in travel should lie not only on the adoption by the travelers but also how the everyday use of mobile phone ultimately influence travel behavior. For instance, an individual who has the habit of using WhatsApp everyday may also like to maintain contact with their friends while traveling abroad.

Luxury travelers are early adopters of new technologies such as mobile (The Economist, 2015). About 40 percent of the affluent travelers would access travel information through mobile phone for trip planning, while more than half would rely on mobile phone to search an upcoming travel itinerary, look up maps or directions, check-in to a hotel/flight/cruise, download travel related Apps, and book other trip components (Google, 2014). The mobile usage behavior of luxury travelers could be different from average mass travelers. For instance, above half of the luxury travelers indicate their intention to book a trip through a mobile phone within the coming year, comparing to less than one-third of mass travelers holding the same intention (Jones, 2014). Wealthy customers are more than twice as likely to follow brands on social media as regular users (Four Seasons, 2012), implying that luxury travelers may spend more time on consuming digital travel information. Luxury travelers utilize digital travel sites for entertainment more frequently, employ more digital information
sources for trip planning, and are the most likely to intentionally click on online advertising on any type of digital device (MDG Advertising, 2014). Therefore, it is necessary for practitioners to understand how luxury consumers experience mobile technologies in the context of travel to obtain a better understanding of their customers and fulfill the higher expectation of service and product accessibility (Terrero, 2015).

This research study aims to fill the gap of understanding luxury travelers through uncovering the essence of luxury travelers’ experience on using mobile devices. Specifically the research objectives are: (1) to determine the role of mobile technology for luxury travelers during their trips, and (2) to investigate luxury traveler’s mobile phone usage experience during their trips.

METHOD

Qualitative research method is used because this study is exploratory in nature with the purpose to deeply understand the mobile usage experience of luxury travelers. Snowball sampling is applied as luxury travelers are less accessible compare with average travelers. Data was collected from interviews with twelve luxury travelers. The interviews were conducted through the real-time video call function on WeChat, which is the same as mobile phone video interview. At the beginning of the interview, screening questions were asked to ensure that the participants meet the qualifying conditions of being a “luxury traveler” for the purpose of this study. The conditions are: (1) the respondent has traveled in business or first class flight and stayed at five star hotels; (2) the respondent has made more than three luxury trips in the past and at least one within the last twelve months. The questions regarding luxury travelers’ use of mobile devices for trips and daily life are based on Wang et al.’s (2014a) study. This study not only focuses on the use of mobile device, but also explores luxury travelers’ experience and expectations of traveling with mobile devise.

NVIVO is applied for inductive coding in this study due to its exploratory nature and for the purpose of generating findings directly from the respondents (Wassler, Li, & Hung, 2015). The coding process was conducted separately by two researchers, which consists of open coding, axial coding and selective coding. The results were discussed and agreed by both authors.

FINDINGS

Luxury Travelers’ Use of Mobile Phones for Travel. The transcript coding shows that the use of mobile phones for travel falls into five categories: namely pre-trip planning, facilitation, entertainment, communication, and other functions. Interestingly, similar to average travelers (Toh, DeKay, & Raven, 2011), luxury travelers would search for discounts and compare prices online before paying for travel arrangements during pre-trip planning. Luxury travelers also use mobile phone for facilitation, entertainment, and communication during trip, which is also similar to average travelers (Wang et al., 2014a). On the other hand, luxury travelers do use their mobile phone differently as revealed by the “other functions” category. For example, some informants state that mobile phone is important for them to stay connected for work.

Factors Influencing the Use of Mobile Devices for Luxury Travel. Four factors influencing the use of mobile devices emerge, and they are network connection, travel partners, trip nature, and others. Network connection seems to be important as eight informants point out that WiFi is important for them during their travel. The use of mobile devices is also affected by travel partners. For example, one informant states that if she was traveling with her daughter, she would also bring along an iPad for her daughter to watch movies or play games. The nature of the destination or the length or intensity of the trip would influence the number of devices to bring along. The “others” category reflects something unique about luxury travelers. Three informants elaborate that they would not need to depend on mobile devices for travel as they have their personal assistant to arrange everything for them.

Feeling/Perception towards Mobile Phone by Luxury Traveler. The feeling toward or perception of mobile phone are not only functionally but also emotionally related. There are four factors that are closely associated with the functions of mobile
phone: convenience, keeping occupied, flexibility, and efficiency. Luxury travelers are emotionally attached to mobile phone and these feelings are not necessarily associated with specific functions, and these emotions are related to necessity, safety, relaxation, and negativity. Five informants mention that they cannot travel or live without mobile phone, and mobile phone is even more important during trip than in daily life in providing safety feelings.

Expectation of Mobile Functions by Luxury Traveler. Luxury travelers are generally satisfied with mobile phones currently, but they do have different expectations for better user experience in terms of device improvement, mobile applications and network service. As the usage of mobile phones mostly relies on different third-party applications, luxury travelers expect better integration of travel information between different travel service providers (e.g. the hotel realizes that a customer’s flight is delayed and automatically arrange late check-in), better functions (e.g. business functions can be used on mobile phones in the same way as laptops), and better services (e.g. easier and faster payment process).

Other Mobile Devices. Some luxury travelers bring along more than one mobile devices. It is found that the smaller screen size is often a major concern for using only mobile phone or other mobile devices. Travelers who bring other mobile devices (e.g. iPad) state that they prefer bigger screen for certain tasks, while travelers who only bring mobile phone state that the advantage of brining an iPad is minimal. Other than screen size, business usage, the convenience offered by keyboard, and importance of backing up documents are the other factors which induce travelers to bring other mobile devices.

The Influence of Mobile Devices on Luxury Travelers’ Experience. Luxury travelers may be less influenced by mobile devices for pre-trip planning compare with average travelers since some of the luxury travelers rely on personal assistant or luxury travel agents regarding travel issues. However, during the trip, searching information through mobile devices occasionally provide more convenience instead of calling personal assistant or travel agents. To a certain level, mobile devices do facilitate luxury consumers’ travel experience.

IMPLICATION

This study reveals luxury travelers’ perception towards mobile devices, how they use mobile devices throughout the travel process, and how mobile devices influence their travel experience. Building upon existing model of mobile phone use in travel, findings of this study reflect the unique characteristics of luxury travelers and provide beneficial insights and ideas for scholars and practitioners by identifying the unique factors that differentiate the travel experience with mobile devices between luxury and mass travelers.

The study helps draw two implications. First, luxury travelers also compare prices and evaluate monetary value when planning their trip and traveling around. Such finding is consistent with industry report, claiming that luxury travelers do not spend their money blindly but also consider prices because they understand more about monetary value (Cao, 2015). Thus, luxury travel service providers should take this into account and ensure that the services they provide are value for money and meet customer expectation. Second, luxury travelers expect to be served better than average travelers. Their unique characteristics (e.g. having a personal assistant in daily life) shape their higher-than-average expectations for both travel experience and mobile services (e.g. they perceive the mobile phone as their own “mobile personal assistant”). Thus, practitioners should cater to luxury travelers’ needs of seeking higher standard and integrated services, which offer them the maximum level of convenience and enjoyment.

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INFORMATION SEARCH AND SHARING AT
DIFFERENT STAGES OF A TRIP

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INTRODUCTION

The Internet is reasonably coordinated with one’s travel because of its wide-spread reach, interactivity, and information-oriented nature. For example, the Internet changes how travel information is shared and how visitors arrange travel and purchase related products or services (Buhalis & Law, 2008) because it enables travelers to easily collect information, conveniently consume travel products, and change their mind at any stage of the travel process, which further intensifies the complexity of the decision-making process for travelers. With large amounts of information available online, the Internet has become an increasingly vital tool for information exchange between tourists and the so-called online tourism domain, which consists of travel suppliers, intermediaries, and non-profit organizations such as destination-marketing organizations (Werthner & Klein, 1999). Different platforms, including social media (SM), travel-booking websites, and websites of destination-marketing organizations (DMO), all emerge to help accomplish such an information-exchange process. Further understanding the importance of this process can provide crucial information to tourism marketers to design their corresponding marketing management policy and public policy (Schmidt & Spreng, 1996). It is also useful for tourists to reduce uncertainty and possible risk (Urbany, Dickson, & Wikie, 1989) and hence improve the quality of their trips.

The Internet influences tourism and tourists both commercially and non-commercially. Visitors search online and communicate with one another at the same time. For instance, individuals get together on the Internet to express their opinion, share mutually beneficial information, and frequently write online blogs or diaries. As a consequence, tourists no longer rely solely on website owners to provide the information they are seeking due to the fact that they may growingly extract more topical and flexible information presented in the virtual community. Although many of these activities are driven by non-commercial aims, people use these platforms to review products and services they have consumed and to offer praise or criticism for the quality of the received offerings. Therefore, information search and sharing have become the dominant mode of the online activities of visitors.

The studies concerning information search are constantly investigated, and most focus on a proper understanding toward a particular information source that may eventually facilitate the information diffusion for marketers. Engel, Blackwell, and Minary (1995) suggest categorizing information search into two broad sources, that is, either internal source (knowledge retrieved from memory) or external one (information mainly from the marketplace). Beatty and Smith (1987) point out that when internal search can offer enough information, external search will become less important. Jang (2005) provides a comprehensive comparison between traditional and online information search, and summarizes the features and preferences of different information seekers. The comparative study has also been conducted from the perspective of cultural difference by Jordon, Norman, and Vogt (2013), and their research finding reveals that uncertainty avoidance level strongly influences customers’ information search styles. With the rise of social media, several studies attempt to address its influence on travel
information search, and most results favor the important role social media play during the search process and further provide suggestions on how to optimize this new medium to better the marketing campaign for the tourism industry (Chung, & Koo, 2015; Qian, Hu, & Zhang, 2015). However, research finding from Munar and Jacobsen (2013) indicates that social media cannot function well in all segments of the tourism, like visitors’ choice of accommodation and venues to eat.

For the body of information-share research, the influence of online reviews, especially the e-WOM, dominates the central position. Most research findings indicate that e-WOM is positively related to the brand image. If a travel product is strongly recommended in online reviews, it will be purchased by the majority of the respondents (Sidali, Schulze, & Spiller, 2009). Social media also act as a vital research topic for information share because of their function as a tool for travel tips, warnings, and story sharing (Kang, & Schuett, 2013). As most travel experiences shared on social media are user-generated, it is thought of as a more trustworthy information source than the other information providers in the tourism industry (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008).

Previous research has widely looked into travel information search and share independently and focuses on comparing the cultural differences, the gender differences, and the differing importance levels concerning various sources or platforms, but limited attention has been paid to the different medium used in both information search and share, especially the medium most favored in different stages of a trip, namely the pre-trip stage, the during trip stage, and the post-trip stage. To bridge the gap, this study focuses on the following research questions:

i. Which type of the medium is employed most by tourists to search and share information?
ii. Which is the major mode for tourists to use the Internet, information search or information share?
iii. When do tourists use the Internet more often during pre-trip, during trip, or post-trip?
iv. Which type of medium is the most popular in different stages of a trip?

METHOD

This study employed online survey to collect data. The questionnaire was divided into two sections, namely, online search and share behavior and demographic information. The questionnaire was first drafted based on the online consumer behavior literature, later verified by the research group, and finally improved according to the views collected from a focus group discussion. Traditional media (TM) like magazines and newspapers were also added to the questionnaire to make a comparison between the new medium and the traditional one. The first question given in Section A asked the respondents whether they had used the Internet to search and share information before, during, or after the trip in the past 12 months. This question was used to differentiate whether the data from the respondents were valid for further analysis. Then, respondents were invited to report their past experience by clicking in the Likert Scale. When they chose very often, it was coded as 6 and if very rarely, 2 would be given to this response. If this item is not applicable, it would be coded as 1 in later analysis. The data were collected through an online survey posted to a Hong Kong Polytechnic University survey website during a month from 23rd October to 22nd November (hkpolyushtm.asia.qualtrics.com/). Not only residents in Hong Kong, but also people from Macau and mainland China were invited to join in the survey. It is stated clearly on the cover page of the questionnaire that it was completely voluntary to participate in the survey and that the result would be used for research only. The cover page also encourages participants to invite more people who would like to engage in the survey. Accordingly, 395 Internet users participated in the web-based questionnaire. Paired t-test and one-way ANOVA were applied to analyze the collected data.

FINDINGS

A total of 353 questionnaires were valid, and 280 respondents (79.32%) used the Internet to search and share travel information in the past year. Thus, the data from these respondents were included in the final analysis. Such a high proportion of the surveyed respondents who searched and shared travel information online also indicates travel has
gradually become a common practice in people’s daily life, and the Internet has been the dominant channel for tourists to do travel information search and share. Two hundred ten of the respondents are females (constituting 75%), and 213 belong to the second age group (20–29, occupying 76.07%). Most respondents have received higher education at 93.21%. It means the majority of the surveyed respondents are young and well-educated females and they are inclined to become major users of the Internet to assist their travel-related activities.

Concerning the weekly online time, people who search for approximately 11–20, 21–30, and more than 30 hours take up 23.21%, 26.79%, and 34.29%, respectively. For the origin of those surveyed, 136 participants are from Hong Kong, nearly occupying half of the total, 68 and 66 are from mainland China and Macau, and 10 people did not indicate their origins.

Tables 1–4 uncover all the results after the statistical analysis, and they are all statistically significant given that all p-values are smaller than 0.05. Table 1 presents that social media are the most popular medium for tourists to search and share information, followed by other Internet-based sources. By contrast, traditional media, such as magazines, fall far behind. Table 2 shows that today’s tourists mainly use the medium to share information more than to search, and Table 3 illustrates that tourists mostly use such platforms before their trips. Table 4 demonstrates that the most prevalent medium for information search before a trip is intermediary, which indicates that tourists still regard this as the most reliable source for the desired information and they are willing to seek views there. For the information search and sharing in other stages, social media is inclined to be the best choice, which illustrates its increasing importance not only in the daily life of people but also in the tourism industry. This result is also in accordance with the previous research mentioned in the introduction. By contrast, traditional media have lost their ground considerably because they are the least chosen option in all stages of a trip. The most and the least popular media are the same during all stages although differences exist among the rank from Nos. 2 to 4.

<table>
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Table 2. Mode of Online activities

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<td>Share</td>
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Table 3. Time for Information Search and Share

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<td>During trip</td>
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<tr>
<td>Post-trip</td>
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Table 4. Medium Used in Different Stages of a Trip

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IMPLICATIONS

This study investigated the travel information search and sharing behavior from four dimensions. Practically, the research findings can generate useful insights for all stakeholders within the tourism industry. More efforts should thus be put on better providing information before the trip because of the more frequent information search behavior in the pre-trip stage. Social media are directly related with travelers’ behavior in all stages of a trip, thus it plays an increasingly critical role in tourism and should be given due attention by the marketers. Actually travelers know the final purpose for the intermediary to provide all kinds of services is to make profits. However, it is still considered as the second most important source of information, indicating all intermediaries should devote more resources to perfecting their functions and services in order to be responsible for customers’ trust and become a more credible information search and share platform. For travel suppliers, they should not lose confidence since its score is close to the intermediaries, which calls for them to come up with more innovative ideas to engage travelers to visit and purchase. It is worth noticing that it is still important for travel suppliers to seek cooperation with social media and intermediaries to leave impressions on customers’ mind due to their vital influence on online behavior. Nevertheless, destination-marketing organizations should creatively design their websites and implement new approaches to attract tourists to acquire and share information through their websites. Because there is a gap between considerable amounts of energy and money which might have been spent by DMOs, and the actual promotion effect achieved, they should do more to bridge the gap. In addition, traditional media should consider how to reform and adjust themselves to adapt to the new social environment. Although customers, especially the young generation rely heavily on the Internet, the prevalent existence of traditional media like television can play an important role in the industry.

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TOURISTS’ PERCEPTION OF HERITAGE AND THEIR PERCEPTION OF ACCEPTABLE BEHAVIOUR AT A HERITAGE SITE

Golnaz Nazem
Universiti Sains Malaysia

INTRODUCTION

Heritage and tourism are not a new combination. In fact, today many people travel for visiting heritage sites and engaging in heritage related activities all around the world. As the number of tourists visiting heritage sites is increasing, so is their impact on these protected premises. Coming from a variety of different backgrounds, tourists engage in many different behaviours. Tourist behaviour may have a direct impact on heritage sites. Thus, the purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between tourist perception of heritage and tourist perception of acceptable behaviour at a heritage site. Previous study by Poria et al. (2003) has shown that there is a link between perception and behaviour among tourists. The study aims to confirm the previous findings and elaborate on specific types of behaviours and perceptions which are significantly related.

METHOD

Quantitative methodology is used in the form of questionnaires for data collection using convenient sampling. The area of data collection is specifically selected to be appropriate for the research. Hence, George Town Heritage Site (Core Zone) is a suitable area for this type of data collection. The site is significant because it is a World Heritage Site and home to many domestic and international tourists visiting heritage premises.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The results of this research can be of help in managing heritage sites conservation and minimizing tourists’ negative impact and footprint in heritage premises by understanding how perception links to tourist behaviour and whether manipulating or influencing perception can positively help heritage management. Understanding tourist behaviour is a crucial step to eliminating those behaviour that negatively affect a heritage premise; thus, heritage conservationists and managers can use the results of the study to further develop fruitful strategies.

Tourist perception of heritage could be a crucial factor in their behaviours while visiting a heritage site. Thus, a vulnerable premise such as a heritage site is affected by tourist behaviour. Further research is needed to confirm the link between tourists’ perception and their actual behaviour in heritage premises.

REFERENCES

A STUDY OF BRAND PERSONALITY AND TOURISM AESTHETIC EXPERIENCE A CASE OF SONGSHAN CULTURAL PARK IN TAIPEI

Hishin-Chih Hung
Ryan Wu
Yin-kai Huang
National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism

INTRODUCTION

Creativity is not just rational knowledge in the advent of the age of aesthetics. While the Twentieth century was an era of high and scientific development of materials, the Twenty-first century is an era of aesthetic and artistic development. In this new century, the term sense of beauty has become in the most popular vocabulary in modern society (Chan 2005) and in the future aesthetics can be linked through artistic, leisure and travel activities. Travel can serve as the extension of living, where one who savors about a cultural tourist scene would naturally incorporate his/her own style and taste in the travel. Featherstone (1991) thus proposed the idea of Aestheticization of everyday life. Though every individual has a different definition for beauty, we experience the same excitement and joy in beauty. The UNESCO (2006) defined more specifically the meaning of “Creative Tourism” as the arrangement for tourists to make travels with reality experience and to be involved in the learning of local arts, traditional production or featured cultures. Cultural and creative parks, which provide clustering of creativity and aesthetics, become a most appealing destination of travel in cultural and creative tourism. Brand personality is most widely applied to place of travel in terms of the realm of tourism and leisure, where travellers are able to perceive different brand personalities of the places of travel. It is also recommended that managers of travel sites use the brand personality as the basis for distinguishing their places. This study thus will adopt Aaker’s (1997) five constructs in BPS to measure the brand personality of the Songshan Cultural & Creative Park, and use the experience of sense of beauty, SOR, proposed by Mehrabian & Russell in 1974 and the model of appreciation and judgment of beauty by Helmut Leder et al. (2004), respectively, to explore the environmental factors and the stages of response to experience of sense of beauty in the cultural and creative parks, in order to make clear the brand personalities and model of experience of sense of beauty for tourists at the Songshan Cultural & Creative Park.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1940 to 1960 post-war reconstruction era, when the culture is a part of the exclusive social elite culture, with a strong sense of power and social status symbol, in the late 1980s, social inequality due to the expansion of the post-war welfare state and management reform resolved, resulting in the collapse of the traditional sectors of culture, and the rise of the new left, bringing the cultural elite does not belong to a minority community unique, and promote cultural diversity and new forms of culture such as: movies. European part of the national crisis facing industrial restructuring and de-industrialization (de-industrialization) trends have made to culture the dominant urban development policy intervention, the United Kingdom known as the earliest countries this concept (Europäische, 2006), Cultural & Creative the creation of sustainable public-sector funding has been the slogan of cultural construction, but also ignored the subject is the creation and continuation of the culture of the most fundamental units (Roodhouse, 2010), former British Prime Minister Tony Blair proposed the concept of creative industries at the time of the election, in the same year as prime minister, immediately set up a "creative industries task Force," will be defined as the creative industries, "originated in individual creativity, skill and talent of the industry, through the generation and exploitation of intellectual property, and has the potential to create wealth and
employment", and the creative industries are divided into thirteen classes and vigorously promoted, the envy of the world to get results, and Germany proposed space policy through the cultural, creative, artistic, etc., development of such pluralism, making social and cultural capital more abundant, and strengthen cultural identity of the people (Europäische, 2006). Gathered in the city to accommodate more and more elements of professional and economic functions. Scholar Michael Porter (1998) so the definition of "Park (cluster)" means: "geographic concentration of interconnected companies also have special suppliers, related organizations and related industry sectors," and described the cultural and creative industries are dissatisfied cultural status and realize their own concept of new industries.

Those with cultural and creative industries continue to bring economic benefits to the world, Taiwan is also paying attention to the "cultural capital", "Creative Capital" instead of traditional capital "land", "labor" and other cultural and creative industries. And this spatial clustering, the park will be referred to as culture (cultural quarter). Mostly in the main city center, it has a high concentration of cultural facilities and cultural events, but also with cultural production and consumption containing ambience, cater diverse and different cultures 24 hours experience requirements, and create a favorable environment for innovation, development of various possible cultural industry partnership (Richards, 2002; John, 2002). Create highly aesthetic atmosphere attractive, current national cultural and creative industries begin as a stronghold, as the city nurture creative class base and innovative human capital by replacing the traditional land and natural resources, by providing a venue to attract creative class into the city center, and to reward, cultural corporate sponsorship, grants or preferential tax policies to encourage arts organizations, industry workshop, characteristic industry coalition presence, to rebuild its historical significance and give it a new use of function, strengthen the local identity.

METHOD

According to the first chapter of this study research background and motivation, the second chapter discusses the relevant literature: "visitors to experience framework of visitors " aesthetic experience mode", "environmental aesthetic atmosphere", “personality of Songshan Cultural and Creative Park brand.” meaning instructions and research and discussion method developed in this study.

Research design

The first chapter in the literature review, document analysis and Integration Through this study tour aesthetic experience gradually clarify the concept with some facet, formed four experience facets contain elements of aesthetic ambience, and enjoy the beauty of judgment, experience the reaction, brand personality but these facets for an order established through rigorous research and analysis.

In the study design references Aaker (1997) of the BPS in five dimensions (sincere, exciting, competent, educated, rough) to measure the brand personality of the Songshan Cultural & Creative Park and Mehrabian & Russell 1974 AD proposed aesthetic experience SOR, explore the cultural and creative park are environmental factors, aesthetic experience the reaction stage, in order to clarify the visitors Songshan cultural and creative Park brand personality, aesthetic experience mode. Therefore, this study in order to ensure the reliability and validity study tour aesthetic experience Advanced mode will "pre-test" questions of the use of SPSS statistical filter to enhance the current research dimensions to form a more perfect aesthetic experience with the process of tourism brand personality facets.

![Figure 1. The study design](image)
In this study, according to the first chapter after the research background and motivation, and the second chapter of the literature review study, "visitors experience" "Environmental atmosphere of beauty", "aesthetic appreciation and judgment", "cultural and creative park Songshan brand personality", in order to Learn relevance Songshan cultural and creative park and brand personality variables between the present study architecture shown in Figure 3-1.

![Conceptual Study Chart](image)

**Research hypothesis**

H1: Atmosphere beauty environment has a positive impact on the aesthetic appreciation and judgment

H2: Aesthetic appreciation and judgment have a positive impact on the environment aesthetic atmosphere

H3: Atmosphere beauty environment has a positive impact on the brand personality

H4: Aesthetic appreciation and judgment have a positive impact on the brand personality

**IMPLICATIONS**

Brand personality is most widely applied to place of travel in terms of the realm of tourism and leisure, where travellers are able to perceive different brand personalities of the places of travel. It is also recommended that managers of travel sites use the brand personality as the basis for distinguishing their places. This study thus will adopt Aaker’s (1997) five constructs in BPS to measure the brand personality of the Songshan Cultural & Creative Park, and use the experience of sense of beauty, SOR, proposed by Mehrabian & Russell in 1974 and the model of appreciation and judgment of beauty by Helmut Leder et al. (2004), respectively, to explore the environmental factors and the stages of response to experience of sense of beauty in the cultural and creative parks, in order to make clear the brand personalities and model of experience of sense of beauty for tourists at the Songshan Cultural & Creative Park.

**REFERENCES**


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WHAT STRATEGIES ARE THERE FOR ENGAGING AND DEVELOPING THE CROSS-CULTURAL CAPACITY & CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE (CQ) OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS AND FUTURE HOSPITALITY MANAGERS WITHIN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION?

Ralph Barnes  
Blue Mountains International Hotel Management School

INTRODUCTION

Culture is seen as a powerful localization force that can inhibit or promote, the achievement of organizational goals or objectives. High-order, tailored cross-cultural training and development for global educational leaders should be a priority in order for these leaders to successfully meet future educational, organizational and managerial challenges.

The examination of leadership frameworks as a means to shape the preparation of educational leaders and inform professional development programs and practices will be undertaken.

This research contributes to the literature by providing an in-depth analysis of selected cross-cultural leaders, managers & tertiary student personnel working and studying across selected Asia-Pacific educational, government workplaces and Australian hospitality institutions.

The organizational and managerial challenges these personnel face in leading & supervising staff from different cultural and educational backgrounds will be examined and discussed. Successful leadership & cross-cultural practices will be also highlighted and analysed in detail.

METHOD

A literature review and critical examination of previous research will be conducted. The cross-cultural transferability of Western educational leadership theories will also be examined. Qualitative research methods will be adopted using in-depth interviews of 6 selected senior educational personnel and employed in Hong Kong tertiary, public (local) secondary school, government sectors as well as surveying final-year Australian hospitality students currently based at Blue Mountains International Hotel Management School.

Data collection sites for this study are:

- English Language Centre (ELC), City University of Hong Kong Kowloon Tong
- The Hong Kong University of Science & Technology, Clear Water Bay Kowloon.
- St Margaret’s Co-educational English Secondary & Primary School, Kowloon.
- The NET Section, Curriculum Development Institute (CDI) Education Bureau, Hong Kong Govt HKSAR, Tsuen Wan.
- Blue Mountains International Hotel Management School, Sydney.

The research will be a qualitative study and an exploration of the most productive and effective strategies in which the cross-cultural capacity (CCP) of educational leaders and managers (present & future) is developed and enhanced.

Interviews will be recorded and transcribed, with the accuracy and content of these interviews, verified by the participants.

A survey of international hospitality students will be conducted to examine their cross-cultural beliefs, attitude and understandings pre and post industry placement.

A literature review will be also undertaken of current research in the field of CQ and the importance and development of a high CQ in
educational leaders, in order to manage and build a successful organization.

IMPLICATIONS

The aim of the study is to examine current cultural issues, existing research and management practices facing leaders who are employed in foreign or overseas’ educational settings. Factors or influences, promoting or inhibiting successful management practices will also be examined eg quality of pre-assignment cross-cultural training & development, recruitment and retention strategies, psychological factors associated with relocation, gender issues, previous international work experience and language & communication issues.

The theory / proposal promulgated is one which takes into account the context and learning environment in which the educational leader finds himself or herself and the learning potential that this setting can offer. Learning is not done in isolation but in context, surrounded and immersed in such determinants as, cultural norms and mores, physical work environment, relationships with fellow peers, staff, colleagues and supervisors. These are powerful change agents in shaping the success or otherwise, of the organization that the educational leader manages or leads.

The aim of the study is to examine current cultural issues, existing research and management practices facing leaders and future leaders who are employed in foreign or overseas’ educational or hospitality settings. Factors or influences, promoting or inhibiting successful management practices will also be examined eg quality of pre-assignment cross-cultural training & development, recruitment and retention strategies, psychological factors associated with relocation, gender issues, previous international work experience and language & communication issues.

REFERENCES

AN ANALYSIS OF HOTEL WEBSITE VISITORS’ ONLINE BEHAVIOR

Jianwei Qian
Rob Law
Lorenzo Masiero
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Richard Hatter
Hotel ICON

INTRODUCTION

The prevalence of the Internet, and its growing and all-pervading impact as a source of information, a market platform, and a context for social interaction, have attracted increasing attention in researching what customers do online and how their behavior tends to be predicted and affected. Knowing about website users’ information needs and searching patterns is therefore of great significance for a company to keep its core competitiveness in online marketing (Dias & Vermunt, 2007). For example, obtained pattern for users’ access path is an indication of the typical behavior of users, which could be used to predict desired pages of customers and accordingly design pages to meet their needs. Click stream data, which are stored as a record of a web user’s actions online like the way users browse the website, the way they reply to the design and the structure of the website, and the way they shift among pages within a website, can help achieve the aforementioned analytical function. And web server logs on behalf of the site provider could be employed to record all the requests and information transfer implemented between computers connecting the visitor and the server, which actually capture click stream data, hence these logs can serve as a useful tool for usage mining.

Companies doing e-commerce can benefit a lot from the mining result since it can be further utilized in various applications, including modifying the website, seeking improvement for the system and offering business strategies, which, in the end, contributes to improving customer loyalty and profitability. Consequently, craving for fully mining the log data has aroused an active market to develop tools to analyze, sum up and visualize the mining result to better serve online marketing. Though tourism is strongly influenced by e-business systems and their related applications (Werthner & Ricci, 2004), few studies have been conducted to explore the huge potential hidden in web usage mining to offer both theoretical and practical implications for the e-tourism sphere. According to the researchers’ up-to-date search in Google Scholar (https://scholar.google.com.hk/) and Science Direct (http://www.sciencedirect.com/), three previous studies could shed light on web log data research in tourism.

Olmeda and Sheldon (2002) are among the early tourism researchers who address the importance of data mining techniques for online tourism marketing and customer relationship building. In their work, five important data mining techniques including web log file are introduced together with how they can be applied in the travel industry. But the potential issues related with employing these tools have been proposed as well. Leung and Law (2008) study the access paths for a Hong Kong hotel’s official website and uncover most visitors to the website are local residents and they search the dining information most frequently, indicating the relatively low visibility of the website in search engines. And the improperly organized information structure leads to the uneasiness for users to achieve the desired information. In order to overcome the problem of typical tools used to analyze website data that merely provide general descriptive statistics and overlook the chances unsupervised learning techniques may offer, Pitman, Zanker, Fuchs, and Lexhagen (2010) suggest to employ query term analysis together with session clustering approach to better explore web users’ information needs. On the whole, research in this
area is still scarce. Therefore, more studies are called for to supply both theoretical and practical implications for further implementation of online usage mining in hospitality.

To bridge the research gap, the present study first analyzes the log data of Hotel A to generate the basic information and then employs a manual way to uncover the customers’ surfing behavior and identify drawbacks hidden behind those data.

**METHOD**

Hotel A is a luxury hotel located in East Tsim Sha Tsui of Kowloon, Hong Kong, which is among the top destinations in Asia. The hotel has 262 guest rooms with 3 restaurants. One year’s web server log data ranging from August 1, 2014 to July 31, 2015 were collected from the English version of the hotel’s website (www.hotel-icon.com) for identifying users’ browsing pattern. All web logs were then imported into a web log analysis software, WebLog Expert, for further analysis. A total of 818MB data were analyzed and the following analyses were performed:

i. Geographic analysis about visitors which mainly show the composition of visitors according to its country of residence.

ii. Browser analysis which intends to demonstrate which browser, device and spider web users would like to use most while searching for the hotel website.

iii. Access path analysis which focuses on exhibiting top hotel website visitor’s entry and exit pages.

iv. Activity analysis which explores when visitors click the website by categories of hour of a day, day of a week and month of a year.

v. Error analysis which examines the hidden problem for the current website.

**FINDINGS**

The empirical result shows nearly 1.62 million visitors browsed the hotel website with 73 million hits. On average, 4,072 visitors hit the website every day with 2.94 page views for each visitor. Table I provides information regarding the rank of the country of residence among web visitors. Asian users accounted for the majority of the web visitors with 70.55% while North American and European visitors merely took up 11.21% and 9.33% separately. Among the Asian visitors, 45.06% were Hong Kong residents, 10.02% were from China, and 6.08% were from Singapore.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hong Kong SAR</td>
<td>728,482</td>
<td>45.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>161,988</td>
<td>10.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>160,163</td>
<td>9.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>98,259</td>
<td>6.08%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>50,755</td>
<td>3.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>49,304</td>
<td>3.05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>23,935</td>
<td>1.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>21,419</td>
<td>1.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>21,081</td>
<td>1.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>301,198</td>
<td>18.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>1,616,584</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Google Chrome, Mobile Safari, Internet Explorer occupied almost 2/3 of the visitor used browsers with 30.62%, 21.62%, and 14.48% for each. It indicates where the hotel should allocate its marketing resources to make the hotel image more visible. And mobile and tablet constituted 41.04% of used devices and they are still on a rising trend, which is in accordance with the recent focus on mobile marketing within the hospitality. Spider page can flag which website visitors prefer to use while searching for the hotel and in this study Google, Bing, Baidu, Facebook and Yandex were the top five search engines as is indicated in Fig. 2.
The most popular entry page was expectedly the hotel home page with a total of 112,877 clicks (54.72%), and it was also the preferred exit page with 71,372 clicks. It is supposed to reveal most search engines tended to direct users to the home page of the hotel first and a large number of visitors simply left the web page when the home page appeared since customers may have got the desired information from the front page or it might not be their targeted hotel. Dining page was the second most popular entry page occupying 8.11%. It can be partially explained by the fact that Hong Kong is a destination famous for its food and partially by that the majority visitors are locals whose interest is similar to the dining products offered by the hotel, like the buffet and the afternoon tea. Offer page ranked the third, taking up 7.35%, which suggests giving discounts to customers influences their choice to a certain degree. For the exit page, the ranks of dining and offer were the same as those in entry page, therefore, it further illustrates where website users’ interest lie (please see Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>ENTRY</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
<th>Rate</th>
<th>EXIT</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Home Page</td>
<td>112,877</td>
<td>54.72%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Home Page</td>
<td>71,372</td>
<td>35.42%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Dining Page</td>
<td>16,729</td>
<td>8.11%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dining Page</td>
<td>26,664</td>
<td>13.23%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Offer Page</td>
<td>15,155</td>
<td>7.35%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Offer Page</td>
<td>12,618</td>
<td>6.26%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Room Page</td>
<td>3,312</td>
<td>1.61%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Room Page</td>
<td>8,436</td>
<td>4.19%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Hotel Information Page</td>
<td>2,214</td>
<td>1.07%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Contact page</td>
<td>6,368</td>
<td>3.16%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the active time of the hotel website by hour of a day, it is clear the number of visitors remained relatively stable around eighty-five thousands between 11:00 and 23:59. It tells searching behavior mainly starts to increase from the noon until the midnight (Fig. 2). However, for the day of a week (Fig. 3), it is a bit out of expectation that the number of visitors during the weekday was around 240,000 thousand, but it was reduced to about 200,000 thousand for the weekend. It may be explained by the reason that more local customers will come to dine in the restaurant on weekdays and they need to get the latest information about the food and some promotional activities, which conforms to the result of top entry and exit pages. Because of the political campaign starting from September, 2014, many mainland tourists did not come to Hong Kong, which made the number of web visitors drop fast from 104,655 in August, 2014 to 90,304 in October, 2014. And after that the number began to rise with March, 2015 the summit at 149,633.
All together seven types of errors were identified, but only the first three were, relatively speaking, the ones worth drawing attention to, constituting 99% of the total (please refer to Fig. 4). Apparently, “Not Found” was a concern as it took up a large portion of the identified errors. It seems to point out there existed many blank pages which may hinder users’ further exploration in the hotel website and eventually make them lose interest in the hotel. Compared with the total hit 73 million, the error hit nearly amounts to 2%, and if not dealt with properly, it may affect the online image of the hotel.
IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This research makes an attempt to raise the awareness of the important role hotel web log evaluation may play in understanding online visitors’ behavior. The data analysis is carried out from five dimensions. From the geographic information, the key market could be emphasized. In our case, mostly short-haul visitors, including local residents, should be paid special attention to. From the browser analysis, the hotel could properly exploit its limited but precious resources in the right online channel. After analyzing the entry page and the exit page, the focal page that worth more efforts to build could be identified. The home page, as the most important entry, should have a good impression to visitors and leads them to further exploration of the website for retrieving the desired information. The ways of how to perfect the food offered and how to conduct promotional activities also deserve special attention since they are among the top entry and exit pages. The hotel may know how to arrange its marketing strategy according to the change of the time to improve its occupancy rate and generate revenue from its dining service. A list of active time on a day is the key period for the hotel to conduct promotion. The hotel might also adjust its promotion policy to meet some market challenges such as seasonal changes and tourist flow fluctuation caused by other factors. For the error page, the web operator should monitor and find out the reasons to reduce the error percentage as much as possible. Only when customers have achieved what they want to know online, they will then purchase online. Also, for software developers, further improvement should be considered in order to meet the ever-changing market need, helping the hotel correctly master customers’ intention and generate more revenue.

There exist certain limitations in the current research. Only the data from one hotel is analyzed, which may lead to an incomplete understanding of visitors’ online behavior. Analyses such as behavioral differences between local visitors and those from overseas are not conducted. Therefore, further research is needed to better understand web data mining in the hotel industry.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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REFERENCES


FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENTS’ INDECISIVENESS ABOUT CAREER CHOICES

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Ning-Kuang Chuang
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INTRODUCTION

As a result of China’s economic growth, its hospitality and tourism industries are in a fast development period. With this growth comes an unlimited supply of business opportunities. These opportunities coincide with the opening of Disneyland Shanghai theme park, as well as more international conferences, and events in 2016. Therefore, the international hotel groups have shifted their focus of development in mainland China. In a report, the Inter Continental Hotel Group has announced that China will be expected to reach 6.1 million hotel rooms by 2025, the same as the United States (Yang, 2011). International hotel groups are quickening their expansion scales and speed in mainland China. As China’s hospitality and tourism industries grow, increased competition between domestic and international hotels is inevitable.

Increased competition within the hospitality and tourism industries places further importance on recruiting and retaining talented employees (Richardson, 2009). This competition has resulted in an increased popularity among China’s young generations. Current data shows an increased number of young generations enrolling in the hospitality and tourism management programs from 1995 to 2005 (Kim et al., 2007). Furthermore, this evidence indicates that young generations have a willingness to enter in the hospitality and tourism industries. However, there is a lack of labor in China within the industry. Chinese residents are reluctant to work within the industry as a result of low salary, busy work schedules, parental influences, and working conditions (Chak-keung Wong & Jing Liu, 2010; Duncan, Scott, & Baum, 2013; Richardson, 2008; Wong, Siu & Tsang, 1999; Zellweger, Steger, & Halter, 2011). These factors make it difficult for young generations to decide whether or not to become part of China’s hospitality and tourism industries (Chen & Shen, 2012; Duncan, Scott, & Baum, 2013; Zellweger, Sieger, & Halter, 2011).

Career indecisiveness is a common problem for young generations (Feldman, 2003). Young generations aged from 18 to 24 have curiosities about the outside world and prefer to explore new opportunities (Brown, 2004). At times this curiosity may escalate to indecisiveness regarding future life and career choices. Therefore, their career choices are influenced by some factors including social media, family background, social status, and salary (Ashby & Schoon, 2010; Ayanwale, Alimi, & Ayanbimipe, 2005; Lee & Rojewski, 2009). Based on this situation, young generations have problems of career indecisiveness in the process of making career choices (Fabio et al., 2013; Lipshits-Brazilier, Gati, & Tatar, 2016).

This career indecisiveness is evident to those students enrolled in hospitality and tourism programs. Furthermore, indecisiveness extends to the student inability to select domestic or international hotels as career choice. In addition, understanding young generations’ indecisions about brand preference is beneficial to hiring managers seeking and attracting qualified employees (Ayanwale, Alimi, & Ayanbimipe, 2005; Brown et al., 2008; Shen & Chang, 2008; Germeijis & De Boeck, 2003; Jamal & Al-Marri, 2007).

Current research is limited on the effect of brand preference and career indecisiveness (Chen & Chang, 2008; Fabio et al., 2013; Lipshits-Brazilier, Gati, & Tatar, 2016). Most current related research focuses on the factors that influence career choices.
from a diversity perspective, such as cultural difference, difficulties, and barriers (Mau, 2000; Gati & Amir, 2010; Willner, Gati, & Guan, 2015). In recognition of such gaps, this paper will assess the effect of brand preference and career indecisiveness on career choices among young generations in China’s hospitality and tourism industries.

METHOD

This study will use convenient sampling surveying Chinese young generation, ages ranging from 18 to 24. College students fall under this category (Brown, Arendt, & Bosselman, 2014; Chen & Shen, 2012; Richardson, 2008; Richardson, 2009; Richardson & Butler, 2012; Teng, 2008; Tse, 2010). The sample will include students from various majors (e.g., hospitality, tourism, and business).

The instrument used in this study is a self-administered two-part questionnaire. Section one gathers background and demographic information of students. Section two assesses three variables; brand preference, career indecisiveness, and career choices (Chartrand, et al., 1993; Rojewski & Hill, 1998). The administered questionnaire uses a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Descriptive statistics will be used to analyze and summarize participants’ background and demographic information of students. T-test and two-way ANOVA will be conducted to indicate whether the variables have differences based upon demographic information, such as gender, family influence, and educational level.

FINDINGS

This study explores the extent of students’ career attitudes, preference, and influences between domestic and international hotel brands.

Based on the analysis of collected data, it is hypothesized that students prefer employment with international hotels rather than domestic hotels. Furthermore, demographic background is also hypothesized to show the impact on career related variables; such as female students prefer international hotels over domestic hotels. In addition, parental influence is hypothesized to have an impact on career choices. Lastly, it is hypothesized that career indecisiveness has a moderate impact on career choices among students.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Results of this research will recommend that when student making career choices are affected by brand preference which leads to career indecisiveness. The knowledge gained from the study will benefit to China’s young generations, educators, and hiring hospitality and tourism managers.

For young generations of China, the findings of this study will help them break through the indecisiveness of which hotel brand is best for them. Furthermore, Chinese educators can aid students’ career choice by providing reasonable career suggestions for students. Finally, hospitality and tourism hiring managers will have a further understanding on how to attract potential young generation employees which in turn will help them keep their competitive advantages.

REFERENCES


MACAO'S HALLMARK EVENTS: WHAT ARE THE POSSIBILITIES?

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Ubaldino Couto
Anna Litwin
Institute for Tourism Studies

INTRODUCTION

Hallmark events are defined as events which are able to attract a large number of tourists to a destination and contribute to the revenue of tourism and hospitality industry (Ritchie, 1984). They have close relationship with local culture and traditions of the hosting community and bring significant benefits to the local community at the same time. Therefore, this research aims to find out the festivals and events which meet the necessary criteria to become Macao's hallmark events and raise recommendations for them.

A review of the literature on definitions of hallmark events was conducted to generate criteria that define hallmark events (Getz, 2012; Ritchie, 1984; Allen, O’Toole, Harris, McDonnell, 2008; Getz, Svensson, Peterssen, & Gunnervall, 2012; McCartney, 2010). Five indicators were thus generated: scope, cultural attachment, economic value, destination value and impacts. These criteria are extensively discussed and supported by examples from around the world, particularly in the Asia Pacific region where the study is based. The following table shows the different components that make up each indicator.

Table 1. Indicators of hallmark events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scope</th>
<th>Cultural attachment</th>
<th>Economic value</th>
<th>Destination value</th>
<th>Impacts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recurring events</td>
<td>Relationship with culture or tradition</td>
<td>Tourists and tourism revenue</td>
<td>Competitive advantage</td>
<td>Social-cultural impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative to the size of the host community</td>
<td>Rapport with host community</td>
<td>Investment and business opportunities</td>
<td>International recognition</td>
<td>Economic impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniqueness</td>
<td>Involvement from local businesses</td>
<td>Residents’ sense of local pride</td>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical significance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

METHOD

The qualitative research approach was selected in this study in order to comprehend the characteristics of hallmark events effectively and raise recommendations for the event development in Macao. Qualitative approach is helpful to analyse topics from different aspects and in a more comprehensive way (King, 2004). Specifically, semi-structured interviews were conducted as they allowed interviewees to illustrate their perspectives about a topic fully in details. Besides, it is effective and efficient to collect diversified opinions and attitudes (Meehan, 2014). These semi-structured interviews were conducted with four event experts and one heritage expert in Higher Education Institutions in Macao in order to collect and analyse their views on the possibility of developing hallmark events in Macao, which in turn were based on their academic knowledge and work experience. Deeper thinking can be grasped in a detailed and broad way with these experts and topics uncovered in the research can be found to raise the integrity. The interviews were conducted in suitable venues and each lasted on average 30 to 45 minutes. Interviews data was transcribed and translated as necessary for analysis.
FINDINGS

The interviewees were asked open-ended questions about the current situation and development of hallmark events in Macao based on the five indicators of hallmark events. They described hallmark events using words like "culture relevant", "known by a large number of people", "unique" and "show destination image" which were somewhat consistent with the five indicators of hallmark events generated from the literature review. Additionally, they emphasized that scope and cultural attachment are two vital factors when they defined hallmark events, specifically, recurring large-scale events with strong relationship with local culture and demonstrate uniqueness were those highlighted as criteria of hallmark events.

Another important factor when they defined hallmark events was the historical significance of events, specifically, they referred to the legacies of events. Two of the interviewees explained by using the Macao Grand Prix as an example because it came from the western culture in the history of Macao which encouraged a car racing culture in Macao. Therefore, its cultural attachment is more in the cultural background and impacts in the history of Macao.

The interviewees also discussed the business opportunities that hallmark events could bring. Direct economic impacts to the community in which these events are held include beneficiaries such as the tourism and hospitality industry as they potentially attract a lot of tourists, which in turn stimulate tourism development. Besides, popular tourist destinations often encourage further business developments in auxiliary industries which bring benefits to the wider community. Respondents also commented that hallmark events increase the destination value and demonstrate the unique cultural identity of a destination which are two important factors that attract high quality tourists. Last but not least, due to the harmony of Chinese and Portuguese cultural identities in Macao, interviewees believed that events showing both cultures can be Macao's representative events.

However, none of the festivals and events in Macao merit a ‘hallmark’ status by meeting all the five indicators generated from the literature nor from the interviewees’ definitions as not a single event meet all requirements to be a hallmark event, specifically, of certain scope and be culturally attached. Nonetheless, they believed two events are potentially capable to be developed as hallmark events in Macao, specifically, the Feast of the Drunken Dragon and the Macao Grand Prix.

The Feast of the Drunken Dragon is listed as a National Intangible Cultural Heritage of Macao which celebrates the religious and cultural attachment of Macao’s unique fishing traditions and history. However, further development in scale is restricted by its venue and activities because the festival is usually held in the wet markets by fishmongers in Macao. Therefore, the small scale also limits its economic value, destination value and impacts to the outside communities. These restrictions hinder the further development of the Feast of the Drunken Dragon into a hallmark event.

The other potential hallmark event is the Macau Grand Prix, probably the largest and most famous event in Macao. With a history of more than 60 years, it represents and reinstates the influence of the western culture in Macao. The major event attracts a great number of spectators to Macao every year. The strong reputation of this event in the motorsport industry, and certainly in the region as a tourist event, are the main support for its hallmark status. Compared to the Feast of the Drunken Dragon, the Macau Grand Prix has greater economic value and significance to the government and private sectors both locally and abroad. Although this is essentially a sports event, the car racing culture has its origin and history from the Portuguese who ruled Macao for 453-years before 1999. Therefore, more cultural elements and activities can be created to enrich the Macau Grand Prix to demonstrate the unique cultural proposition in Macao.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

In conclusion, an event that warrants a hallmark status based on the five indicators of hallmark events is not present. One vital reason is that current festivals and events in Macao show only part of the mixed culture of Macao demonstrating
either Portuguese culture or Chinese culture. Instead, if events can show the combination of both cultures can represent the unique culture of Macao.

The other reason is the scale of current festivals and events in Macao. As the resources and capacity of Macao are limited, it is not possible to accommodate a large number of tourists at the same time for one event or series of events. Otherwise, their satisfaction can be reduced and repeated visits can be decreased while more negative impacts can be brought to the city and residents.

As Macao has a mixed-culture of Portuguese and Chinese culture, there are a variety of Chinese and western festivals and events. Hence, besides developing potential hallmark events, various festivals and events can be continuously supported and developed by Macao government and local communities as signature events in Macao. More elements or activities showing the unique mixed culture of Macao can be highlighted and emphasized during different festivals and events. This is consistent with the strategy of building Macao as an "eventful city" and drive repeated visits and longer visits of tourists to attend different kinds of events. The unique culture and heritage of Macao can be reinforced in events and more promotional efforts are needed to make these events more well-known regionally.

REFERENCES


AN EXPLORATION OF TOURISM OPERATORS’ ENGAGEMENT IN CO-CREATION PROCESS: CHINESE TOURISM IN REGIONAL AUSTRALIA

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University of Tasmania

INTRODUCTION

Tourism has become one of the world’s major significant industries since World War II. Chinese outbound tourism has emerged in the recent twenty years, propelling China to become one of the largest tourist source markets (Fugmann & Aceves, 2013). It is expected that by 2020 over 200 million Chinese will travel overseas, which will be double the number of 2013 (Lui, Kuo, Fung, & Hsu, 2012; Ryan, 2014). In Australia, tourism is the largest service export industry. International tourist arrivals from the emerging economies, especially China play an increasingly important role in economic development (UNWTO, 2013, 2015). Tourism directly contributes more than AUD$42.3 billion to Australia’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which is 2.8% of total GDP in 2014, and international visitors’spending contributed $30.1 billion to the GDP (Tourism Research Australia, 2014). Nevertheless, regional Australia, such as Tasmania, still only captures a small percentage of the total inbound Chinese tourists to Australia, even though Tasmania has been positioned as a prime eco-tourist destination, and it offers unique wilderness experiences. While Australia recorded a total of 736,000 Chinese tourists for late 2014, at the same time only a small fraction of these visitors (20,800 in total or about 3%) chose to travel south to Tasmania.

A recent concept in tourism is co-creation. With the recent trends such as globalization, deregulation, outsourcing, and the convergence of industries and technologies, it is hard for managers to differentiate offerings nowadays (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). Traditionally, the concept of a market is company-centric, and a market is a place for exchange of value; however, informed, connected, empowered and active consumers are increasingly learning that they too can extract value at the traditional point of exchange. Accordingly, value has become the result of an implicit negotiation between the individual consumer and the firm. In this century, industry needs to be prepared for the change. Rather than arguing that manufacturer should design products to suit consumer’s needs, co-creation suggests it is more important to build upon scenarios where a consumer has the ability to personalize their own experience and as such, ‘co-create’ the context of their experiences (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2000, 2004; Volo, 2009). Co-creation is one method by which the tourist experience may be researched as products mature and evolve. This research aims to explore regional Australian tourism operators’ engagement in the co-creation process with Chinese tourists. The study will be conducted from Tasmanian tourism operators’ perspective and attempt to solve the practical issues in their business practice with Chinese tourists by adopting the concept of co-creation.

METHOD

This poster reports on the literature review stage of the research. Literature is being reviewed from two aspects: Firstly, this review of the theoretical literature examines the antecedents to co-creation theory; namely tourist experiences, and tourist satisfaction. Secondly, empirical research on the Chinese outbound market is examined in order to form the background. Thus, this literature review has two main purposes. Firstly, through a systematic review of relevant theories, it proposes to extend co-creation theory to tourism settings. Secondly, it will present an overview of research on the Australian tourism industry for the Chinese market, in order to give a bird’s eye view of the industry’s ability to date for cater to the Chinese market.
Co-creation in the transformative tourism environment will be a lens through which to study Chinese inbound market in Australian regional economies.

Review of theories. The theory section has four dimensions. First, tourist experience is introduced as a foundational concept to tourism research. Next, tourist satisfaction is reviewed. It then moves on to the life cycle concept, which is the skeleton of the study, and several schools of thoughts will be explained. Last, the study will assess the development and importance of co-creation in the tourism sector.

Review of empirical studies. The objectives of this section are three-fold. Firstly, to discuss the development of Chinese outbound tourism literature; secondly, to review current studies of Chinese inbound tourism to Australia; thirdly, to examine the Chinese visitation to regional economies of Australia. The empirical research presented here is a summary of the reviewed studies to show what has been done regarding the Chinese outbound market and what seems insufficient among literature.

FINDINGS

So far, three research gaps were found in the tourism co-creation literature. Firstly, tourism is one of the ever growing sources of experiences with people construct their own unique narratives, but applications of co-creation in tourism are scarce (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009), even though co-creation has already been used by a variety of fields. Co-creation is a relatively new concept to tourism research and only a limited number of studies have investigated the co-creation of experience (Adhikari & Bhattacharya, 2015). Therefore, literature suggests that more empirical evidence about co-creation is needed (Bertella, 2014; Campos, Mendes, Valle, & Scott, 2015; Ferguson, Paulin, & Bergeron, 2010; Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Lee, Olson, & Trimi, 2012; Lugosi, 2014; Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008; Prebensen, Kim, & Uysal, 2015; Vega-Vazquez, Ángeles Revilla-Camacho, & J. Cossio-Silva, 2013).

Second, it has been suggested that future research must validate the scale of co-creation behaviour across distinct cultures, because exploring the influence of culture on customer value co-creation behaviour is a result of the increasing globalization of customer markets (Yi & Gong, 2013). The scale of the behaviour has been outlined as comprising participation and interaction, accordingly. Similarly, it has been suggested that further research is needed to determine whether different segments of tourists display differing willingness to be involved in the co-creation process (Campos et al., 2015, p. 26). This is highly significant because it would allow firms to provide better and more personalized co-creation opportunities. Thus, further research is needed to examine whether this may affect different cultural segments’ propensity to become involved in co-creation opportunities.

Currently, the majority of the research has been conducted from the European countries such as Norway, (Prebensen et al., 2015), Spain (Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013), Italy (Cova & Dalli, 2009), Sweden (Gössling, Haglund, Kallgren, Revahl, & Hultman, 2009), Germany (Heidenreich, Wittkowski, Handrich, & Falk, 2014), the United Kingdom (Lugosi, 2014; Rihova, Buhalis, Moital, & Gouthro, 2015), a few was conducted in the United States (Chan, Yim, & Lam, 2010; Gjerald & Lyngstad, 2015; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004) and couples of them from Australia (Campos et al., 2015; Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Payne et al., 2008). The co-creation study would have been even more signifigicative if it had included different segments such as Asian and African.

Thirdly, in addition to understanding the impact that cultural segments may have upon co-creation process, there is a lack of studies from operators’ perspective. Few theorists explicitly research the role of operators, and few empirical studies explicitly examined its impact on the co-creation process. Gjerald and Lyngstad (2015) conclude that more attention should be paid to understand service providers’ efforts to control or enhance the process of co-creation, since much of the research on customer co-creation has focused on the willingness of customers to co-create the value of various services. The need to investigate to what extent they engage with tourist participation should be highlighted. Questions on how tourism operators strive for balance between controlling tourist initiative and enhancing tourist experience also remains unanswered (Gjerald & Lyngstad, 2015; Verhoef, Beckers, & van Doorn, 2013).

It is noteworthy that the vast majority of the previous
research about Chinese inbound tourism in Australia has been limited to only few popular cities and states, particularly the data-collection are restricted to these. Research makes little attempt to give sufficient consideration to the peripheral nature of regional Australia and research offers an inadequate explanation for Chinese inbound tourism to these areas. The popular areas include coastal resorts or tourism icons, such as Gold Coast, Brisbane, Sydney and Melbourne. Consequently, the advantages of regional economies are under explored. Therefore, a significant research gap regarding Chinese inbound tourists in regional economies of Australia has been raised.

CONCLUSION

Tourism operators should integrate the idea of ‘ongoing change’ into business development process; meanwhile, culture understanding could be important for operators because it directly influence customers’ provision of input in the co-creation process (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). Findings from literature show that impact of cultural differences on tourism operators’ engagement in co-creation process would be a promising research area. Specifically, this research attempts to extend the co-creation to Chinese-Australia tourism settings. For next stage, given the explorative nature of this research, it will employ a qualitative method; semi-structured interview with those involved in the management of tourism business; in fact, interpretive paradigm will be selected for the empirical inquiry. Tourism has become one of the world’s major significant industries since World War II. Chinese outbound tourism has emerged in the recent twenty years, propelling China to become one of the largest tourist source markets (Fugmann & Aceves, 2013). It is expected that by 2020 over 200 million Chinese will travel overseas, which will double the number of 2013 (Lui, Kuo, Fung, & Hsu, 2012; Ryan, 2014). In Australia, tourism is the largest service export industry. International tourist arrivals from the emerging economies, especially China play an increasingly important role in economic development (UNWTO, 2013, 2015). Tourism directly contributes more than AUD$42.3 billion to Australia’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which is 2.8% of total GDP in 2014, and international visitors’ spending contributed $30.1 billion to the GDP (Tourism Research Australia, 2014). Nevertheless, regional Australia, such as Tasmania, still only captures a small percentage of the total inbound Chinese tourists to Australia, even though Tasmania has been positioned as a prime eco-tourist destination, and it offers unique wilderness experiences. While Australia recorded a total of 736,000 Chinese tourists for late 2014, at the same time only a small fraction of these visitors (20,800 in total or about 3%) chose to travel south to Tasmania.

A recent concept in tourism is co-creation. With the recent trends such as globalization, deregulation, outsourcing, and the convergence of industries and technologies, it is hard for managers to differentiate offerings nowadays (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). Traditionally, the concept of a market is company-centric, and a market is a place for exchange of value; however, informed, connected, empowered and active consumers are increasingly learning that they too can extract value at the traditional point of exchange. Accordingly, value has become the result of an implicit negotiation between the individual consumer and the firm. In this century, industry needs to be prepared for the change. Rather than arguing that manufacturer should design products to suit consumer’s needs, co-creation suggests it is more important to build upon scenarios where a consumer has the ability to personalize their own experience and as such, ‘co-create’ the context of their experiences (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2000, 2004; Volo, 2009). Co-creation is one method by which the tourism experience may be researched and evolve.

This research aims to explore regional Australian tourism operators’ engagement in the co-creation process with Chinese tourists. The study will be conducted from Tasmanian tourism operators’ perspective and attempt to solve the practical issues in their business practice with Chinese tourists by adopting the concept of co-creation.

METHOD

This poster reports on the literature review stage of the research. Literature is being reviewed from two aspects: Firstly, this review of the theoretical literature examines the antecedents to co-creation theory; namely tourist experiences, and tourist satisfaction. Secondly, empirical research on the Chinese outbound market is examined in order
to form the background. Thus, this literature review has two main purposes. Firstly, through a systematic review of relevant theories, it proposes to extend co-creation theory to tourism settings. Secondly, it will present an overview of research on the Australian tourism industry for the Chinese market, in order to give a bird’s eye view of the industry’s ability to date for cater to the Chinese market. Co-creation in the transformative tourism environment will be a lens through which to study Chinese inbound market in Australian regional economies.

Review of theories.

The theory section has four dimensions. First, tourist experience is introduced as a foundational concept to tourism research. Next, tourist satisfaction is reviewed. It then moves on to the life cycle concept, which is the skeleton of the study, and several schools of thoughts will be explained. Last, the study will assess the development and importance of co-creation in the tourism sector.

Review of empirical studies.

The objectives of this section are three-fold. Firstly, to discuss the development of Chinese outbound tourism literature; secondly, to review current studies of Chinese inbound tourism to Australia; thirdly, to examine the Chinese visitation to regional economies of Australia. The empirical research presented here is a summary of the reviewed studies to show what has been done regarding the Chinese outbound market and what seems insufficient among literature.

FINDINGS

So far, three research gaps were found in the tourism co-creation literature. Firstly, tourism is one of the ever growing sources of experiences with people construct their own unique narratives, but applications of co-creation in tourism are scarce (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009), even though co-creation has already been used by a variety of fields. Co-creation is a relatively new concept to tourism research and only a limited number of studies have investigated the co-creation of experience (Adhikari & Bhattacharya, 2015). Therefore, literature suggests that more empirical evidence about co-creation is needed (Bertaina, 2014; Campos, Mendes, Valle, & Scott, 2015; Ferguson, Paulin, & Bergeron, 2010; Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Lee, Olson, & Trimi, 2012; Lugosi, 2014; Payne, Storbacka, & Frow, 2008; Prebensen, Kim, & Uysal, 2015; Vega-Vazquez, Ángeles Revilla-Camacho, & J. Cossio-Silva, 2013).

Second, it has been suggested that future research must validate the scale of co-creation behaviour across distinct cultures, because exploring the influence of culture on customer value co-creation behaviour is a result of the increasing globalization of customer markets (Yi & Gong, 2013). The scale of the behaviour has been outlined as comprising participation and interaction, accordingly. Similarly, it has been suggested that further research is needed to determine whether different segments of tourists display differing willingness to be involved in the co-creation process (Campos et al., 2015, p. 26). This is highly significant because it would allow firms to provide better and more personalized co-creation opportunities. Thus, further research is needed to examine whether this may affect different cultural segments’ propensity to become involved in co-creation opportunities.

Currently, the majority of the research has been conducted from the European countries such as Norway, (Prebensen et al., 2015), Spain (Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013), Italy (Cova & Dalli, 2009), Sweden (Gössling, Haglund, Kallgren, Revahl, & Hultman, 2009), Germany (Heidenreich, Wittkowski, Handrich, & Falk, 2014), the United Kingdom (Lugosi, 2014; Rihova, Buhalir, Moital, & Gouthro, 2015), a few was conducted in the United States (Chan, Yim, & Lam, 2010; Gjerald & Lyngstad, 2015; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004) and couples of them from Australia (Campos et al., 2015; Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Payne et al., 2008). The co-creation study would have been even more significative if it had included different segments such as Asian and African.

Thirdly, in addition to understanding the impact that cultural segments may have upon co-creation process, there is a lack of studies from operators’ perspective. Few theorists explicitly research the role of operators, and few empirical studies explicitly examined its effect on the co-creation process. Gjerald and Lyngstad (2015) conclude that more attention should be paid to understand service providers’ efforts to control or enhance the process of co-creation, since much of the research on customer co-creation has focused
on the willingness of customers to co-create the value of various services. The need to investigate to what extent they engage with tourist participation should be highlighted. Questions on how tourism operators strive for balance between controlling tourist initiative and enhancing tourist experience also remains unanswered (Gjerald & Lyngstad, 2015; Verhoeef, Beckers, & van Doorn, 2013).

It is noteworthy that the vast majority of the previous research about Chinese inbound tourism in Australia has been limited to only few popular cities and states, particularly the data-collection are restricted to these. Research makes little attempt to give sufficient consideration to the peripheral nature of regional Australia and research offers an inadequate explanation for Chinese inbound tourism to these areas. The popular areas include coastal resorts or tourism icons, such as Gold Coast, Brisbane, Sydney and Melbourne. Consequently, the advantages of regional economies are under explored. Therefore, a significant research gap regarding Chinese inbound tourists in regional economies of Australia has been raised.

CONCLUSION

Tourism operators should integrate the idea of ‘ongoing change’ into business development process; meanwhile, culture understanding could be important for operators because it directly influence customers’ provision of input in the co-creation process (Grisse mann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012). Findings from literature show that impact of cultural differences on tourism operators’ engagement in co-creation process would be a promising research area. Specifically, this research attempts to extend the co-creation to Chinese-Australia tourism settings. For next stage, given the explorative nature of this research, it will employ a qualitative method; semi-structured interview with those involved in the management of tourism business; in fact, interpretive paradigm will be selected for the empirical inquiry.

REFERENCES


WHAT MAKE TOURIST DISSATISFIED?
AN APPLICATION OF MINING TRAVEL BLOGS

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INTRODUCTION

Customer, or tourist satisfaction is defined as people’s post-consumption evaluation of a specific product or service (Gundersen, Heide, and Olsson, 1996). Because of its’ correlation with customer loyalty, retention, market share and profitability (Rust, Zahorik and Keiningham, 1995), customer satisfaction has been an enduring and extensively researched area in customer behavior and tourism fields since the concept was introduced (Engest and Elveskrok, 2014; Pizam, Neumann and Reichel, 1978). However, travelers’ dissatisfying experience, when compared with customer satisfaction, seem to be generally ignored by researchers (Alegre and Garau, 2010). It is not enough to look at one concept from one-side; dissatisfying customers or tourists are worth studying as well. This is because negative information may have equal or even greater influence on people than positive information at the cognitive level (Lutz, 1975; Kelley, Hoffman, and Davis, 1993). Moreover, as suggested by Hirschman’s (1970) exit-voice theory, dissatisfying experiences may negatively influence customers’ desire of return and products’ word-of-mouth. Therefore, the primary goal of this research is to explore the determinants of tourist dissatisfaction.

Tourist experience can be studied by mining the contents of online blogs (Banyai and Glover, 2012). Blogs enable people to share their opinions, sentiments and stories freely, which has made it one of the most popular communication platforms on the Internet. As travel and tourism is one of the most popular topics among all categories of blogs (Pekar and Ou, 2008), Internet blogs can be a rich information source for researchers to extract customer or tourist related information, such as their travel itineraries and opinions of destinations or products (Crotts, Mason, and Davix, 2009; Pan, MacLaurin and Crotts, 2007; Pekar and Ou, 2008). On the other hand, this online platform contains a huge data volume. For instance, in 2006, a new blog was created every second (Ko, Yin, and Kuo, 2008); as of 2007, the blog search engine, Technorati, indexed about 70 million blogs. With the large volume of customer behavior data generated by online blogs, it provides opportunities for practitioners and researchers to use these data for monitoring the attitudes of tourists, the performance of a tourist product, etc. (Carson, 2008; Wenger, 2008).

The tourism industry in China is emerging. According to the data published by China National Tourism Administration (2012), in 2011, there were 2.6 billion domestic tourist arrivals which indicated a 13% increase when compared with the number in 2010, and the number of Chinese outbound travelers reached 70 million with an increase of 22% when compared with that in 2010. Moreover, it has been estimated that by the year of 2020, China will be the fourth largest outbound tourism market in the world (World Tourism Organization, 2006). The boom of tourism in China attracts a new wave of studies to learn more about this market. However, it is not appropriate to look at Chinese tourist experiences from a Westerners’ perspective, because Chinese visitors are not the same as their Western counterparts. For example, they have different expectations of service standards (Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline and Wang, 2011), and food preferences (Chang, Kivela, and Mak, 2010). It is crucial for researchers to understand the different expectations of Chinese tourist for generating satisfying experiences for this market. In addition, since the tourism industry is becoming an information intensive industry (Sigala, Christou, and Gretzel, 2012), and the internet has been playing an important role in shaping Chinese tourists’ behaviors, user-generated
content (UGC) and digital information are becoming increasingly essential for both researchers and practitioners to build an enhanced understanding of the contemporary Chinese tourists.

Given little research has studied the dissatisfying experiences of Chinese tourists and fewer studies have focused on analyzing Chinese language blogs, this research aims to address the gap. Specifically, this study seeks to answer three basic questions through empirical research: (1) What are the determinants that make Chinese travelers dissatisfied? (2) Do the characteristics of the destination have any relation to the causes of Chinese tourist dissatisfaction? (3) Can Chinese travel blogs be used to identify causes of tourist dissatisfaction that are discussed by bloggers?

METHOD

The data (travel blogs) used in this study will be retrieved from Qyer (www.qyer.com), and Mafengwo (www.mafengwo.cn), as they are the largest mandarin travel blog websites in China with a high volume of “traffic”. Both have the function that enables individuals to input their travel related diaries online for free. In this research, a spider and parser will be developed to collect blogs and reviews containing key words “dissatisfaction”, “disappointment”, and “not recommended” from these websites. Then, a topic model will be trained to summarize the key themes recurring in these analyzed texts. After the generation of key themes, the two or three sentences surrounding the dissatisfaction themes will be recorded and analyzed by the researchers to confirm dissatisfaction and circumstances of dissatisfaction, ultimately leading to a comprehensive list of categories.

EXPECTED FINDINGS

This study is under the phase of data collection, and this stage will be finished before the end of February. After the data collection, the data analysis will be conducted and finished by the end of March. Some expected findings are shown as follows. Firstly, some themes, such as weather and food, can be the most frequently reported sources of Chinese tourist dissatisfaction. Secondly, some factors such as the price and service may generate more dissatisfying experiences in Chinese visitors’ domestic trips than their international trips. Finally, the big volume of data provided by Chinese travel blogs enables it to be an effective source to learn about Chinese visitors’ travel experiences.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF HOTEL BRAND EXTENSION ON CUSTOMER RESPONSES

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INTRODUCTION

Brand extension strategy has become a common and popular tactic for use with consumer goods and services (Ambler and Style, 1997). The main principle of brand extension strategy is the endeavor to leverage the assets on the brand’s equity by launching new products that share the core brand name (Aaker and Keller, 1990), suggesting that brand name plays a significant role in new business. In addition, as the cost of introducing a new product soars and competition increases, many firms are attempting to decrease the risks involved in new product introduction by marketing the new product as a brand extension—that is, by using the name of a well-known brand (Hem et al., 2003). This strategy is commonly applied to the hospitality industry as well (Tauber, 1981, 1988) because, when making a decision about accommodations, consumers decide based on their perceptions of a specific hotel’s brand name. Perception is critical in customers’ minds. In the United States alone, more than 200 hotel companies compete with one another; many of these brands are extensions of existing brand names, which makes presenting brand image an important issue.

The brand extension strategy was first used in the hospitality industry by Quality Hotels in 1981 when it extended its brand into the Comfort Inns and Quality Royale lines. Holiday Inn extended its brand in both a step-up and step-down manner, introducing Holiday Inn Express and Holiday Inn Sun Spree Resorts in 1991, the upscale Holiday Inn Crown Plaza in 1983, Holiday Inn Select in 1994, and Stay Bridge Suites by Holiday Inn in 1998. Today, most major hotel brands have at least one extension with a name connected with the family brand name to display the association between the new extension and the core brand (Kim and Lavack, 1996). Based on these examples, this study will examine the effects of brand extension, including both step-up and step-down brand extension.

The previously mentioned examples include some of the many hotel companies that have tried to exploit their brands through brand extension. If the strategy is successful, customers may respond positively and the brand image becomes more positive, as does the core brand image. Therefore, the main purpose of this paper is to examine how consumers’ evaluation of a core brand is affected when a step-up or step-down vertical brand extension is introduced. The present study will also focus on how the name structure for a new brand may have an impact on consumers’ evaluations of step-up and step-down vertical brand extensions as well as core brands.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Brand extension

In general, brand extension strategy is divided into two approaches: horizontal and vertical extension. In a horizontal brand extension, an existing brand name is applied to a new product category or in a product category completely new to the firm (Chen and Liu, 2004:26). An example of a horizontal approach is the Accor hotel group, which provides diverse childcare vouchers and tickets for restaurants outside the hotel service. On the other hand, a vertical brand extension involves introducing a brand extension in the same product category as the core brand, with differentiated price and quality level. This tactic follows two routes: step-up—in which a new product with a higher price and quality characteristics than the original is developed—or
step-down—in which a new product with lower quality and price points is created. The core brand undergoes a dilution of the brand image when the step-down vertical extension is introduced at a lower price or lower quality level, but the step-down brand extension may benefit from the core brand name when the core brand is closely related to the new one. On the contrary, in the case of a step-up brand extension, it can establish its own clear identity and brand personality without being spoiled by the core brand’s lower quality. Therefore, introducing either a step-up or step-down brand extension will result in a reduced consumer evaluation of the core brand. In addition, in this extension procedure, Kim et al. (2001) mentioned that the existing core brand’s name on a new brand might play a significant role in ensuring a successful extension strategy.

Favorability in brand image

Brand image is defined as “the perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory” (Keller, 1993, p. 3). Keller (1993) mentioned three important aspects of image: favorability, strength, and uniqueness of brand associations. Every firm aims to generate favorable and positive relationships related to the brand, which produces a positive brand image (Keller, 1993). Yet despite their efforts, when an extended brand is inconsistent with the original product or if an extension creates a different association, it may be harmful for the brand’s image. In other words, even if the brand extension is a success, it may damage the core brand’s image if the association created by the extension changes the existing associations (Keller, 1993, p. 16). As a result of brand extension, if extensions are excessive, they would fail to differentiate the association and could dilute the image of the brand (Dacin and Smith, 1994; Aaker, 2009). In addition, unsuccessful brand extensions may weaken brand names by “diminishing the favorable attribute beliefs consumers have learned to associate with the family brand name” (Loken and John, 1993, p. 79). This study applies favorability as a variable to measure brand image.

Brand familiarity

Tam (2008, p. 4.) defined brand familiarity as “the accumulated related experiences that customers have had with a brand.” According to Aaker (1991), in order to explain the effect of brand familiarity on customers’ attitude, brand association could be mentioned in this circumstance. In general, customers prefer to have access to information about familiar brands rather than unfamiliar brands due to well-developed associations (Low and Lamb, 2000; Tam, 2008; Washburn et al., 2000). When customers have a robust and positive relationship with a familiar brand, they are expected to have a more favorable association with the brand (Dawar and Lei, 2009; Ha and Perks, 2005; Low and Lamb, 2000). On the contrary, if consumers have had a negative experience, they are more likely to arouse a negative relationship with the brand, which would influence purchase behavior (Ha and Perks, 2005; Tam, 2008). Therefore, customers’ familiarity with the core brand might impact their attitude toward the newly created brand.

METHOD

In order to decide the hotel brand that will be used in this study, in the pretest, participants will see 14 different hotel brand names. Then, they will list up to three brands for two concepts (e.g., function oriented and prestige oriented). Using the survey results, appropriate hotel brands will be decided. In addition, the hypotheses in the main study will be tested using a 2 x 2 randomized between-subjects experimental design (e.g., Extension: step-up versus step-down; Name structure: sharing with core brand name versus sharing without core brand name). In the main study, the questionnaire will begin with a brief scenario describing the new brand extension, including the hotel’s level and the structure of the brand name. Participants will first rate the familiarity of the designated hotel using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = not very familiar, 7 = very familiar) and the attitude of favorability (1 = not very favorable, 7 = very favorable). Participants will then be asked to imagine that each of the new hotel brands extension would be competing against other hotels in a category of the same level. They will evaluate the brand using the measurement of perceived brand quality (1 = low quality, 7 = high quality) and behavioral intensity (1 = not at all likely, 7 = very likely). Finally, participants will be asked to provide a
post-evaluation of the brand extension in terms of the favorability and familiarity of their attitude.

RESULT

This study will examine what happens to consumers’ evaluations of core brands when vertical brand extensions (e.g., step-up and step-down) are presented. The study will also test the effects of name structure on both core brands and brand extensions as well as investigate the consumers’ responses toward brand extensions in the hospitality industry. In the hospitality industry, where the brand extension is commonly used, Vertical extensions are very attractive strategies for organizations to increase profits because step-up or step-down extensions enable them to target new markets. Yet, they should be very cautious with this strategy. Therefore, this study expects to provide insights into how a manager can utilize effective tactics to successfully introduce brand extensions attracting many customers.

REFERENCES

WHICH CAME FIRST, CHICKENS OR EGGS? – AN ANALYSIS ON THE TOURISM-ECONOMY CAUSALITY FOCUSING ON CHINA, JAPAN, AND SOUTH KOREA

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INTRODUCTION

According to the report of UNWTO (2015), the number of international tourist arrivals in 2014 reached a total 1,133 million and it will be 1.8 billion in 2030. During the same time period, receipts from international visitors were US$ 1,245 billion worldwide in 2014. Furthermore, the amounts of international tourist arrivals and receipts have been increasing consecutively for 5 years (from 2010 to 2014). Based on the macro-economic perspective, international tourism receipts could be counted as destination countries’ exports and would be an important source of foreign currency earnings and a significant contributor to the destination countries’ economy (UNWTO, 2015). With this view of the international tourism’s role, governments of destination countries might think that it should be better to attract international tourists to their destinations as many as they can for the economic growth of their countries. This thought is based on the tourism-led growth (TLG) hypothesis that assumes tourism contributes to a country’s overall economic growth (Tang & Abosedra, 2014).

There are lots of studies to examine the relationship between tourism and economic growth (e.g., Balaguer & Cantavella-Jordà, 2002; Brida, Barquet, & Risso, 2010; Caglayan, Sak, & Karymshakov, 2012; Dritsakis, 2004; Kim, Chen, & Jang, 2006; Mishra, Rout, & Mohapatra, 2011; Oh, 2005; Tang & Abosedra, 2014). If the TLG hypothesis is true, the results of the research with regard to the impact of international tourism could show the same results except for special cases. Although non-identical results could be resulted from various factors of each destination country (Kim et al., 2006), the general causality relationship would show equivalent direction under the similar conditions (e.g., geographical location, the degree of economic development). There is, however, no equivalent result about the relationship and causality between two variables in many related research, and thus it is required to figure out this hypothesis in numerous destinations in order to generalize (Oh, 2005).

In terms of North-East Asia, international tourist arrivals 7% increased year on year in 2014. More minutely, major destinations in this region show the increase in the amount of international tourist arrivals (i.e., Japan 29.4%, South Korea 17%, Taiwan 24%), even though China shows no changes of that amounts (UNWTO, 2015). In comparison of the amounts of international tourist arrivals simply, it is possible to assume that the degree of economic development has a relationship with the arrivals’ figures. The order is Japan, South Korea, and China when arranging three countries in order of the economic development level. Also, the order of the change rate of the amounts of international tourist arrivals is the same. Although each country has different tourist attractions and conditions, it might be worthy of examining whether tourism plays a vital role in promoting the economic growth of three countries.

With this need in mind, this study verifies the TLG hypothesis focusing on three North-East Asia countries, China, Japan, and South Korea. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the TLG hypothesis employing the Granger causality test as a research method which is the general and typical method preferred in this kind of research (Kim et al., 2006). By figuring out the relationship between tourism and economic growth, this study would suggest the optimal decision making to each
government of three countries. In other word, the results will be able to utilize as the standard when governments set their priorities for their economic growth.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Generally, the relationship between tourism and economic growth is known as the TLG hypothesis and it is widely accepted belief that tourism has an impact on stimulating economic growth (Kreishan, 2011). In other words, according to the TLG hypothesis which assumes that tourism would contribute to long-run economic growth, earnings from tourism play an important role in economic growth (Adnan Hye & Ali Khan, 2013). With this hypothesis and belief, there are many studies to analyze the relationship between tourism development and economic growth. For instance, Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda (2002) argued that tourist expenditures could be regarded as an important income resource for the economy of destination countries. Kim et al. (2006) asserted that tourism activities could bring about some economic benefits such as tax revenues, employment or additional sources of income.

Some studies have shown that tourism development affect economic growth (e.g., Adnan Hye & Ali Khan, 2013; Eeckels, Filis, & Leon, 2012; Kim et al, 2006; Tang & Aboseda, 2013), while other studies have demonstrated that economic growth influences tourism development (e.g., Cortés-Jiménez, Nowak, & Sahli, 2011; Lean & Tang, 2010; Oh, 2005; Payne & Mervar, 2010). These mixed results could be thought that the TLG hypothesis has not been verified so far, and thus it is necessary to examine the causal relationship between tourism development and economic growth in a variety of destination countries. Since each country is under different conditions, such as geographical position, tourist attractions, destination’s safety, and so on, the results might be different from each other. However, most empirical research show that tourism promotes economic growth positively and sometimes concurrently vice versa (Adnan Hye & Ali Khan, 2013).

The report of the UNWTO (2015) shows that tourism has grown over the past six decades and becomes on of the largest and fastest-growing sector of economy. In terms of North-East Asia, the change rate of international tourist arrivals of China, Japan, and South Korea in 2014 are -0.1%, 29.4%, and 16.6%, while the GDP growth of three countries in 2014 are 7.3%, -0.1%, and 3.3% respectively (The World Bank, 2016). These figures cause the question that tourism really affects or stimulates the growth of economy. This is because based on the TLG hypothesis, the GDP of China would be decreased because of the reduced number of their international tourist arrivals. On the other hand, the GDP of Japan would be increased due to the increase of their international tourist arrivals. Therefore, this study attempted to figure out the relationship between tourism and economic growth.

METHOD AND RESULTS

GDP has been utilized as the data to measure the value of economic growth and the total international tourist arrivals (TOUR2) have been used for gauging tourism development (Kim et al., 2006). Furthermore, international tourism receipts (TOUR1) have been generally utilized as proxy of tourism expansion which is a monetary transaction value well corresponding with GDP (Oh, 2005). This study collected GDP as an economic growth variable and international tourist arrivals and international tourism receipts as tourism development variables. The time-series data were obtained from the World Bank database. The annual series of three countries’ TOUR1 and TOUR2 values were available from 1995 to 2013. Thus, the annual GDP data were selected the same period as TOUR1 and TOUR2.

Before conducting analyses, exchange rate data also was collected to use as a control variable. To change GDP to real GDP, the number of population was used. By doing two procedures, this study tried to change data to be not seasonal and biased. These three data, TOUR1, TOUR2 and GDP were then transformed into LTOUR1, LTOUR2, and LGDP respectively by the use of natural logarithms to ease interpretation of coefficients. Coefficients in log function are regarded as elasticities that are the change of percentage in a dependent variable given a 1% change in an independent variable (Oh, 2005).
Before testing cointegration and the Granger causality, it is essential and important to examine the stationarity of the variables (Oh, 2005; Tang & Jang, 2009) because not appropriate transformation of the data would show biased results and cause wrong interpretations about the results (Engle & Granger, 1987). Enders (1995) argued stationarity can be understood as mean, variance of a series are constant through all time and autocovariance is not time varying. If a time series is not stationary, Dickey-Fuller (DF), Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) and Phillips-Perron (PP) tests can be used to test the non-stationarity of the variables (Phillips & Perron, 1988). Among these tests, this study conducted the ADF test since the ADF is the most commonly used test. The test results are reported in Table 1., and the results of the test supported the null hypothesis of non-stationarity before differencing three variables. TOUR1 and TOUR2 were stationary after first differencing but GDP was stationary after second differencing, especially the GDP of China.

Table 1. The results of the Augmented Dickey-Fuller test on tourism and GDP variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>S. Korea</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LGDP</td>
<td>1.321</td>
<td>1.903</td>
<td>-0.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTOUR1</td>
<td>-2.301</td>
<td>-1.117</td>
<td>0.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTOUR2</td>
<td>-1.882</td>
<td>-1.008</td>
<td>1.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ LGDP</td>
<td>-2.119</td>
<td>-2.741*</td>
<td>-4.225***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ LTOUR1</td>
<td>-4.520***</td>
<td>-4.190***</td>
<td>-3.865**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ LTOUR2</td>
<td>-4.524***</td>
<td>-6.258***</td>
<td>-4.690***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ LGDP (second)</td>
<td>-3.498***</td>
<td>-3.427***</td>
<td>-5.625***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Δ indicates the first difference of variable. The symbol *, **, and *** denote that the null hypothesis can be rejected at the 10%, 5%, and 1%, respectively.

Then, this study examined the cointegration between tourism variables, GDP, and exchange rate. Granger (1981) argued that cointegration is understood as the fact that the non-stationary variables are integrated in the same order with the residuals stationary. When two variables are cointegrated, there is an effect which prevents time series of two variables from drifting away from each other. Table 2 repots the results of the Johansen’s cointegration test between tourism values and GDP.

Table 2. The results of the Johansen’s cointegration tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LGDP and LTOUR1</th>
<th>LGDP and LTOUR2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>29.77*</td>
<td>21.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>22.70</td>
<td>32.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Korea</td>
<td>20.95</td>
<td>17.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The null hypothesis is there is no cointegration. The symbol * indicates that the null hypothesis can be rejected at the 5%.

In order to figure out the direction of two variables, the Granger causality tests were performed. In terms of China, this study employed the Vector Error-Correction Model (VECM) since two tourism variables and GDP are cointegrated, while other countries were analyzed by using the Vector Autoregression Model (VAR). Table 3 shows the results of causality tests for tourism variables and GDP.

Table 3. The results of causality tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>LGDP does not cause LTOUR1</th>
<th>LTOUR1 does not cause LGDP</th>
<th>LGDP does not cause LTOUR2</th>
<th>LTOUR2 does not cause LGDP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>F-statistics</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.704</td>
<td>0.479</td>
<td>0.056*</td>
<td>0.650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>F-statistics</td>
<td>5.586</td>
<td>1.308</td>
<td>5.737</td>
<td>6.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.061*</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>0.057*</td>
<td>0.041**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Korea</td>
<td>F-statistics</td>
<td>22.719</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>0.972</td>
<td>0.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>0.676</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The symbol *, **, and *** indicate that the null hypothesis is rejected at the 10%, 5%, and 1% significance level respectively.
FINDINGS

Table 4 shows the final results of this study. First of all, in terms of China, the TLG hypothesis is rejected based on the results. GDP does cause only international tourist arrivals. Secondly, in the Japan case, there is a bi-directional causality between international tourist arrivals and GDP. Also, GDP cause international tourism receipts. Lastly, with regard to South Korea, only GDP cause international tourism receipts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GDP receipts</th>
<th>Tourism GDP</th>
<th>GDP Tourist arrivals</th>
<th>Tourist arrivals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>O</td>
<td></td>
<td>O</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Korea</td>
<td>O</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The symbol *, **, and *** indicate that the null hypothesis is rejected at the 10%, 5%, and 1% significance level respectively.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

This study attempted to examine the causal relationship between tourism development and economic growth focusing on three countries in North-East Asia, China, Japan, and South Korea. In terms of theoretical implications, this study tried to verify the TLG hypothesis using the Granger causality test. The results of this study might contribute to the generalization of the causal relationship. Furthermore, by using international tourism receipts and tourists arrivals together, it is possible to strengthen the interpretation about the relationship between tourism and economic growth. With regard to the practical implications, the results of this study might be used as the standard when governments of each country want to know which sectors they should invest first. Based on the results, they will be able to utilize their finite resources efficiently for the growth of a national economy. In this study, there is a limitation. The sample sizes are not enough to analyze the time series. Further discussions, implications, and limitations will be addressed in the final paper.

REFERENCES


DISCOVERING THE VALUE OF REGIONAL HEAD FAMILY’S FOOD TOURISM IN KOREA

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INTRODUCTION

A growing number of countries are attempting to develop their own food tourism emphasizing the historical and cultural values. The effort to inherit the traditional food culture can be used to create a nation’s culture and identity. One of the central activities of the tourism is also to experience foods in tourism destination (Boyne et al., 2003; Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Hjalager & Richards, 2002; Selwood, 2003). Furthermore, culinary culture of gastronomic countries like as France, Italy, and Mexico is designated as World Heritage by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). From these reasons, food is considered as a key marketing category of today’s emerging trends in selecting tourism destination (Hjalager & Richards, 2002). The Korean Head families, ‘Jong Ga’ is “The noble family, passed down by the eldest son from the progenitor of family”. The cuisine of ‘Jong Ga’ is represented by cultural heritage, because it is in harmony of cultural spirit of latter period ‘Chosun’ Dynasty, family tradition, cooking skill, and local foods. Therefore, the Jong Ga’s cuisine can be an attractive food tourism for not only domestic tourists, but also foreigners. However, the food tourism used the Jong Ga's food is actually restricted species. Therefore, the understanding the marketing value of Korean food tourism is necessary. This study aims to determine what characteristics are necessary for Korean food tourism products from the in-depth interview of foreigner food specialists. In addition, this study is to determine the most important characteristics of Korean food tourism and to establish the determinant key categories of marketing regarding food culture of Korean traditional Head Family.

METHOD

The qualitative research is more adequate than quantitative research in this case, very little exists in the prior study about the perceived concept of Korean food tourism from foreigners (Roininen et al., 2006). As specialist evaluations of Korea food tourism are not solely based on domestic view of Jong Ga’s food tourism but also related to the concepts that foreigners associate with them, a deeper understanding of concept associations could be interesting to study. This study followed a grounded theory methodology which used in-depth interviews. Searching targets are chosen with snow-ball sampling one of the non-probability sampling. The oral-agreements are obtained among the participants and expand the sample with other participants who are introduced to the existing participants. The 40 foreigner specialists with the experience of the Korean food tourism or has a job related to food tourism in the Italy, France, and Japan participated in the first in-depth interview. In the second in-depth interview, 3 Jong Ga, those are registered in the National Institution of Farming Science System participated. The interview was Semi-Structured with open-ended questions. This interview was categorized into the following three subjects; the main objective of culinary tourism, the commercialization of gourmet meal, and the thought and experience to Korean culinary tourism. Based on the interview with foreigner specialists, the second in-depth interview focused on understanding the current situation of Jong-ga's food tourism and applying the spiritual value of Jong-ga as a key element of Korean food tourism product. The three Jong-ga were chosen for the reasons that they have tried to commercialize their food tourism and have been possessed of po-
tential feasibility. From the two themes of in-depth interviews, these data are analyzed based on content analysis by plural researchers to obtain the reliability of this study.

**FINDINGS**

As a result of the in-depth interview, the collected information was organized according to the category. The more half of gourmet experts responded that it was necessity of food tourism including origin of the food, traditional production methods, receipt, own food culture around local traditional food. As one such respondent stated:

... I have been to travel for Korean foods in many times. Although Korean foods had inherent characteristics which were enough to attract travelers including foreigners, most food tourism products were conducted following the trend. I was pitiful that many foods are existence in modified form. It is difficult for tourist to experience originality of Korean traditional foods. Therefore, I think that it needs to consider how to promote the Korean traditional foods just as tradition. ...

All respondents expressed it is the most important to preserve own quality of traditional foods and specially they suggest district-based local foods should be primarily used for development of experiential food tourism products with understanding the foods associated with culture and history, traditional production methods, special recipe. As a result, key factors of Korean food tourism product can be summarized as: cultural heritage, regionality, and sustainable development of the region (see Table 1).

**Table 1. Key categories in Korean traditional food tourism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key categories</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural heritage</td>
<td>Cuisine of Jong-ga inherited from generation to generation is cultural heritage that transcend time and space.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regionality</td>
<td>Jong-ga is distributed widely throughout Korea and cuisine of Jong-ga has regional characteristics like local food.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable development of the region</td>
<td>Food tourism products using cuisine of Jong-ga contribute to the development of regional economy sustainably.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The finding from the second theme in-depth interview is presented that the three cases of Jong-ga have spirit of sharing respectively. They were asked whether they have own philosophy in their cuisines and if so what, as well as to discuss example of putting their philosophy into practice. For example, there is an old saying that goes "Practicing virtue is one of great pleasures." As this saying in the Boseong Seon's Head Family means that plentiful Korean Set Menu are for the poor around the region as well as Head Family. In addition, Boseong Seon's Head Family and Miryang Park's Head Family have operated educational works to support poorer students and served the Korean Set Menu for the students who mastered the book like as the Analects of Confucius. The costume food culture of the Head Family is related to their unique spirit in the foods and cuisines.

**IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION**

Tourism product planner should consider the three values that are cultural heritage, regionality, and sustainable development of the region for the food tourism commercialization of Korean Jong-ga and Jong-ga’s foods. Also, the suggestion from the foodies should be combined with the philosophy of virtual from the Jong-ga for commercialization of Jong-ga's food tourism.

**REFERENCES**


BECOMING EXTRAS: EXPERIENCES BEYOND FILM TOURISM AT CHINA’S HENGDIAN WORLD STUDIOS

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Stijn Reijnders
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INTRODUCTION

Experience research has aroused great interest among scholars in tourism studies from various perspectives, especially since the publication of “The Experience Economy” by Pine and Gilmore (1999). Film tourism, a growing research field focusing on tourist activities induced by viewing a film or television programme (Connell 2012), is often associated with special experiences and meanings. In recent years, the ever-developing film tourism in Asia has attracted continuous attention amongst researchers around the world, noticeably, Kim (2009, 2012, 2015), Yi and Beeton (2011) and Tzanelli (2015).

This paper investigates the motives and experiences of extras at China’s Hengdian World Studios, the so-called Hollywood of the East or “Chinawood”, the world’s largest outdoor film studio. In the film and television industry, extras are marginalized, and often considered as a ‘human backdrop’ for pictures. In China, the film and television industry is booming, and the group of extras also growing. Yet, extras’ experiences had never been in the spotlight, until the film ‘I Am Somebody’ (Wo Shi Lu Ren Jia) by Derek Yee Tung-sing released in Mainland China, Hong Kong and Singapore in July 2015. The film is a realistic portrait of young migrant background actors who work hard with the ambition of becoming actors at Hengdian. An increasing number of people decide to visit the film studio and become extras for a period of time to have unique experiences, after watching this film. Fundamentally speaking, these extras are film tourists. Induced by the film about extras, they would like to experience the process themselves and learn what it is like to act or to be extras.

Academic studies of film tourism have identified re-enactment as a tourist experience. James Bond fans travel to film locations and perform an imagined masculinity by identifying all the locations, acting out poses and scenes (Reijnders 2010). In the context of Asia, touristic experiences are enhanced because of the re-enactment, as tourists watch the television series prior to the visit, re-enact scenes and photograph their re-enactments on site (Kim 2010).

Edensor (2001) considers tourist space as ‘stages’ and tourists as performers who (re)produce tourist space. People have habitual and practical ideas of how to be tourists. Due to film productions and TV dramas people consume in everyday life, mediatized spaces make their ways into one’s memory. Accordingly, intertwining with tourism, mediatized spaces serve as a way to dramatize landscape. Such a scenario is particularly evident in film tourism, and vice versa. The hypothesis of this study is that becoming performers can also (re)produce tourist space and bring about experiences beyond usual touristic ones, in other words, possibilities for life-changing experiences. Immersion in activities of performance, such as the practices of extras, may be a way to stimulate a sense of ‘existential authenticity’ (Wang 1999) in the place full of replicas.

The case study aims to advance understanding of people who make efforts to act and their experiences at film studios, and therefore contribute to the field of film tourism, the research on tourist experiences in particular. Taking such a context as the departure point, this paper revolves around the following core questions: Why are people motivated to become extras and how are their practices induced and influenced by the film? How do they experience being at China’s Hengdian World Studios?
METHOD

In our qualitative inquiry, we take a phenomenological approach. We choose to carry out interviews instead of other methods because a qualitative interview from a phenomenological perspective can provide access to their lived everyday world, bringing to light detailed information and meanings of their experiences (Kvale 2009:28-32). For this case study, fifteen semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted.

The respondents were recruited in Hengdian and via extras’ internal social networks. In total, fourteen male respondents and one female respondent from various provinces around China, and aged from 23 to 32 have been interviewed. The gender ratio is reasonable, as Hengdian is abundant in filming locations for costume dramas, war films, and television series, and there is a much larger demand for male extras.

The length of the interviews varied from 40 minutes to 1.5 hours. Key questions were determined in advance, with the goal to investigate motives for becoming extras, experiences of acting and being at the film studio, reflections after being extras for some time. During the interviews, respondents may bring up their own discussion topics. The interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed, coded, and thematically analysed.

Prior to the interviews, efforts were made to get acquainted with several extras, recruit respondents and also get familiar with extras’ working and living environment, including the actor union, main film studios and filming locations, surrounding streets, etc., during the fieldwork in Hengdian in late December 2015. Since then, we joined and paid attention to their social networks, complementary to the interviews. Daily announcements, messages and uploaded photos in the internal social networks are their communication and immediate reflections on everyday practices. Among these fast-paced updating materials, we looked at images and thoughts they shared during and after participating in productions, most of which were updates of long working hours and exhaustion, selfies in costumes and sometimes with celebrities, and spectacular moments during filming as well, such as kung fu scenes, fire, explosion, etc. Although these materials were not part of the analysis, being aware of extras’ latest practices, topics and using their vocabulary and expressions were helpful in many ways. This not only generated trust prior to and during the interviews but also stimulated related in-depth discussions with respondents, especially in terms of asking specifying questions and interpreting questions (Kvale 2009:135-136).

REFERENCES


EFFECTS OF TRAVEL AND ITS RECOLLECTION ON SUBJECTIVE HAPPINESS

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is developing into one of the most important industries worldwide. The World Tourism Organization (2016) showed that international tourist arrivals grew to reach a total of approximately 1.2 million in 2015, and 50 million more tourists travelled to international destinations around the world last year as compared to 2014. This trend applies even in Japan. For example, the Japanese tourism industry already constitutes 2.3% of Gross domestic product (2010), and it is said that this number will continue to grow.

At the same time, consumer preferences are changing. Individuals have become more health conscious, interested in leading healthy lives, and are willing to spend money on their health and well-being (Henderson, 2003). For such people, health tourism might be a way to achieve these goals.

Health tourism, which aims at the restoration and maintenance of health through travel, includes the following three domain activities: health, involving the use of thermal, mineral, or sea water for healing purposes; sport, which includes fitness centers, pools, and spa facilities; and tourism, which relates to spending free time on recreational activities (Popescu, Badita, & Şoşea, 2015). In addition to enhancing physical well-being, the goal of health tourism is also to provide users with pleasurable and luxurious experiences (e.g., Konu, Tuohino, & Komppula, 2010).

A number of previous studies have shown positive effects of experiencing tourism and a vacation. Westman and Eden (1997) showed that vacations could supplement social resources, thus decreasing the stress of work and offering time to acquire new social resources. Further, they may provide unique opportunities for behaviors that have restorative effects on anabolic physiological processes, such as social contact with family and friends, and physical activity (Gump & Matthews, 2000). As Dahlgren, Kecklund, and Åkerstedt (2005) demonstrated, a temporary absence from work may also be needed to allow for full recovery from work-related fatigue.

On the one hand, positive effects of a vacation and travel do not last very long (Nawijn, Marchand, Veenhoven, & Vingerhoets, 2010). Strauss-Blasche, Ekmeckioglu, and Marktl (2000) pointed out that reduction of negative mood and increases in positive mood and quality of sleep following a vacation lasted up to five weeks. In the same manner, Westman, and Etzion (2001) found that declines in burnout, defined as physical, mental and emotional exhaustion, occurred instantly after a vacation and returned to pre-vacation levels four weeks later. On the other hand, although general well-being returns to baseline levels rapidly after the vacation, memories of a vacation may have the power to increase well-being again (de Bloom, Geurts, & Kompier, 2013).

Tourism studies have shown that memories of positive travel and vacations affect revisiting (Woodside, Caldwell, & Albers-Miller, 2004) and selection of future vacations (Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon, & Diener, 2003). However, relatively little is known about the longitudinal impact of these memories of vacations on psychological state. Therefore, in this study, we focus on the memory of the vacation and examine the effect of it on the subsequent subjective happiness of the individual.

METHOD

This study employed an Internet survey, which
enabled recruitment of participants from a variety of regions (i.e. urban and local areas) and age groups. All participants were recruited via Rakuten Research, an online marketing research company that holds approximately 2.3 million Japanese enrolments. Participants were 350 Japanese individuals from the general population (175 females and 175 males), with a mean age of 39.90 years (SD = 10.31). All participants completed a questionnaire three times. The first survey was conducted at the end of July 2015 and the subsequent 2 surveys were carried out continuously across one month. Since numerous Japanese workers take a vacation in August, we therefore chose to conduct our investigations during this time period.

Questionnaires consisted of items to obtain demographic information including sex, age, and living areas, as well as the Subjective Happiness Scale (SHS; Shimai, Otake, Utsuki, Ikemi, & Lyubomirsky, 2004). The SHS is a four-item measure of global subjective happiness. An examples item is “Some people are generally very happy. They enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything. To what extent does this characterization describe you?”. Furthermore, in the second survey, we asked about behavior during the vacation. Finally, the third survey contained items related to the recollection and satisfaction of the vacation.

**FINDINGS**

In order to verify the effects of travel, we extracted two groups from all participants based on the items about behavior during the vacation. We categorized participants who answered, "I went on a trip with accommodation" as the travel group and participants who answered, "I did not go out during the vacation" as the control group. A detailed distribution of each group is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Travel group (n = 79)</th>
<th>Control group (n = 144)</th>
<th>Total (N = 223)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male (n = 44)</td>
<td>Female (n = 35)</td>
<td>Male (n = 72)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–29</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30–39</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40–49</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–59</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We performed a 2 × 3 (Group: Travel vs. Control × Time: Time 1, Time 2, Time 3) repeated-measures ANOVA. For the total score of subjective happiness, a significant main effect of group was observed (F (2, 221) = 3.14, p < .01; \( \eta_p^2 = .01 \)). Analysis of simple main effects confirmed that the subjective happiness scores of the travel group were significantly larger than those of the control group (ps < .05).

Multiple-group structural equation modeling revealed that the relationships linking satisfaction with the vacation and subsequent subjective happiness were mediated by recollection of the vacation only in the travel group (Figure 1). The fit indices of this model were \( \chi^2 (22) = .00, ns., AGFI = .783, CFI = .793, RMSEA = .095. \)

![Figure 1. Relationships linking satisfaction with vacation and subjective happiness](image)

*Note. Travel group are reported to the left of the slash and control group to the right.*
CONCLUSION

The main aims of this study were to examine the effects of travel and associated memories on subjective psychological state. The results of the analysis of variance confirmed that subjective happiness was greater in the travel compared to the non-travel group. Another interesting finding was that recollection of travel had a significant positive effect on subsequent subjective happiness. Furthermore, this positive effect was significant only in the travel group. Conversely, we propose that effective use of reminders of travel or a vacation could increase the satisfaction associated with them.

REFERENCES


EFFECTS OF TRAVEL EXPERIENCES ON JOB PERFORMANCE OF EMPLOYEES IN A JAPANESE COMPANY

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INTRODUCTION

In the current society, employee stress is a growing concern. Taking a vacation can be beneficial for one to relax and recover from stress. Several studies have found that taking a vacation can reduce job-related stress and burnout (e.g. Chen, Petrick, & Shahvali, 2014; Chen, & Petrick, 2013; de Bloom, Geurts, & Kompier, 2013). Additionally, some studies revealed the positive effects of taking vacation time on improving job performances (e.g. Fritz, & Sonnentag, 2006; Lounsbury, & Hoopes, 1986), and developing personal skills (e.g. Stone, & Petrick, 2013; Minnaert, 2012).

Moreover, Scarinci and Pearce (2012) investigated the effects of travel experiences on acquiring generic skills among university students. According to Pearce (2002), “generic skills” is defined as “the abilities, capacities and knowledge one requires to function as a sophisticated professional in an information rich society” (as cited in Pearce and Foster, 2007). These studies showed that students who had traveled more than five times during their university life have higher generic skills compared to those who had not. However, there are no empirical evidences for the relationship between generic skills and individual job performances. Other related studies (Fritz, & Sonnentag, 2006; Binnewies, Sonnentag, & Moja, 2010) used subjective measurements to investigate the effects of taking a vacation or weekend recovering on job performances. Therefore, future studies with objective measurements are critical.

Purpose of Study. The purpose of this study is to reveal the structure of travel effects among travel experiences, self-efficacy, hardiness and job performances using an objective measurement. The following three statements are the hypotheses;

1. There will be positive direct effects of travel experiences on job performance.
2. There will be positive indirect effects of travel experiences on job performance.
3. There will be positive effects of travel experiences on perceived generic skills.

METHOD

Participants. The participants were 327 employees, who work in a temporary employment agency (Company A) as full time workers. Human resources managers of Company A selected the respondents of this survey. After sending questionnaire to all of the participants throughout email, we got 237 responses, which consisted of 136 males and 101 females. Participants average age was 28.57 years old (SD = 3.08).

Data collection. Data was collected through a questionnaire via the Internet. The questionnaire in this study consists of five sections. The first section was designed to measure generic skills, using a structured four-point rating scale questionnaire which contained 20 items developed by Pearce and Foster (2007). Second, we used a generalized self-efficacy scale with 23 items. The generalized self-efficacy scale was adapted by Narita et al. (1982) from the self-efficacy scale originally developed by Sherer et al. (1982). Third, the 15-item version of the Tada and Hamada (2003) hardiness scale was used to measure worker’s hardiness level. Fourth, travel experiences were assessed by asking the number of times they had traveled as a student and as a company worker. The self-planned and non-self-planned travel frequencies were distinguished respectively. The final section was de-
signed to ask the demographics of the respondents, including age and gender. We used each employee’s monthly salary to assess their job performance. According to Company A, the monthly salary best reflects the workers job performance. The respondents were grouped into three based on their employment years and salary.

FINDINGS

The structure of questionnaires. We conducted a common factor analysis in the 23 items of self-efficacy scale, extracting three factors and applying Promax rotation. After excluding four items which did not show high load to any of these factors, factor analysis was conducted again. Finally, we extracted three factors, which were problem solving efficacy (α=.80), interpersonal efficacy (α=.79), and achievement efficacy (α=.64). Next, we also conducted a common factor analysis in the 15 items of hardiness scale, extracting three factors and applying Promax rotation. Factor analysis of hardiness produced three dimensions; challenge (α=.78), control (α=.77), and commitment (α=.65), all of which had been noted in previous research. Finally, we conducted a common factor analysis in the 20 items of generic skills scale, extracting 1 factor. Therefore, we use total score of 20 items to measure generic skills.

The structure of travel effects. Bivariate associations among the variables were estimated using Pearson product-moment correlations. Based on hypotheses and previous studies, we conducted covariance structure analysis to make a model of the relationship between travel experiences and job performance. We assessed model fit by evaluating the overall pattern of the fit indices, including GFI, AGFI, RMSEA and AIC.

The results showed that self-planned travel experiences as a student have direct positive effects on job performance. Also the relationships between self-planned travel experiences as a student and job performance are partially mediated by generic skills and problem-solving efficacy. There was a significant positive direct effect of the travel experience factors on generic skills. The fit indices of this model were GFI=.989, AGFI=.963, RMSEA=.034, AIC= 37.680. The model was shown below in Figure 1. We also conducted an analysis to reveal the relationship between non-self-planned travel experiences as a student and job performance. The relationships between non-self-planned travel experiences as a student and job performance are partially mediated by commitment and problem-solving efficacy. Figure 2 showed the result. The fit indices of this model were GFI=.985, AGFI=.956, RMSEA=.047, AIC= 38.602.

Self-planned travel experiences as a worker and job performance are partially mediated by generic skills and problem-solving efficacy. The fit indices of this model were GFI=.986, AGFI=.958, RMSEA=.044, AIC= 38.189. Non-self-planned travel experiences as a worker and job performance are partially mediated by commitment and problem-solving efficacy. The fit indices of this model were GFI=.983, AGFI=.948, RMSEA=.060, AIC= 40.959.

![Figure 1](image)

**Figure 1.** The model of effects of self-planned travel experiences as a student on generic skills, self-efficacy and job performance
IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The results showed that there are direct effects from self-planned travel experiences as a student to job performance, which supports our first hypothesis. This finding is important because there are only few studies which proved the relationship between travel experience and job performance. Moreover, the results indicated that travel experience affect perceived generic skills directly, which support previous research implication (Scarinci & Pearce, 2012) as well as the third hypothesis in the present study. Although the respondents of this study were workers in a Japanese company, the methodology can be applied to further studies using different samples. Furthermore, the results revealed that not only self-planned travel experiences affect job performance but also non-self-planned travel experiences can affect job performance indirectly, which supports our second hypothesis. This may imply that any travel experiences have a great potential in acquiring skills related to job performance. Based on this finding, employers may want to include travel experiences as one of the selection criteria for hiring. Companies might increase the possibility of hiring better new employees asking university students’ travel experiences. Administrative staff at university may also want to encourage students to travel during their university life to gain useful and practical skills in the modern society. Furthermore, the workers’ travel experiences may improve essential skills to elevate job performance. Companies may want to promote employees to go on vacation and travel which can lead to their higher achievements.

There were two main limitations for this study. First, the scale of generic skills may not have accounted for the essential skills needed in Japan. At the same time, the concept and the terminology might need to be clarified among countries. Second, the travel experiences factor in this study were measured by the number of travels. For future research, measuring the quality of travel experiences such as motivation (Pearce, & Lee, 2005), and one’s companion (Petrick, & Durko, 2013) may be considered.

This study represented an important first step in understanding the effects of travel experiences on job performance. Further testing of this model with longitudinal data and multifaceted construction would offer better causal insights into the effect of travel experiences.

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THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG SERVICE QUALITY, FUTURE BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS AND SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING: A CASE STUDY OF CHINESE SPORT TOURISTS IN JEJU ISLAND

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the current study is to examine how the service quality of the sport tourism industry in Jeju Island affects Chinese sport tourists’ satisfaction and outcomes. Future behavioral intentions are regarded as an economic outcome in parallel with subjective well-being as the proxy of the socio-psychological outcome.

On the basis of the study purpose, this study proposed two research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the relationship among service quality, tourist satisfaction and its outcomes – future behavioral intentions and subjective well-being?

Research Question 2: How do the Chinese sport tourists evaluate service quality in Jeju Island?

METHOD

An onsite survey and online survey were conducted from September to November 2015, targeting Chinese sport tourists. A total of 349 questionnaires were selected as a final valid sample. The survey questionnaire was composed of 31 items based on previous studies with modification for the purpose of the current research. The data analysis procedures were divided into two phases: the pilot survey and the major survey. Descriptive analysis, inferential analysis, and thematic analysis were employed to answer the research questions in the major survey. The SPSS 20.0 program and AMOS 19.0 software were used to analysis data.

FINDINGS

The findings indicated that the three primary dimensions of service quality were not all significantly related to tourist satisfaction. Specifically, only the physical environment quality and outcome quality were the antecedents of tourist satisfaction, whereas interaction quality was not a significant predictor. The finding was partially consistent with the dominant consequences that service quality was one antecedent that contributed to the satisfaction of customers (Brady, Cronin, & Brand, 2002; Cлемes, Brush, & Collins, 2011; Cronin Jr & Taylor, 1994). The language barrier (Lee, 2015) and limited interaction between sport tourists and staff (Theodorakis, Kaplanidou, & Karabaxoglou, 2015; Theodorakis, Tsigilis, & Alexandris, 2009) might be the possible reasons lead to insignificant relationship between interaction quality and tourist satisfaction. Moreover, this study found that tourist satisfaction had a significant and positive influence on tourists’ future behavioral intentions and subjective well-being, consistent with previous researches (Chen & Chen, 2010; Cлемes et al., 2011; Su, Huang, & Chen, 2015; Theodorakis et al., 2015). The more details were as shown on Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Path</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Empirical result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>PQ → SAT</td>
<td>.561</td>
<td>3.492***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>IQ → SAT</td>
<td>.084</td>
<td>1.066</td>
<td>Failed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>OQ → SAT</td>
<td>.329</td>
<td>2.515*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>SAT → FBI</td>
<td>.864</td>
<td>18.195***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>SAT → SWB</td>
<td>.912</td>
<td>19.054***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p < .001, *p < .05 Note: PQ – physical environment quality; IQ – interaction quality; OQ – outcome quality; SAT – tourist satisfaction; FBI – future behavioral intentions; SWB – subjective well-being
In addition, all of the Chinese respondents had a relatively positive evaluation of service quality in Jeju Island. More specifically, outcome quality was rated the highest among the three predicted factors of service quality. As several studies have noted that the quality of outcome quality is close to the quality of experience (Kouthis & Alexandris, 2005; Tian-Cole & Crompton, 2003). Namely, sport tourists could be regarded as “experience consumers”. The findings also suggested there was still room to improve the physical environment quality in Jeju Island, such as facilities and sport programs.

**IMPLICATIONS**

The study contributes to the explanation of the relationship between service quality and tourist satisfaction and its outcomes; meanwhile, it is helpful for understanding the sport tourism industry targeting Chinese tourists in Jeju Island. The implications for tourism destination marketers are also discussed.

**REFERENCE**


EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIPS OF EMPLOYEES’ EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, EMOTIONAL LABOR AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AT FIVE-STARS HOTELS IN TAIWAN

Zi-Hui Zeng  
Chia-Yuan Hsu  
Wen-Yu Chen  
Chinese Culture University

INTRODUCTION

On recent years, Taiwan’s hotel industry rapidly development, it’s increasing demand of manpower. The job characteristics of the hotel industry are high pressure, long working hours, unpredictable service requirement from customer; therefore, hotel has high employee turnover rate. For stabilized service quality for customer, hotel has to keep the low turnover rate and maintain employees’ skill quality to provide qualified service and product to achieve the hotel rating criteria of government to increase customer loyalty. Many study showed that employees’ emotions will directly affect their job performance and hotel customer’s loyalty (Morris and Feldman, 1997; Abraham, 2000).

Emotional intelligence is the interrelated abilities of the personality to deal with emotions, and emotional labor as emotion-related to job requirements imposed by hotel (Wong and Law, 2002). Employees’ emotional intelligence is an important factor when employees performing emotional labor and prediction Employees' organizational commitment (Goleman, 2000). Organizational commitment is employees believe in and accept organizational goals and values, and are willing to remain within their organizations, and willing to provide considerable effort on their behalf (Mowday, Porter, and Steers, 1979). Previous studies indicated emotional labor had positive or negative effects of organizational commitment (Zapf, 2002).

Many previous researches has indicated the relationship of emotional intelligence and emotional labor, but only a few of studies focus in employees of hotel industry, as same as the relationship of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment. The job characteristics of the hotel industry are high pressure and long working hours, especially the employees who are working in five stars hotel. The employees who are working at five stars hotels have to provide detail, friendly, and professional customer service, and employees needed to deal with working pressure and negative emotion. Through the above, employees must have emotional control ability at high pressure working environment. Therefore this research was exploring the relationship of employees’ emotional intelligence, emotional labor and organizational commitment. The purpose of this study as following:

1. Explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional labor for five-star hotel employees.
2. Explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment for five-star hotel employees.
3. Explore the relationship between emotional labor and organizational commitment for five-star hotel employees.

METHOD

2.1 Research framework and hypothesis of the study are as follows:

H1a: Emotional intelligence had negative affected with emotive dissonance.
H1b: Emotional intelligence had positively affected with emotive effort.
H2: Emotional intelligence had positively affected with organizational commitment.
H3a: Emotive dissonance had negative affected with organizational commitment.

H3b: Emotive effort had positive affected with organizational commitment.

![Figure 1. Research Framework](image)

2.2 Questionnaire design

The quantitative research used survey questionnaires with five-point Likert scale for data collection. The ranging start from “1=strongly disagree” and “5=strongly agree”. The survey instruments included emotional intelligence, emotional labor, organizational commitment, demographic variables.

The Emotional intelligence questionnaire (Wong & Law, 2002) contain 16 items; the emotional labor questionnaire (Chu & Murmann, 2006) contain 19 items; the organizational commitment questionnaire (Fu, Bolander, & Jones, 2009) contain 11 items; and the demographic variables contain gender, age, education, department, seniority, and job position.

2.3 Data Collection Method

This study used convenience sampling method for data collection. There were 100 questionnaires were distributed to the five-star hotel employees in Taipei, Taiwan.

2.4 Data analysis methods

This study will use SPSS for data analysis; statistic analysis methods include descriptive analysis, reliability analysis, correlation coefficient and simple linear regression analysis.

FINDINGS

The 100 surveys were distributed to respondents, and 80 questionnaires were valid to use. The return rate as 80%. For the descriptive analysis, 58.8% (n=47) of respondents were female, 41.3% (n=33) of respondents were male. Approximately 55% of respondents (n=44) were between 20 and 25 years old, and 18.8% were between 26 and 30 (n=15). Most of the respondents had received bachelor degree (n=65). There were 38.8% (n=31) respondents worked at Customer Services Department; 61.3% (n=49) respondents worked at Food & Beverage Department. In terms of hotel seniority, majority respondents at six months to a year 40% (n=32) level; followed by one to three years 28.8% (n=23). Most respondents 47.5% (n=38) were frontline staff, followed by internship 33.8% (n=27), (see table 3.1).

The mean of hotel employee’ emotional intelligence was 3.92; the mean of emotional labor was 3.20; the mean of organizational commitment was 3.29. Reliability analysis results showed: Cronbach’s Alpha of emotional intelligence was 0.903; emotional labor contents two factors: the emotional dissonance had Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.945 and the emotional effort had Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.904; the organizational commitment had Cronbach’s Alpha of 0.805. All variables of this research had Cronbach’s Alpha were higher than 0.7 and indicated good internal consistency and Reliability.

Correlation analysis, regarding correlations among the factors, EI was significantly negatively
significantly correlated with ED (r = 0.60, p < .000), EI was significantly significantly correlated with EE (r = 0.66, p < .000), EI was significantly significantly correlated with OC (r = 0.47, p < .000), ED was significantly negatively significantly correlated with OC (r = -0.45, p < .000), EE was significantly significantly correlated with OC (r = 0.49, p < .000).

Results of regression analyses indicated the emotional intelligence had significant influence in emotional dissonance (R² = 0.437, p < .000, β = -0.762) and emotional intelligence had significant influence in emotional effort (R² = 0.530, p < .000, β = 0.552); the variable of emotional intelligence had significant influence in organizational commitment (R² = 0.246, p < .000, β = 0.366); the variable of emotional dissonance had significant influence in organizational commitment (R² = 0.156, p < .000, β = -0.253) and emotional effort explained a significant influence in organizational commitment (R² = 0.234, p < .000, β = 0.472), Therefore, All hypothesis were all supports.(see table 3.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total respondents</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hotel Department</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Customer Services</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>Food &amp; Beverage</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hotel Seniority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>&lt; 6 months</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>6 months - 1 years</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>1 - 3 years</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3 - 5 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5 - 7 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Job Position</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Foreman</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high school</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Frontline Staff</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.8</td>
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<td>College</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Master's degree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
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</table>

| Table 3.1 Descriptive Analysis of Demographic Variables |

<table>
<thead>
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<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. El</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. ED</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. EE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. OC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.604***</td>
<td>0.664***</td>
<td>0.468***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>-0.604***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-0.597***</td>
<td>-0.447***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.664***</td>
<td>-0.597***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.487***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.468***</td>
<td>-0.447***</td>
<td>0.487***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05; * p<.01; ** p<.001***.

| Table 3.2 Correlation analysis of Variables |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EI → ED</td>
<td>0.661</td>
<td>0.437</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>-0.742</td>
<td>-7.773</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI → EE</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td>0.530</td>
<td>0.524</td>
<td>0.552</td>
<td>9.372</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EI → OC</td>
<td>0.496</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.236</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>5.041</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ED → OC</td>
<td>0.395</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.145</td>
<td>-0.253</td>
<td>-3.797</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE → OC</td>
<td>0.484</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.224</td>
<td>0.472</td>
<td>4.884</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05; * p<.01; ** p<.001***.
IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

The results showed emotional intelligence significantly affect emotional labor and organizational commitment, as predictions. Emotional intelligence is negatively associated with emotional dissonance and then emotional intelligence is positively associated with emotional effort. Emotional intelligence is positively associated with organizational commitment. Emotional dissonance is negatively associated with organizational commitment and then Emotional effort is positively associated with organizational commitment.

If emotional intelligence level is not significant, it can be upgrade through training (Slaski and Cartwright, 2003). Thus, this research suggests hotel could set up emotional intelligence learn programs to increase employee's emotional intelligence skills, such as self-awareness, self-control, and self-motivation, which help employees withstand Emotional dissonance more effectively and also engage in Emotional effort, as well as reduce personnel problems and employee turnover rate.

REFERENCES


THE CHANGES OF TRAVEL PATTERN IN THE TRANSITION OF PARENTHOOD

Yim-mei Kiano Luk
Bob Mckercher
The HK Poly U

INTRODUCTION

The transition of parenthood produces tremendous upheavals in the individuals’ lives. With the addition of newborn, couples are ushered into a period of disequilibrium and reorganization. Although leisure is a major domain of overall life satisfaction (Dolnicar et al., 2012), most couples encounter the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints (Crawford and Godbey, 1987) in leisure participation during the transition of parenthood. The constraints are likely to change across the life stages and highly dependent on the marital status, family size, and the types of activities (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). As vacation is one of the leisure participation on the move and engages in the activity away from home (Kelly, 1994), it is no wonder that most parents have more substantial considerations for taking this form of leisure activity than the others. Regardless of the potential applications of leisure constraints theory into studying travel behavior, only a few articles have applied it to tourism (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Hung & Petrick, 2010; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008).

Economic barriers, availability of time, and family support are the common constraints perceived to influence individuals to make the travel decision (Fleischer & Pizam, 2002; Gilbert & Hudon, 2000; Hudson, 2000). Even though there are salient studies contributing to the travel constraints, most of them assume the tourists as a homogeneous group, leading the results of the studies may not be able to help the destination marketing organizations (DMO) for evaluating the information on viable market segments correctly (Li et al., 2011). As a result, there is urged to classify the market into distinct groups with similar perceived constraints for the segmentation in order to respond to specific products and marketing mix (Weber, 1995). Delivering the right products to the right tourists is a way for enhancing the appeal of the destination to the potential tourists.

The purpose of this study is to identify the impact on the transition on parenthood on parents’ leisure travel experienced by couples who have the first child and the general changes encountered before and after becoming as parents. Understanding the changes of the travel pattern not only help the destination to identify the target segment and develop corresponding market strategies, but also shed the light on the constraints of the leisure participation, the value of travel among the parents, reveal how the leisure travel in this life stage impacts on the quality of life.

METHOD

The study is exploratory in nature as few previous studies on the changes of travel pattern have ever probed into the transition to parenthood. Qualitative research method was adopted for this study in order to capture the data on the perception of individuals ‘from the inside’, through a process of deep attentiveness, of empathetic understanding, and of suspending preconceptions about the investigating topic (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Two key methods of qualitative research approach—focus group discussion and in-depth interviews were employed. Data generated through these methods was based on verbal communication and spoken narratives. The focus group discussion with three couples was conducted in the researcher’s home in October 2014 and then the in-depth semi-structure interviews were conducted in Hong Kong from January to February 2015. Due to the limited duration, the respondents were interviewed in the post-birth situation and recalled the constraints and changes before and after having a child. The couples
with the first baby who had not yet started to walk or were learning to walk were selected for this study. Beside of the mobility of the baby, it also targets at reducing the limitation on recalling the past experiences. The data was collected from sixteen interviews with sixteen couples by snowball sampling. Finally, the data was assessed by informal content analysis technique with the assistance of eTable Utilities from Excel.

**FINDINGS**

The respondents in this study indicated that the transition to parenthood was an important stage of their life as a new member was added into their family, resulting the changes of their original couples’ lifestyle tremendously. Even though the interviews were conducted after the baby was born, the couples shared their lifestyle from marriage until the baby arrived. The issues they encountered after marriage, during the pregnancy, and after giving birth, in particular parenting, were explicated. As parenting is the process of promoting and supporting the completed development of a child from newborn to adulthood, it is believed that the couples’ life are impacted truly, such as the leisure participation and the purposive leisure—travel, the main focus of this study. Motivation, selection of destination, itinerary, and the considerations of trips were selected for the following discussion.

**Motivation**

Relaxation, one of the push factors for traveling, is the top motivation which most couples stated. Travel is either an escape from their busy working life or a break from daily routine. Apart from the relaxation and escape, a wide range of push motivations are found among the couples, such as the needs of private time, the increase of self-esteem, and the visit of friends and relatives (VFR). During the travel, the couples may choose to enjoy it either passively (i.e. joining package tour) or actively (i.e. independent travellers). To a certain extent, the context of the travel is varied by the intrinsic individual needs. Relaxation and escape may be probably a kind of apparent motivation found among the general public while the independent travellers are looking for more in the journey. During the interviews, a new form of travel—family travel has been identified. Among the couples, no matter frequent or infrequent travellers, dominant ideology of parenting has emerged with higher valuation of family time, leading a new orthodoxy about leisure and tourism. Baby becomes a catalyst for the parents to re-think the meaning of travel to themselves.

**Selection of destination**

A wide range of countries were the couples’ traveling destinations before the transition to parenthood, such as Europe, USA, Canada, Japan, Korea, and Singapore. There is a combination of long-haul and short-haul travel for the couples prior to the baby arrived. Regarding to the selection of travel destination, the couples have not changed much after the birth of the baby. Most of the individuals still kept on choosing the places they would like to go by their own preferences without the babies. For the couples who do not like traveling at all, they have the propensity to stop traveling after the transition. The marketing strategies of the DMO seem not to be effective on this group of couples. For the couples who had intention to travel with the babies, the countries nearby Hong Kong are the favourable destinations for the first family trips.

**Itinerary**

No big change is discovered after the transition to parenthood regarding the itinerary of the travel. Yet it is only limited to the individual or couple travel instead of the family travel. Traveling with the baby is dissimilar to other type of travel as family spends time together and the proposed itinerary of the trip is more structured and goal-oriented. The relatively loose and disorganized schedule is seldom happened in the family travel. Family travel is perceived as a time which encapsulates the purposiveness of spending time with the family members. Most family travel is usually saturated with various leisure activities which focus on facilitating fun with the baby in the ‘high-quality’ time. As a result, most family trips tend to be well-planned with the proposed itinerary. The time together is the new luxury and tourism is able to facilitate the family bonding through the increased leisure activity time. The aquarium, zoo, museum, theme parks and the playhouse were the common spots that most couples would visit during their family trips.
Considerations of trips

It is understandable that the first-time parents would have more concern on their babies since they are lack of experience on parenthood. Higher anxiety on all issues related to the baby is expected, including outbound tourism. The nature of tourism is intangible which no transfer of ownership of goods is involved. As the tourism products cannot be seen or inspected before its purchase, the level of anxiety and the risk are heightened for the entire travelling process. The tourist acquires experience by interacting with the new environment, however, the individuals may also encounter the subtle psychological feeling when facing the new and strange environment. Additional worries could be found among these couples. For the sake of reducing the risk happened in the family travel, the couples tried to arrange the family travel with familiar travel products and environment so as to minimize the unpleasant experiences from the trips. Despite the destination should have well-established medical system and facilities, the familiar culture and language are the two considering areas of family travel the couples mentioned. Although a number of couples are drifters or explorers regarding their individual travel behaviour, they become more conservative in choosing the destinations for family trip. Most couples select the destinations from the collective family perspective. The destinations with Asian culture is preferable as no matter the food, environment, facilities, medical system and the people would not have a huge difference with the hometown Hong Kong.

CONCLUSION

An important reason for selecting the transition to parenthood is because family traveler is one of the significant and growing market segments in the tourism industry. The analysis of the traveling pattern of this segments intents to provide insights into the development of marketing strategies and tourism products. This research, therefore, is designed to serve a consolidated study into the changes in the travel patterns in the transition to parenthood. It is found that three different types of couples were found—stopped traveling, have intention to travel with babies, and traveled with the babies. It is interesting to note that the perception of drifters and explorers towards travel remains the same before and after the transition to parenthood. The arrival of the baby, therefore, is not a decisive factor influencing or altering the travel motivation among the couples. It is only an agent which catalyses the new form of travel—family travel to the couples. This group of travellers is divided into two categories after becoming as parents. One prefers traveling without the baby like the past days while one group is keen on going with the baby. However, the latter one still want to travel without the baby if opportunity arises. It is difficult to justify the role of the baby among these couples but it seems that baby restricts them to enjoy their selfish hedonistic behaviour. Different segments of the population have unique preferences and constraints in leisure and recreation (Willing & Gibson, 2000). Understanding the attributes of specific populations help develop the program specific to the needs of that population. How to provide sufficient information to this market segment for reducing their worry on outbound travel is the top issue for the DMO.

REFERENCES


COMPARATIVE STUDY ON BEIJING TOURISM IMAGES BETWEEN HOME AND ABROAD: A WEB TEXT BASED STUDY

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Yingying Zhao
Tongqian Zou
Beijing International Studies University

INTRODUCTION

The number of tourists to Beijing increased to 261 billion in 2014 and went up by 3.8% compared with last year, of which domestic tourists to Beijing increased to 156 billion and went up by 5.8% compared with the year 2013, whereas there are only 4.275 million inbound tourists, down by 5%. These figures show that the inbound tourism market of Beijing is getting weaker. What’s the reason of the shift in tourism market? What’s Beijing’s perceived image? How to improve Beijing’ tourism image to attract more outbound tourists? All these questions are essential agenda for tourism policymakers.

With the continued integration of tourism and the Internet, travelers’ behavior such as decision-making, purchase and travel behavior are closely related to the network. Outbound tourists are particularly dependent on the network to collect more information to start their tours due to space isolation, language differences, customs policy, etc. The cyberspace is free and open and there are lots of travelogues recording tourists’ real experience of a destination. All these information can describe tourists’ perception of the image of a destination. Therefore, a vast amount of information in the network has also received researchers’ attention, and some of them have already tried to combine the tourism research with the Internet.

In this study, two big travel sharing websites have been used as data source. ROST Content Ming software has been used to extract high-frequency words to understand the theme content of Beijing tourism image. In addition, the study evaluates Beijing tourism image attributes, acquires the quality of Beijing image in the eye of both inbound and outbound tourists and tells the differences of Beijing tourism image between tourists home and abroad and finally provides a basis to improve Beijing tourism image.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism image is one of the hot issues of tourism studies both at home and abroad. For the concept of tourism image, the foreign research mainly focuses on the tourists’ psychological activities. Martin Selby (1996) put forward the concept of naive image and re – evaluated image from the angle of tourists’ cognitive. Baloglu (1999) thinks tourism destination image is a concept about tourists’ personal attitude, which refers to the individual understandings, feelings and impressions of a tourism destination. Domestic researches on the tourism destination image are mainly based on two basic levels, the regional level of the tourism destination image research and perception image of tourism destination at the individual level. From the aspect of tourism destination, tourism image is integrating resources and selectively spreading. In terms of tourists, tourism image is ideas of a destination gained through media and experience, which is the reflection of the tourism destination in the mind of tourists.

Tourism image research mainly focus on the connotation, composition and influence factors of tourism image and the relationship between tourism image and tourist behavior, as well as the tourism destination image design, etc at home and abroad. Tourism image measurement includes both structured and unstructured method. The former is quantitative analysis of tourism image elements or attributes through the questionnaire survey of tourists. It has been widely used in tourism image study.
While the latter collects visitors’ feelings and evaluation of tourism destination image through interviews and network, and then obtains the attributes and characteristics of the tourism destination image by means of data mining.

Content analysis is a method of qualitative research based on the quantitative analysis, which transforms words into data and do statistical analysis. Content analysis is now widely used in social research in various fields. Rost Content Mining is a mining software developed by professor Yang Sheng from Wuhan University; it can do the content mining, text analysis and knowledge processing through word segmentation, word frequency statistics, clustering, relevance, comparability, emotional tendency, the co-occurrence with cited, timing, trends, outbreaks of word frequency, semantic network and social network analysis with the Information from web pages, BBS, blog, micro blog, etc. Liang Xiao introduced the software into tourism destination image research, now it is used in tourism destination symbols, tourist behavior research.

**METHODOLOGY**

In this study, the term “Beijing” was used as the keyword to search the original travelogues in “mafengwo” (a Chinese travel sharing website) and the data was collected by “locomotive Collector v7.6” software. Finally 750 passages were chosen as samples to analyze Beijing domestic tourism image. As for the outbound tourism image, English edition of “Trip Advisor” (a international travel sharing website) was used as data source and 938 travelogue samples were collected.

Rost Content Mining software was used to do content analysis and semantic network analysis of travelogues in “mafengwo” and “Trip Advisor”. With regard to word frequency, words with no apparent reference or of wide comprehension were eliminated. Co-occurrence analysis was also used to get the Semantic network diagram according to the frequency of words. This gave us the chance to better understand the key words of the perceived image of Beijing. Further, the study used comparative analysis to analyze the differences of the perceived image between national and international tourists.

**FINDINGS**

**High-Frequency Words Analysis**

Of all the words that relate to the image of Beijing the top ten are Great Wall, the Forbidden City, hutongs, Tiananmen Square, the subway, building, the Front Door, hotel, park and Nanluoguxiang. Figure 1 shows the high-frequency words and their relations.

![Figure 1: Semantic network graph of the words related to Beijing's tourism image](image-url)
**Tourism Motivation and Behavior**

High-frequency words associated with tourists’ motivation and behavior are concentrated on the "food", "scenic spot", "flag", "history", etc. It can be seen that specialties which are rich with Beijing characteristics are an important tourism motivation. In the sample travelogues, tourists visit 3-5 attractions per day on average, reflecting the richness of Beijing tourism resources to a certain extent. Watching the flag-raising ceremony is mentioned in most travelogues. High-frequency words analysis shows the advantage of Beijing as the national capital and its rich tourism resources, which appeal to tourists to a great extent.

**Attraction Preference**

In terms of scenic spot selection, tourists focus on relatively well-known scenic spots, such as the Great Wall, the Forbidden City, Tiananmen Square, etc. This is consistent with Beijing's main propaganda of scenic spots. The high frequency words are centered on Beijing’s cultural landscapes, which are also its unique landscape. And this indicates that Beijing’s tourism resources are inherited from its long history. Those words reflects the fact that Beijing dose very well in the tourism promotion process. However, they also indicate that tourists’ perception of Beijing is confined to a very small part. Many other types of tourist attractions, such as the 798 art zone, Song Zhuang, etc. need to be learned by more tourists.

**Attitude and Perception**

Attitude and perception of tourists concentrated on “convenient”, “cheap”, “the best”, “delicious”, which are mostly positive emotional vocabularies. “Convenient” is related to tourists ‘satisfaction on Beijing’ subway, “cheap” is the description of Beijing’s transportation fees. Tourists are mostly satisfied with Beijing’s special diet; “pity” is partly because some tourists cannot visit their favorite spot for limited time or other reasons. On the whole, the perception and attitude towards Beijing is positive. Negative emotions are mainly concentrated on too many people and “the expensive tickets” of some scenic spots.

**Tourism Facilities**

The evaluation of the tourism facilities concentrates on the traffic and the accommodations. The Beijing subway is the first choice for tourist and gets a very high mark for it is fast and of high cost performance. Bus is another choice. Tourists suggest Beijing’s “One Card Pass” is a good way to reduce transportation costs. The frequency of “accommodation” is a combination of “hotel” and “guesthouse”. The evaluation is relatively positive: the geographical position is superior and the price is acceptable. Overall, tourists didn’t show more interests on the other aspects of the tourism facilities. Infrastructure and shopping are not frequently mentioned. This actually reflects the fact that Beijing's tourism communal facilities fail to impress the tourists. Besides, tourism souvenir is not of distinctive characters, which confines tourists’ choice.

**COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF BEIJING HOME-AND-ABROAD IMAGES**

Word frequency analysis of the travelogues on Trip advisor website demonstrated the top ten words reflecting tourism image of Beijing are “visa”, “taxi”, “volunteers”, “knowledgeable”, “RMB”, “travel consultation”, “hutong”, “Mutianyu”, “SIM card” and “monk”. In this study, Beijing’s tourism image is divided into cognitive tourism resources image, cognitive tourism services and facilities image.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>visa</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Car rental</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>President XI</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>volunteer</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Tiananmen</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>knowledgeable</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Qianmen</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>RMB</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>ATM</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Travel consultation</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Jingshan Mountain</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Hutong</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Mutianyu</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Beihai</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>SIM card</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>VPN</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Monk</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>courtyard</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Cognitive image of tourism resources**

The top five tourism resources mentioned by domestic tourists are “the Great Wall”, “the Palace Museum”, “hutong”, “Night” and “Tiananmen”. The widely accepted images includes relics (the Great Wall, the Forbidden City, Qianmen, Tiantan, etc.), cultural activities (Hutong, Nanluoguxiang), building facilities (Tiananmen, buildings, parks), landscape of astronomical phenomenon and climate (night), among which the precious relics, long human activities and the majestic building facilities impress tourists most. Foreign tourists’ perception of Beijing tourism resources is more focused on human activities. Words related to culture and humanity accounted for about half of the total vocabularies, and the top six are “knowledgeable”, “alley”, “Mutianyu Great Wall”, “monk”, “Asian” and “Xi Jinping”. It can be seen that the foreign tourists are more concerned about tourism resources reflecting cultural uniqueness and differences. What’s more, royal tombs and parks reflecting the royal culture are popular among foreign tourists.

**Cognitive Image of Tourism Services and Facilities**

The top five tourism services and facilities mentioned by domestic tourists are “subway”, “hotel”, “friends”, “lining up” and “the train”. “Subway” appears the most. “Food” also attracted much attention, with “roast duck” and “local flavors” are frequently mentioned and usually highly evaluated. In addition, it is worth mentioning that the word “lining up” appears a lot of times, which shows the overloaded people of Beijing as a popular tourism destination. As for foreign tourists, the service elements such as the tourism visa, transportation, currency exchange, communication and network are the most important issues. These fundamental factors decide whether tourism activities can go smoothly, while domestic tourists do not need to consider this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ranking</th>
<th>Cognitive image of tourism resources</th>
<th>frequency</th>
<th>Cognitive image of tourism service and facilities</th>
<th>frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>classification</td>
<td>item</td>
<td>classification</td>
<td>item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Site and relic Great Wall</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>transportation</td>
<td>Subway</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Site and relic The palace museum</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Human activity Hutong</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>others</td>
<td>Friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>climatic resources night</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>transportation</td>
<td>Train</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Architecture Tiananmen</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>others</td>
<td>Nanking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Architecture building</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>dining</td>
<td>Nanking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Site and relic Qianmen</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>dining</td>
<td>Roast duck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Architecture park</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>dining</td>
<td>smell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Human activity Nanluoguxiang</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>others</td>
<td>cheap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Site and relic Temple of heaven</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>shopping</td>
<td>Wangfujin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Human activity history</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>shopping</td>
<td>street</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Architectural Square</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>entertainment</td>
<td>bar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Architectural the Bird's Nest</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>entertainment</td>
<td>ticket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Site and relic Badaling</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>entertainment</td>
<td>transportation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Architecture Drum Tower</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>store</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Human activity art</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>transportation</td>
<td>airport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Human activity Dashilar</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>transportation</td>
<td>bus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Architecture Water Cube</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>others</td>
<td>Tour guide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Human activity emperor</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>dining</td>
<td>delicious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Human activity capital</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>dining</td>
<td>delicacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Top twenty high-Frequency words of Beijing tourism image of each dimension in “Trip Advisor”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ranking</th>
<th>Cognitive image of tourism resources</th>
<th>Cognitive image of tourism service and facilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>classification</td>
<td>item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>knowledgeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>Hutong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Site and relic</td>
<td>Mutianyu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>Monk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>Xijingshan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td>Tiananmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Site and relic</td>
<td>Qianmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Site and relic</td>
<td>Jingshan Mountain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Site and relic</td>
<td>Beihai Park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Land Scenery</td>
<td>Mountaineering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>Houhai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Site and relic</td>
<td>Deshengmen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td>square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Human activity</td>
<td>Maozedong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS

Tourists’ Attitude Towards Beijing Tourism Image Is Positive Overall

Tourists highly recognize the rich tourism resources in Beijing. They also have positive comments on the accommodation, transportation and catering. However, there are significant shortcomings in the six basic elements of tourism: people have a low level of awareness on shopping and entertainment, which reflects the fact that they cannot impress tourists well. Therefore, shopping and entertainment are the main parts that need improvement both in the tourism development and the propaganda process.

Both the domestic and foreign tourists have an integrated perception on Beijing’s tourism resources, but more focused on cultural resources

Both the domestic and foreign tourists have an integrated perception on Beijing’s tourism resources because of Beijing’s abundant cultural and natural tourism resources, among which the cultural resources attract more attention including cities and ruins, human activities, etc. More specifically, domestic tourists equally admire the precious cities and ruins, the long-standing human activities and the majestic buildings, while foreign tourists tend to prefer human activities, tombs and parks which reflect the loyal culture. The reason for the difference is the different cultural environment of their habitual residence: domestic tourists share the same Chinese and eastern civilization, while foreign tourist tries to learn the eastern culture through tourism activities.

Foreign tourists pay more attention to the basic tourism services and facilities.

The public transport system of Beijing (mainly refers to the subway and bus) is very important for tourists both at home and abroad. The difference is that the service elements area more important for foreign tourists, such as visa, transportation, currency, communication and network. In addition, Beijing should focus more on the solution of the traffic congestion problem as increasing number of tourists flocking to Beijing. Otherwise, the negative tourism experience will damage Beijing’s well-crafted tourism image.

IMPLICATIONS

Theoretically, this study conducts content analysis to find out similarities and differences between Beijing home-and-abroad tourism images. On one side, it innovatively studies the difference of Beijing tourism image between home and abroad. On another side, it reaffirms web text analysis ap-
approaches to study tourism image in a new view. In practice, we know the difference between Beijing home-and-abroad tourism images, both of them pay more attention to Beijing’ cultural resources, however, compared with domestic tourists foreign tourists pay more attention to tourism services and facilities. Beijing should use differentiated marketing approach and provide targeted marketing content in its domestic and international marketing.

REFERENCES

CHINESE BACKPACKERS: APPRAISALS OF MOTIVATION
AND THE PROBLEMS OF INTERNET BASED SURVEYS OR HOW
A SIMPLE SURVEY WENT WRONG!

Tengfei (Chris) Xu
Chris Ryan
The University of Waikato Management School

INTRODUCTION

Backpackers are special travellers with the preferences for budget accommodation, schedule flexibility and participating in local experience and activities (Pearce and Foster, 2007; Pearce et al., 2009). Both academics and the tourism industry have paid much attention to backpacking because of its significance. In the Chinese academic literature, interest in backpacking tourism has notably developed since the year 2000, and the phrase ‘donkey friend’ (Lv You) has been widely used to specifically represent Chinese backpackers (Zhu, 2007; Zhang, 2008). Nevertheless, thus far the number of research studies conducted to understand the travel motivations of the emerging Chinese backpacker market have remained relatively few in the English academic literature. On the other hand, in the English context, both backpacking and backpackers have been extensively studied as important subjects for several decades (Teas, 1988; Loker-Murphy, 1997; Moscardo, 2006), and continues to develop (Ryan and Mohsin, 2001; Wang, 2003; Rogerson, 2007; Lim, 2009; Ong and du Cros, 2012).

RESEARCH METHOD

The purpose of this paper is to report findings from a study of Chinese backpackers holidaying in New Zealand. A mixed methods approach was undertaken with the aim being to identify the various travel motivations of Chinese backpackers and then to segment them according to their various motivations. A sequential approach was undertaken with ten Chinese backpackers being interviewed at a backpackers hostel in Hamilton, New Zealand, and a further ten being interviewed back in China using either Skype or WeChat (primarily the latter). This permitted the development of a questionnaire in combination with a literature review. Table One indicates the nature of the scale used, and the sources from which some of the items emanated.

For the quantitative component of the study, a final sample was collected through the use of a professional online questionnaire Chinese website, Sojump, www.sojump.com. A total of 210 usable responses were obtained after filter questions pertaining to backpacking experiences were completed. A five-point scale was used where ‘5’ represented the highest level of agreement with the item.

Table 1. Sources of the Scale Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Construct definition</th>
<th>Measurement items</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-cognition</td>
<td>Individual’s understandings of himself/ herself</td>
<td>1 To know myself better in a new environment</td>
<td>Content analysis (CA) and interviews;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 To test myself in a unfamiliar place</td>
<td>Loker-Murphy(1997);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 To improve my interpersonal skills with foreigners</td>
<td>Mohsin and Ryan (2003);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 To develop my personal capacity in another country</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 To change my character</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 Preference for backpacking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 Preference for NZ as destination</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novel destination experience</td>
<td>Participation in local cultures, landscapes view and lifestyles of the destination</td>
<td>8 To communicate with NZ local people</td>
<td>CA and interviews;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9 To understand NZ local culture and society</td>
<td>Loker-Murphy (1997);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10 To experience NZ way of life</td>
<td>Mohsin and Ryan (2003);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 To seek adventure and outdoor activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12 To view NZ natural landscape</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructs</td>
<td>Construct definition</td>
<td>Measurement items</td>
<td>Sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>To meet new people and build relationships with them</td>
<td>13 To get an unique experience</td>
<td>CA and interviews;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>14 To travel with other backpackers in NZ</td>
<td>Loker-Murphy(1997);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15 To meet new people</td>
<td>MohsinandRyan(2003);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16 To accompany my friends and relatives</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17 The influences of other backpackers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape and recreation</td>
<td>To escape everyday life and release the body and soul</td>
<td>18 To escape routine life and work in China</td>
<td>CA and interviews;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19 To relax physically and spiritually</td>
<td>Loker-Murphy(1997);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20 To get some fresh air</td>
<td>MohsinandRyan(2003);</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FINDINGS**

Of the sample 57% were female, and most were aged between 28 and 35 years of age. Of the sample 75% had incomes of less than 100,000 RMB p.a. and 45% had backpacked overseas and the remainder had done so solely with China. The findings reinforced other research within both China and elsewhere that while western backpackers will tend to use public transport, specialised backpacker buses or hitch a ride with care drivers, their Chinese counterparts would tend to self-drive. In addition – the Chinese 'backpackers' tended to travel of shorter periods compared with their western counterparts. One reason for these findings is that they appear to be somewhat older and more likely to be continuing in full-time employment when compared with their western counterparts.

Table two shows the main descriptive statistics for the scale.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Descriptive Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To view the New Zealand landscape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To relax physically and spiritually</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have an unique experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to understand a New Zealand way of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a preference for New Zealand as a destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to understand New Zealand culture and society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To test myself in an unfamiliar place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To develop my personal capacities when in another country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To know myself better in a new environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a preference to travel by back packing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve my inter-personal skills with foreigners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To seek adventure and outdoor activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To escape the routine of work life in China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To accompany friends and relatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To get some fresh air</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To meet new people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish to communicate with New Zealanders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To travel with other backpackers in New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enjoy being with other backpackers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To change my character</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings confirm the work of many other studies such as those cited in Figure One and Chinese scholars such as Zhu (2007) and Zhang (2008). New Zealand as a destination appears to possess an image that is attractive to Chinese backpackers. Given that the scale is a 5-point scale a few comments of interest arise from the table. First all the scores are above the mid-point of the scale, implying a skew toward the upper end of the scale. However, in terms of undertaking other calculations the ratio of skew/mean differs significantly across the items, implying significant differences in the dispersion of scores and in the volatility of responses. This is reflected in the kurtosis of scores, and one implication is that much of the subsequent analysis is limited (Azzalini, 2005).
One example where this arose was in the exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Although the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was 0.823 the EFA indicated 5 latent factors ‘explaining’ 54.7% of the variance in the scale using the conventional criterion of eigenvalues exceed 0.40. However, as indicated in Table Three some of the factors were difficult to rationalise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have a preference for New Zealand as a destination</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To view the New Zealand landscape</td>
<td>0.733</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>-0.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To relax physically and spiritually</td>
<td>0.728</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>-0.113</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have an unique experience</td>
<td>0.659</td>
<td>-0.107</td>
<td>-0.028</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>0.348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to understand a New Zealand way of life</td>
<td>0.637</td>
<td>-0.120</td>
<td>0.159</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>-0.044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish to communicate with New Zealanders</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td>-0.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to understand New Zealand culture and society</td>
<td>0.566</td>
<td>0.374</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>0.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve my inter-personal skills with foreigners</td>
<td>0.096</td>
<td>0.730</td>
<td>0.228</td>
<td>-0.030</td>
<td>0.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To develop my personal capacities when in another country</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>-0.041</td>
<td>0.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To meet new people</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To know myself better in a new environment</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>0.291</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>0.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To travel with other backpackers in New Zealand</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>0.444</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a preference to travel by back packing</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td>0.652</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To seek adventure and outdoor activities</td>
<td>0.373</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>0.627</td>
<td>-0.163</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To change my character</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.595</td>
<td>0.277</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To escape the routine of work life in China</td>
<td>-0.276</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.578</td>
<td>0.237</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To test myself in an unfamiliar place</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td>-0.050</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>0.098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enjoy being with other backpackers</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>0.306</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>-0.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To accompany friends and relatives</td>
<td>-0.150</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>0.456</td>
<td>0.300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To get some fresh air</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Generally though the dimensions could be labelled as (a) a desire to see New Zealand, (b) to self-develop through meeting others in a different country, (c) to develop through the adventurous experience of back-packing, (d) to get away and finally (e) two seemingly unrelated items of accompanying friends and relatives to experience fresh air. However alpha coefficients were low.

Unfortunately the design of the questionnaire permitted relatively little analysis beyond the above descriptive statistics. Neither age, marital status nor gender proved to be discriminatory variables. A failing in the questionnaire was its inability to develop any pattern of causality no possible dependent variable.

One possibility was to develop clusters derived from the items, and a three0fold cluster was found. However the third cluster numbered only 23 and as shown from the discriminate analysis in Figure One, the analysis was primarily based upon a distinction between those who were scoring high or low.
CONCLUSIONS

Apart from being able to discern generalised reasons for visiting New Zealand the study revealed some problems. These included:

- A simple series of statements relating to motive meant

- No attempt to assess to what degree people felt their wants were met

- Limited opportunities for analysis – no easily identifiable variables to act as dependent variable in a regression analysis

while one can ask does a 5-point scale work with Chinese respondents because it limits variance within the scale in a culture that tends not to be overtly critical.

Additionally many of the scores are just above the mid-point of the scale – hence little variance was arising, while some items possibly a little difficult to interpret (e.g. to relax physically and spiritually).

REFERENCES


Zhu X. (2007). Backpacker tourism: theoretical and empirical study based on China. PhD, East China Normal University, Shanghai
FORCASTING SINGAPORE TOURIST ARRIVALS USING COPULA METHOD: HIGH DIMENSIONAL CASE

Liang Zhu
Christine Lim
Wenjun Xie
Nanyang Technological University

INTRODUCTION

Tourism forecasting has long been an attractive topic in the tourism demand literature because of the undoubted significance of such studies for policy purposes. Most of the tourism demand models used to increase forecasting accuracy rely heavily on the linear relationship between the dependent variable and a set of explanatory variables to represent the dependence structure of tourism demand. Linear models are computationally straightforward and can be easily applied in practice; however, linear relationship is just one of the numerous dependence structures.

In this paper, we propose the copula method as an alternative approach for modeling and forecasting international tourism demand to Singapore. Famous for its green cityscape, multicultural environment and low crime rate, Singapore attracts tourists from all over the world with the additional advantage that English is widely spoken. Inbound tourism to Singapore has experienced rapid increase with over 15 million visitor arrivals in 2013 (almost three times the population of Singapore). This indicates that tourism is an important sector in Singapore, and accurate forecast of international tourism demand will provide the decision makers with great insights in tourism planning and marketing.

The appealing feature of the copula model is that it captures both the linear and non-linear forms of dependence in a time series, and there are no restrictions imposed on the distribution of the dependent variable. Our research contributions are to advance knowledge of dependence structure in Singapore tourism demand, and further to extend the current discussion of tourism modeling and forecasting to a more generalized framework.

METHOD

Sklar’s theorem (1959) sets the foundation of copulas in which the dependence structure combines the marginal distributions of random variables to form a joint (continuous) distribution. Additionally, copulas allow the modeling of marginal distributions separate from modeling of the dependence structure.

According to Sklar’s theorem, if H(.) is an n-dimensional joint distribution function for the random variables $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_n$ with continuous marginal distribution functions, then there exists a unique copula function C, such that:

$$H(y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n) = C\{F_1(y_1), F_2(y_2), \ldots, F_n(y_n)\}$$

where $y_i$ is the observation of $Y_i$ and $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Conversely, we can combine any given marginal distributions with a copula function to obtain a valid joint distribution of the random variables.

Chen and Fan (2006) stated that copulas can be used to analyze the dependence structure of univariate time series, if the series is stationary Markov process. In univariate copula models, $H(.)$ is the joint distribution function for $Y_1, Y_{t-1}, \ldots, Y_{t-k}$ with continuous marginal distribution function $F_m$. The joint distribution function can be represented by a copula function C as:

$$H(y_t, y_{t-1}, \ldots, y_{t-k}) = C\{F_m(y_t), F_m(y_{t-1}), \ldots, F_m(y_{t-k})\}.$$
Equation (2) can be rewritten as:

\[ H(y_i, y_{i+1}, \ldots, y_{i+k}) = C(u_i, u_{i+1}, \ldots, u_{i+k}) \]

where \( u_i \) is the cumulative density and \( u_{i+1} = F_{m}(y_i) \) for \( i = 0, 1, \ldots, k \).

The copula of any marginal distributions captures the dependence between the variables. There are many copula functions available and choosing a copula which allows for variation in the association of variables can be challenging. For copulas in high dimension (where \( k > 2 \)), Parsa and Klugman (2011) argue that only the Gaussian copula and t-copula are appropriate. They belong to the elliptical copula family which has symmetrical dependence structures with elliptic joint distribution. Between the two, the Gaussian copula is simpler and hence more widely used. The Gaussian copula uses only pairwise correlations among the variable of interest and its lags to encode

\[ C_{\text{Gaussian}}(u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{k}) = \Phi_{G}[\Phi^{-1}(u_{1}), \Phi^{-1}(u_{2}), \ldots, \Phi^{-1}(u_{k})]; \ R, \]

where \( \Phi^{-1} \) is the inverse of the standard normal cumulative distribution and \( \Phi_{G} \) the standard multivariate normal distribution with correlation matrix \( R \) of \( u = (u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{k}) \). Moreover, the correlation matrix can be partitioned as \( R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & r' \\ r & R_k \end{bmatrix} \) with \( R_k \) being the correlation matrix of \( u_k = (u_{i+1}, u_{i+2}, \ldots, u_{i+k}) \) and \( r \) being the \( k \times 1 \) vector of correlations

\[ L = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \ln c_{\text{Gaussian}}[u_{t}, u_{t-1}, \ldots, u_{t-k}]; \ R \]

with

\[ c_{\text{Gaussian}}[u_{t}, u_{t-1}, \ldots, u_{t-k}]; R] = \prod_{l=1}^{k} u_{t-l} \exp \left( -\frac{\mu[c{R^{-1}}(l)w]}{2} \right) \times |R|^{-0.5} \]

where \( w \) is a vector with \( l \)th element and \( I \) is the identity matrix.

\[ \hat{y}_t = \int_0^1 f_{t}(y_t) \exp \left\{ -0.5 \left[ \frac{[\Phi^{-1}(u_t)^{i} - \Phi^{-1}(u_t)^{i-1}]}{1-r'k_i} \right] \right\} \times (1-r'k_i)^{-1}dy_i \]

where \( w^* = (w_{t-1}, w_{t-2}, \ldots, w_{t-k}) \).

**FINDINGS**

We forecast total international tourist arrivals to Singapore in this study. Tourist arrivals data are collected from January 1995 to December 2013, and split into the estimation sample (from 1995M1 to 2010M12) and validation sample (from 2011M1 to 2014M12). The estimation sample is used to specify the copula and benchmark models. We then employ the specified models to generate 1-, 3-, 6-, 12-, 18-, 24-month-ahead forecasts. The forecasts will be compared using the expanding windows (or recursive) forecasting technique with the data in the validation sample.

We conduct the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) tests to examine whether the monthly tourist arrival series is stationary. It turns out that the series have unit roots in level but not after transformed (seasonal differenced for monthly data). Therefore,
we use the transformed series for forecasting comparison. To make sure that the transformed series are Markov process, we do residual diagnostics of AR(p) specification for the arrival series and the residuals become white noise when p=2. AR(p) models with white noise residual can be regarded as p-order Markov process. We thus consider three dimension copula (k=2) in this study.

To reveal that tourism demand may not follow the normal distribution, we apply the chi-square test to examine the normality assumption. It shows that normal distribution results in test statistic (32.713) higher than the critical value (20.090) at the 0.01 significance level, rejecting the null hypothesis that tourism demand to Singapore follows normal distribution. In contrast, the alternative Cauchy distribution, of which the test statistic is 8.406, passes the test for all cases. We thus use Cauchy distribution for the construction of copula model.

Two benchmark models are incorporated for the comparison purpose. The first one is AR(2) model, as we have shown that AR(2) specification for the focal series yields white noise residuals. Moreover, we also use SARMA model as a benchmark, because SARMA model fits monthly data better than AR model. The SARMA model with lowest AIC statistic is SARMA(2,0,1)×(1,0,1)12.

The root-mean-square error (RMSE) and the mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) are popular measures of errors used to evaluate tourism forecast performance. We evaluate how well the Gaussian copula, AR and SARMA models perform by comparing their RMSE and MAPE. Table 1 displays the out-of-sample RMSE and MAPE results. It can be clearly seen that copulas outperform both AR and SARMA model in forecasting Singapore tourism demand at all horizons with the smallest RMSEs and MAPEs. The advantage of the Gaussian copula is even stronger in the medium- and long-term forecasting.

<p>| Table 1. RMSEs (MAPEs) for Tourist Arrivals to Singapore by Forecast Horizons |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Horizon</th>
<th>i=1</th>
<th>i=3</th>
<th>i=6</th>
<th>i=12</th>
<th>i=18</th>
<th>i=24</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AR(2)</td>
<td></td>
<td>55517</td>
<td>75187</td>
<td>91409</td>
<td>92019</td>
<td>107812</td>
<td>110142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(3.84%)</td>
<td>(5.26%)</td>
<td>(6.67%)</td>
<td>(5.55%)</td>
<td>(7.20%)</td>
<td>(7.38%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SARIMA (1,0,1)×(1,0,1)12</td>
<td></td>
<td>59482</td>
<td>83849</td>
<td>116057</td>
<td>178086</td>
<td>160701</td>
<td>152820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(3.64%)</td>
<td>(5.65%)</td>
<td>(8.23%)</td>
<td>(13.38%)</td>
<td>(11.58%)</td>
<td>(10.56%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copula</td>
<td></td>
<td>53440</td>
<td>69822</td>
<td>64293</td>
<td>73049</td>
<td>77604</td>
<td>75193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(3.52%)</td>
<td>(4.63%)</td>
<td>(3.88%)</td>
<td>(4.57%)</td>
<td>(4.63%)</td>
<td>(4.10%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

The copula method for dependence modeling allows wide implementation to any time series in many fields of research. This paper initiates the use of copula technique in tourism demand forecasting and we have applied the methodology to examine Singapore inbound tourism. It is evident that in general, the copula approach has outperformed the AR and SARMA model in forecasting total tourist arrivals to Singapore.

The contribution of this study to the existing tourism forecasting literature is to present the core ideas of copula-based model and to spotlight a highly promising approach for advancing univariate time series forecasting. Our study also has policy relevance. The copula approach can provide more reliable forecasts for Singapore, which help governors and business managers make sensible decisions on tourism promotion and destination marketing. According to World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC), capital investment in travel and tourism of Singapore has exceeded 10 billion SGD from 2006 on and reached around 17.5 billion SGD in 2014, and is expected to increase by 6.1% in 2015 (WTTC, 2015). For the substantial investment, Singapore government and the local tourism businesses need to attract potential tourists to consume the travel and tourism services. The copula method proposed in this study can help governors and business managers gain sufficient foresights of tourism demand and identify market opportunities, leading to beneficial decisions on tourism promotion and destination marketing.
Further discussion will advance this working paper. Firstly, the approach can be extended to other destination countries to generalize the current finding. Secondly, certain tests for evaluating the forecasting comparison can make the results more convincing.

REFERENCES


EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP OF INDIVIDUAL ERROR MANAGEMENT, SERVICE RECOVERY PERFORMANCE, AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION: MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY

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Priyanko Guchait
University of Houston

INTRODUCTION

Errors are inevitable, especially in service organizations, where human interactions are essential (Rybowiak, Garst, Frese & Batinic, 1999). They are defined as unintentional deviations from plans or goals, which often lead to negative consequences, including ineffective service delivery process, time loss, and sometimes even to disastrous accidents (Reason, 1990). These defects are motivating organizations to stress the importance of error management, which is considered as one of the solutions to control errors effectively (Van Dyck, Frese, Baer, & Sonnentag, 2005). Different from other preventive measures, error management approach assumes that human errors cannot be prevented completely, thus suggests that the post-management system for errors should gain more emphasis (Garud, Nayyar, & Shapira, 1999; Hofmann & Frese, 2011). The importance of error management has been highlighted in previous studies, especially focusing on the company level or organizational climate (Van Dyck et al., 2005; Guchait, Kim, & Namavivam, 2012). Companies with positive attitudes towards errors tend to be more innovative and experimental, whereas negative error cultures could result in ineffective individual and organizational learning from errors (Rybowiak et al., 1999). Indeed the importance of organizations’ error management system should be emphasized, however, simultaneously, it is critical to understand the human nature and the individual traits and behavior, as errors are naturally derived from individuals (Simon, 1991; Bandura, 1986, Bandura, 1977). Thus, the premise of this paper is that if we understand the fundamental psychological aspects of individuals, for this paper, self-efficacy, we can approach error management more in-depth and find more rigorous strategies to cope with human errors.

Although previous literature recognizes the critical impact of errors, empirical evidence remains scant. Development of a valid analytical tool to manage errors in quantitative terms would provide a decent start for practitioners to adopt the theory and utilize the tool for company improvement. Rybowiak et al. (1999) conceptualized individual error management, presented a development of error orientation questionnaire (EOQ), and proved its validity and reliability; but there were no additional studies that validated EOQ in terms of hospitality research. Moreover, no prior researches have discovered practical relationships with other variables, including relationships between error orientation and service recovery performance. Overall, the hospitality industry would benefit from more information about employee’s error managing behavior and their attitudes to better understand the error orientation of a service operation. As a result, this article aims to satisfy three major purposes as follows: 1) validate the adequacy of EOQ in hospitality settings, 2) investigate the relationship between error orientation, service recovery performance, and customer satisfaction and 3) identify the mediating role of self-efficacy among the relationships.

METHOD

Research Design. The study was designed to achieve two major objectives in general: 1) to confirm and validate error orientation dimensions and check adaptability in hospitality settings, and 2) to examine the relationships among the validated constructs and service recovery performance and customer satisfaction, with the mediating role of
self-efficacy. According to the abovementioned objectives, the study first developed and evaluated its measurement model, followed by a structural model to discover the relationships among suggested variables. Thus, in the first phase, we confirmed and evaluated the indicators to measure error-managing skills of employees. In the second phase, multiple relationships of dependent and independent variables were estimated based on the underlying theory.

Data Collection and Data Analysis. For empirical results, survey questionnaire was developed to collect data. Survey was distributed to 300 hotel managers in a supervisory level, in Houston, Texas. Convenience sampling was used, and a total of 161 usable responses were collected from the respondents, showing a valid response rate of 53.6%. The population was from diverse types of properties including luxury hotel and resorts, full-service property, limited service property, and independent property.

To test our measurement model, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used. By using CFA, we identified the patterns of the variables and confirmed the valid dimensions of the error orientation questionnaire (EOQ). Next, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was utilized to find the best fitting structural model and specify interrelationships among the variables. Therefore, the items in the proposed model were tested with AMOS ver. 22 structural equations modeling with maximum likelihood (ML) method of estimation.

FINDINGS

Measurement Model. First of all, our confirmatory measurement model that specified the observed variables to the underlying constructs was tested. We adopted validated items from Rybowski et al. (1999) and six constructs were drawn for individual error management. The overall model fit of the final measurement model from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was satisfactory ($\chi^2$=267.47, df=172, CMIN/DF=1.555, CFI=.930, GFI=.870, AFGI=.825, RMSEA=.059, p<.001). Next, reliability and validity tests were demonstrated. Cronbach’s alpha scores were calculated for each construct with items to check the reliability. The alpha coefficient for all composite variables and all of the composite reliability exceeded the threshold suggested by Bagozzi & Yi (1988). Furthermore, convergent validity and discriminant validity were addressed to assess construct validity.

Structural Model. In our second phase of the study, structural model was tested after the validation of CFA measurement model. After model improvements based on the factor loadings, the final model was re-specified based on the residuals and modification indices. Based on the model comparisons, we concluded that the final model had better explanatory power to test our assumption ($\chi^2$=790.01, df=519, CMIN/DF=1.522, GFI=.795, AGFI=.771, CFI=.884, RMSEA=.057, p<.001). Results of the SEM model are illustrated in Table 1. Indirect effects were also tested, and learning to service recovery performance was significant ($\beta=.003$, p<.01) as well as competence to service recovery performance ($\beta=.005$, p<.01). Moreover, self-efficacy had a significant indirect effect on customer satisfaction (n ($\beta=.02$, p<.01). Notable significant paths were error competence and learning from errors to self-efficacy. They both showed significant direct effects. Moreover, anticipation had significant indirect effect to service recovery performance, and error competence and learning from errors had significant indirect effect to service recovery performance and customer satisfaction. Further, the mediating role of self-efficacy was analyzed. When both the direct effects with and without the mediator were tested, they showed significant effect from error competence ($\beta=0.325$, p<.01) and learning from errors ($\beta=0.296$, p<.01). The results of the indirect effects also showed significance in learning (p<.05) and competence (p<.05). Therefore, it confirms that learning and competence are the major components that influence service recovery performance, and self-efficacy plays a full mediating role.
Table 1. Structural Equation Modeling Results: Path Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LE → SE</td>
<td>0.327</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>3.497</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM → SE</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>1.085</td>
<td>0.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC → SE</td>
<td>0.466</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>3.956</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TH → SE</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.292</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT → SE</td>
<td>-0.167</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>-1.731</td>
<td>0.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT → SE</td>
<td>-0.049</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>-0.443</td>
<td>0.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE → SRP</td>
<td>0.542</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>3.448</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT → SRP</td>
<td>-0.233</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>-1.851</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT → SRP</td>
<td>-0.124</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>-1.166</td>
<td>0.244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TH → SRP</td>
<td>-0.168</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>-0.909</td>
<td>0.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC → SRP</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.803</td>
<td>0.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM → SRP</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td>0.131</td>
<td>1.371</td>
<td>0.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LE → SRP</td>
<td>0.109</td>
<td>0.104</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE → CS</td>
<td>-0.294</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>-1.579</td>
<td>0.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LE → CS</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM → CS</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>-0.684</td>
<td>0.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC → CS</td>
<td>0.394</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>2.434</td>
<td>0.015**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TH → CS</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AT → CS</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.274</td>
<td>0.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT → CS</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.031*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRP → CS</td>
<td>0.624</td>
<td>0.083</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.002**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

IMPLICATIONS

This study validated error orientation questionnaire of Rybowski et al., (1999) and refined the scale so it could be utilized more adequately in the hospitality industry. Second part of the study revealed the relationship of self-efficacy, service recovery performance, and customer satisfaction. Out of six factors of error managing behavior (Rybowski et al., 1999), three interesting constructs were significantly affecting service recovery performance. Employees who are more engaged in learning about errors and who tend to have more competence in dealing with errors were likely to have more self-efficacy, ultimately relating to service recovery performance. Results from the mediation tests also revealed that there were partial significant mediating effects of self-efficacy between learning about errors, error competence, and service recovery performance. Service employees who are more open to their mistakes and take the opportunity of error as a source of learning had significant positive relationship with self-efficacy (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Raub & Liao, 2012). Not only for learning, competency to handle errors was a strong predictor of service recovery performance and self-efficacy. This indicates that competent and proactive behavior towards error allows employees to gain more self-efficacy, and leads to service recovery performance.

This study offers major contributions to the practitioners and academia: First, examining the validity and reliability of EOQ measurement in a hospitality setting will allow service managers to assess employees’ error orienting behavior more accurately. Second, the paper adds value by building on the error management theory. Not only the study introduces the concept of EOQ in hospitality, the research seeks to extend its value by connecting it to service recovery performance and customer satisfaction, considering the behavioral aspects of individuals. In sum, the validation of the scales and actively using them in hospitality settings will allow employees to behave less sensitively to errors, ultimately emphasizing the positive role of human errors.

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TOURISM AND COMMODIFICATION RELATIONSHIP IN THE GLOBALIZED WORLD: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL PROPOSAL

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INTRODUCTION

In the globalization process, increasing demand occurred in tourism mobility and structural changes of tourist profile lead differences in the cultural patterns of societies. It can be stated that the intensive interaction between hosts and tourists accelerates this cultural exchange particularly. 'Commodification' phenomenon resulted from the extensive consumption of cultural values is the subject of this research. The purpose of the study is to propose a conceptual model for explaining the relationship between tourism and commodification. In this context, the study starts with the different perspectives of globalization concept, once after, concepts of cultural homogenization and heterogenization -the cultural effects of globalization- are mentioned, and finally, by examining commodification as a result of all this process, its relation with tourism is discussed in a comparative perspective.

METHOD

Data for the study were drawn from the secondary sources in the literature and based on the relationship between tourism and commodification a conceptual model is proposed in this study under the related terms of literature.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Globalization removes not only economic, political and cultural barriers, but it also provides free-flow for mankind, goods, funds, knowledge, communication and lifestyles (Cohen, 2012). Giddens (1998) describes globalization as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa. According to Scholte (2007), local relations have entirely been replaced by global relations and as a result of this process cultural relations are no longer ingenuous. In this context, while most of the researchers claim that globalization brings out cultural homogeneity (Ger&Belk, 1998; Giddens, 1998; Wallerstein, 1998; Farquharson & Omori, 2009), the others argue culture's heterogenization owing to the globalization (Friedman, 1994; Robertson, 1994; King, 1995; Said, 1995; Hall, 1998; Berger, 2003). And while the consequence of homogenization is accepted as monoculturalism (Barber, 1995; Ritzer, 1998; Hay & Marsh, 2000) heterogenization is alleged to create cultural diffusion/diversification (Said, 1995; Iwabuchi, 2002; Tomlinson, 2004).

As the culture is a driving force that motivates tourists to travel to distant places and different times (Cohen, 1988; MacCannell, 1999), it is commonly staged to satisfy tourists so that creating an economic impact for host communities. It is accepted that marketing efforts, structural change and profiles of postmodern tourists convert cultural values into salable commodities in this globalization process (Frochot&Batat, 1970; Harvey, 1989; Mitchell, 2000; Su, 2011). Cohen (1988) defines commodification as the process by which things come to be evaluated primarily in terms of their exchange value, in a context of trade, thereby becoming goods and services.

There are in-depth discussions among scholars on the impacts of commodification. According to the admitted negative impacts of commodifica-
tion, first of all, it destructs the authenticity of cultural practices, and reduces their exchange values (Goulding, 2000; Halewood&Hannam, 2001; Kroshus Medina, 2003; Cole 2007). While some of the host communities adopt their culture’s commodification as a tourism product, rest of them resist against the commodification of their own culture so that not to reduce the value of it and as a result cultural conflicts are experienced (Mbaiwa, 2011). On the other hand various positive impacts of commodification have been noted (Cohen, 1988; Cole, 2007; Kroshus Medina, 2003). The preservation of host cultures and traditions is the leading positive impact. By giving an economic value, commodification motivates locals to revive, preserve and re-

confirm belief in tradition for future generations, and in that sense, it does not destroy but just changes and enriches the culture overtime (Cohen, 1988).

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL: TOURISM & COMMODIFICATION RELATION

Theoretical framework about the relationship between tourism and commodification reveals gaps. The submission of a new model proposal is to contribute to the understanding of tourism’s cultural effects and can be used for the typology of tourism and commodification relationship. The model results from the combination of the theoretical background of related literature.

![Diagram of Tourism & Commodification Relationship]

Figure 1. Proposed Model for Tourism&Commodification Relationship

CONCLUSION

Although it is generally accepted in the literature as cultural homogeneity turns out the monoculturalism and this also causes commodification of the culture, it is suggested in this model that not only homogeneity but also heterogeneity results in commodification. By means of mechanic and social reproduction -suggested by MacCannell- tourists duplicate cultural values and it turns into a commoditized outcome at the end. As a result, both of the processes ends with commodification. An example can be given to sum up the model; tourists who buy, keep or present monotype copies of souve-
nirs reflecting the culture of host community -but also that can be found everywhere- and on the contrary tourists who experience authentic and original goods and practices during their travel and afterwards to sustain this foreign culture on their own lives or share those experiences to their relatives and friends lead the commodification of culture by making mechanic and social reproduction of cultural values.

This conceptual study proposes a model for tourism and commodification relationship based on the existing theoretical background of literature. It is suggested for further studies to test this model proposal in applied studies.

REFERENCES


THE ROLE OF TRANSACTIONAL SATISFACTIONS AND OVERALL TRAVEL SATISFACTION ON TOURIST’S REVISIT INTENTION

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INTRODUCTION

Macau is a tourism city which collection of sightseeing, accommodation, shopping, entertainment in one, and the gaming industry is the pillar industry. But except the gaming, the comprehensive experience in the process of tourism travel is the main influence on Macau's overall satisfaction. In tourism industry, a large number of scholars was interested in the relationship between the customer overall satisfaction and their revisit intention(Barsky, 1992; Lee, Petrick, & Crompton, 2007). Over the past few years, the research on customer satisfaction are scattered in the above field, such as F&B service(Heung, 2002; Namkung & Jang, 2008), hotel service(T. Y. Choi & Chu, 2001; Ramanathan & Ramanathan, 2011).

The purpose of this study is to examine tourists' overall satisfaction and their revisit intention, their transactional satisfaction including F&B, accommodation, sightseeing, shopping and entertainment. We propose six hypotheses, and have two research objective, first, the transactional satisfaction has a positive impact on the customer overall satisfaction, second, the customer overall satisfaction has a positive impact on the tourism revisit intention. Therefore, our measurements result will provide better direction for improvement and development prospects for tourism industry and tourism services.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The relationship between Tourist Destination and satisfaction

The study of relationships between tourist destination and satisfaction became popular in the 1970s (Campón-Cerro, Baptista Alves, & Hernández-Mogollón, 2015). The Commission of the European Communities was defined the tourist destination is the main place of consumption of tourist services and the place of activity of tourist businesses, so the tourist destination should be regarded as the particular product and it can reflect the tourists overall satisfaction. Dwyer and Kim (2003) have some definitions on the current study, they proposed that a good destination should have ability to provide goods and services that perform better than other destinations, and this travel experience for visitors is very important (Dwyer & Kim, 2003). Meanwhile, a lot of attention in the study about the customer satisfaction because of it can influenced the customers behavior and their intention(Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000). According to Anderson, Fornell and Lehmann(1994), satisfaction is affected by perceived quality, the price (perceived value) and expectation(Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994). Therefore, the tourists satisfaction is very important for destination, it influence the destination selection, the consumption of products and services, and customer revisit intention. At the same time, the customer revisit intention is also dependent on the satisfaction of previous destination(Shahriar, 2012).

2.1 Customer Satisfaction

In tourism industry, visitors satisfaction is an important factor to research the destination attraction(Baker & Crompton, 2000), and from 1992, a large number of researchers have investigated the relationship between tourist satisfaction and revisit intention(Barsky, 1992). Based on the Oliver's (Oliver, 1993) and Spreng (Spreng, MacKenzie, & Olshavsky, 1996) they analyzed between attribute and overall satisfaction, and conclude that the overall satisfaction also contain the individual attribute. Oliver(Oliver, 1993) defined attribute satisfaction as "the consumer's subjective satisfaction judgment resulting from
observations of attribute performance", that means the overall satisfaction not only based on the individual satisfaction, overall experience is an very important element. (Petrick & Baekman, 2002). Next we will discuss the each part of the transactional.

2.2 Food & Beverage (F&B) Satisfaction

Nowadays, Food and beverage is a more essential factor in building a satisfied and returning customer base in the tourism industry. Some scholars pointed out that the evaluation of food quality applies to both food and beverages, and includes food such as the nature of the appearance, taste, cleanliness, etc. At the same time also should to pay attention to the varieties of F&B's safety, healthy, etc.(Wei & Huang, 2013). Thus, the F&B service should affect the customer satisfaction, so it is therefore, we hypothesised as:

Hypothesis 1: The satisfaction of F&B has a positive impact on the customer overall satisfaction.

2.3 Accommodation Satisfaction

A review of past literature reveals that in hospitality industry, service quality, customer satisfaction, corporate image, and customer loyalty is the main direction of travel research. And these factors that might give the hotel an advantage over its competitors in the accommodation industry (Shahin & Dabestani, 2010). Hence, service quality, customers' past experiences play a vital role in influencing the customer loyalty and satisfaction in accommodation industry(Liat, Mansori, & Huei, 2014). Since accommodation is a part of customer experience in the trip, therefore the accommodation service, cleanliness, comfortable and other factors may affect the level of transaction satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: The satisfaction of accommodation has a positive impact on the customer overall satisfaction.

2.4 Sightseeing Satisfaction

As we all know, sightseeing and tourism are intertwined, and recent survey found that among Americans sightseeing is ranked second outdoor activities in their vacation(Smith, 2014). People has the clear tendency to the different visual landscape, compared with the urban, people prefer the natural landscapes, meanwhile more rich biological diversity ,more attractive to tourists. From the specific landscape elements, the forest , wilderness, cliffs and rocks are all positive factors for the landscape quality evaluation(Shoucheng, Fenghua, Xueqing, & Renjie, 2014). So our questionnaire will ask visitors satisfaction to historic sites, natural attractions, cultural sites and scenic spots of the reasonableness of the price in Macau.

Hypothesis 3: The satisfaction of sightseeing has a positive impact on the customer overall satisfaction.

2.5 Shopping Satisfaction

Tourist travel besides the relaxation, visiting friends and relatives and sightseeing, past decades of literature point out that shopping is one of the most important travel activities enjoyed by tourists. (W. Choi, Chan, & Wu, 1999). Tourism shopping behavior was defined as the purchase behavior at their destination except food and beverage(Jansen-Verbeke, 1998). Even though the shopping is not the main purposes for tourist during the trip, it still influence the customer overall satisfaction of destination(Tosun, Temizkan, Timothy, & Fyall, 2007). So the shopping is a part of entertainment.

Hypothesis 4: The satisfaction of shopping has a positive impact on the customer overall satisfaction.

2.6 Entertainment Satisfaction

Entertainment has a long history, it starts from the UK domestic seaside holidays, and drawing people far from the dreary urban life. Also travellers are more likely to choose a different leisure life(H. L. Hughes & Allen, 2010). Today's urban tourism makes the entertainment including more cultural connotation such as heritage, visual, performing arts and so on(McKercher, Cros, & McKercher, 2002; Richards, Cooper, & Lockwood, 1994). Maybe the entertainment will divide the tourists into different purpose to the destination: like the 'specific cultural tourist'(Richards et al., 1994), the 'purposeful cultural tourist'(McKercher et al., 2002) or the 'arts-core tourist'(H. Hughes, 2013). This study focus on one of the customer satisfaction: entertainment. Although the contents of entertainment contained very complicated, our study in this paper's object is Macau tourists, so we investigation will focus on the tourist satisfaction including the cultural, historical landscapes, festivals, outdoor leisure activ-
Hypothesis 5: The satisfaction of entertainment has a positive impact on the customer overall satisfaction.

2.7 Revisit Intention

Behavioral intention and revisit intention have been studied widely during the past decade. Some authors noted that it is necessary to understanding the visitors revisit intention because the revisit customer is more important than first visitation, they will produce positive word-of-mouth recommendations (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Revisit intention is defined as the behavior that means the tourist will repeat an activity or to revisit a facility/destination (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Since the destination is a place that provides integrated tourism services to its visitors, then the overall satisfaction will influence tourists' revisit intention to the destination.

Hypothesis 6: The satisfaction of overall satisfaction has a positive impact on the customer revisit intention.

A PROPOSED HYPOTHETICAL MODEL

After review the literature of overall satisfaction, Food & Beverage (F&B) satisfaction, accommodation satisfaction, sightseeing satisfaction, shopping satisfaction, entertainment satisfaction and revisit intention in the last part, the purpose of this study is to investigate the customer overall satisfaction of these elements on customer revisit intention to destination.

The propose relations among these elements analyzed are shown in Figure 1 below.

DISCUSSION

This paper examines the tourists overall satisfaction and tourists revisit intention. The hypothetical model is developed for the further research on tourists visiting Macau. As an international tourism city, Macau has been attracting the visitors all over the world, a wild range of
entertainment and leisure activities, delicious food, well-developed hotel industry and natural landscape are a great attraction for tourists. So our hypothetical model may have to enriched, future quantitative research will be performed to evaluate the validity and reliability of this model. In addition, this paper identified dimension of transactional about quality of service, price, environmental and other factors impression, then leads to visitor satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Our conclusion should be the higher tourists overall satisfaction is, the stronger revisit intention they are.

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TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE HOSTS AFFECTING THE SATISFACTION OF THE CHINESE TOURISTS VISITING THAILAND

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INTRODUCTION

In 1997, the Chinese government decided to allow the citizens to travel at their own expenses. As a result new destinations for outbound tourism were approved. By December 31st of 2004, 63 countries were on the ADS countries list. Thailand was the third country approved by the Chinese government in 1988, after Hong Kong and Macau, which received this status in 1983. Thailand ranked 5th on the top 25 outbound destinations of Chinese people in 2012. In that year 2.24 million Chinese tourists visited Thailand. In 2013, China’s outbound tourism market grew rapidly. In this year 98.19 million Chinese traveled abroad, which consolidated the status of world’s largest outbound tourism market and outbound tourism spender. Thailand moved to the 4th rank of the top 25 outbound destination list in 2013 with 4.01 million arrivals. In 2014, Thailand welcomed 4.63 million Chinese tourists, China has become the largest market for Thailand since 2012, surpassing Malaysia, which had been the largest market for many years. This research project was launched in 2015. The purposes of which were to investigate the push factor motivations of the Chinese tourists visiting Thailand. Another purpose was to find out the pull motivation factors that attracted the Chinese tourist market, applying the push and pull motivation theory proposed by Western scholars. As Thailand has been ranked as one of the top 5 popular destinations since 2012, another aim of this research project was to examine the attitudes of Chinese tourists towards Thai people and the country. The fourth objective of this research was to find out what factors were significant to the satisfaction of the Chinese tourists towards their holiday experience in Thailand. The research results will enable us to improve the weakness that Thai tourism industry may have and to keep up with the good work that they have done to better satisfy the Chinese tourists’ needs so that they will spread good word-of-mouth to others.

Questionnaires in Chinese were developed as research tools. The questionnaire contained sections on the demographic profile, the travel behavior, the push and pull motivation, the tourists’ attitudes to Thai people and Thailand, and three questions to measure the level of satisfaction and the likeliness of their spreading good word-of-mouth to others. The items to measure the push and pull factor motivations were developed from existing literature on tourist/travel motivations developed by Western scholars, as well as research findings published or disseminated online. Over fifty copies of the questionnaires were pre-tested on the Chinese tourists in Bangkok and were improved before they were used on the actual Chinese samples. Convenience and purposive sampling techniques were employed. Data were collected from the Chinese tourists traveling in Bangkok, Pattaya, Phuket and Chiang Mai during January to March 2015. Quantitative data analysis was carried out using SPSS. A total of 621 copies of questionnaires were selected and analyzed. The factor analysis revealed five push factor motivations, and four pull factor motivations. The Chinese tourists visiting Thailand were pushed by 1) fulfillment/prestige motivation 2) motivation to experience new culture 3) emotional motivation 4) escape/relaxation motivation, and 5) motivation to enhance family relationship. With regard to the pull factor motivation, the finding revealed 4 pull factors motivations: 1) tourism amenities, convenience and local people 2) varieties of attraction and activities 3) price and safety factors, and 4) entertainment and induced image. With regard to the attitudes towards Thailand the Chinese visitors strongly agreed that Thailand is worth visiting, which indicated a very
positive attitude towards Thailand. In terms of attitudes towards Thai people the Chinese visitors agreed that Thai people were polite to them, that Thai people could accept them as they were, that Thai people were helpful and tried to understand them. They also agreed that they felt at home and welcomed. In conclusion, the Chinese visitors by average expressed positive attitudes towards Thailand and Thai hosts. In order to examine the impacts of the push-factor and pull-factor motivations on the attitudes on the Chinese tourists towards Thailand and Thai hosts, multiple regression analysis was employed. The $R^2$ was .439 suggesting that approximately 44 percent of the variation of the Chinese tourists’ attitudes to Thailand and Thai hosts was explained by the five push factors and four pull factors. Results of the multiple regression analysis revealed that 6 motivation factors remained significant in the equation with a different value of the beta coefficients, thus contributing different weights to the variance in tourists’ attitudes. In order of importance, the main motivation factors affecting Chinese tourists’ attitudes to Thailand and Thai hosts were: tourism amenities/ convenience and local people; a desire to experience new culture; Thailand’s varieties of attractions; entertainment; a desire to escape and relax; the price factors. In order to meet the 4th objective of the research, another multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine the influences of the motivation factors and the attitudes on the overall satisfaction of the Chinese tourists. The results of the analysis revealed four significant factors on the overall satisfaction of the tourists. The $R^2$ was .197, meaning that approximately 20 percent of the variation of the Chinese tourists’ overall satisfaction was explained by the push and pull motivation factors and the attitudes toward Thailand and Thai hosts. In order of importance, the main factors affecting Chinese tourists’ overall satisfaction were; attitudes to Thailand and Thai hosts; tourism amenities; convenience and local people; a desire to experience new culture and a desire for rest and relaxation.

**Keywords:**
push factor motivation; pull factor motivation; attitude to Thailand and Thai hosts; overall satisfaction; Chinese tourist
THE INFLUENCE OF BEGGING ON INBOUND INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS IN CHINA

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Begging is an activity that is sometimes seen in popular tourism areas and in some destinations associated with criminal activity or in other cases classed as a criminal activity. Surprisingly, the tourism literature has largely avoided examining this issue. The aim of this study was to examine the reaction of international tourists to encounters with beggars in China with a particular emphasis on the impact that an encounter with beggars could have on trip satisfaction. Findings of the research: the largest group of beggars reported by respondents were older people; older adult beggars were are still the most common types of beggars encountered by respondents; (2) just under a third of respondents reported giving money but refusing further communication with beggars while a slightly small percentage of respondents simply ignored beggars and; begging did not have a significant impact on overall trip satisfaction.

**Keywords:** interaction, beggars, international tourists, China
PRINCIPLES OF ACCOUNTING: A DIRTY WORD AMONG HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM STUDENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Understanding the nature of students’ learning experiences is an important means of improving the quality of students’ learning outcomes and the teaching environment. Through an awareness of students’ perceptions, educators can understand ‘what students conceive learning to be, how they conceive the learning task, or how they approach learning’ (Abraham, 2006:9), as well as possible determinants of academic success (Guney, 2009). Existing research explores students’ learning experiences in overall accounting degrees (e.g. Mladenovic, 2000), accounting units in non-specific business degrees (e.g. Abraham, 2006; Hossain, Heagy & Mitra, 2008; Guney, 2009) and the comparison of perceptions by accounting specific and non-specific students (Geiger & Ogilby, 2000). For non-specialist students, accounting units aim to address how financial information and introductory accounting tools can be used to inform managerial decision-making (Hossain et al., 2008), with accounting skills and related graduate outcomes considered crucial for tertiary-educated hospitality managers (Damitio & Schmadigall, 1991). Nonetheless, the perceptions of hospitality students’ studying accounting in a non-accounting degree have been neglected in hospitality education literature. This shortage of literature has implications for educating students enrolled in a non-accounting degree, as they have been identified to typically perform poorly in accounting based subjects (Wooten, 1998).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The hotel industry is changing rapidly and the key business competencies of hotel employees are constantly tested to address the dynamic industry. The understanding of financial knowledge by hotel managers is evidently important as they are more accountable for general business management aspects that increase efficiency and profitability (Scapens & Jayazeri, 2003). More broadly, financial skills enable hotel managers to be more commercial in their approach to business operations and strategy (Burgess, 2007). As a result, financial skills such as cost control, budgeting and accounting, financial analysis and resource utilization are increasingly important for hospitality graduates (Gibson, 2004), for a career as a hotel controller or as managers within the hotel unit (Burgess, 2007)

However, the perceptions about the importance of studying accounting has been rather negative among hospitality students in particular. For example, Chen et al. (2013) examined the learning attitude of hospitality management students in accounting classes in Taiwan. Their findings suggest although hospitality students believe accounting is ‘a subject worth studying’, they face concerns with their learning performance due to high levels of anxiety and are not motivated to prepare for class or employ positive study habits. Other studies more broadly examine hospitality students’ learning preferences and attitudes, with findings suggesting hospitality students prefer active and practical learning rather than abstract or reflecting learning (e.g. Lashley & Barron, 2002). Other studies focusing on non-accounting major students have also explored this research area. In the exploration of student perceptions of accounting, studies have considered student attitudes to introductory accounting units (e.g. Hossain et al., 2008; Mladenovic, 2000), students’ approaches to learning (e.g. Abraham, 2006) and students’ learning outcomes related to teaching models (e.g. Dowling, Godfrey & Gyles, 2003). For example, introductory accounting students have been identified to initiate their studies with negative and stereotypical attitudes, including perceptions that accounting is mechanical with re-
petitive ‘number crunching’ (Mladenovic, 2000), and difficult due to fears of numeracy (Chase, 1998). Although Hossain et al., (2008:569) found all non-accounting students to perceive managerial accounting as ‘interesting’ with ‘real-world application’, effective relationships between students and instructors were instrumental in building positive perceptions of accounting education overall. Thus, it is not surprising that hospitality students prefer to work in more popular hospitality career choices in departments such as Sales & marketing and Human Resources (Jenkins, 2001).

The paper employs an established human decision making theory, Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to examine the different variables that influence students’ attitudes and barriers towards studying accounting. The TPB is a rational decision making model used to examine the anticipation of behaviour from intentions of an individual (Ajzen, 1991). There are three key independent variables used in the prediction: 1) people’s attitudes (Att) towards a particular behaviour; 2) perception of others’ influence (subjective norm - SN) as to whether they would approve or disapprove of the performance of a particular behaviour; and 3) perceived behavioural control (PBC) of an individual’s perceived ease or difficulty in performing a particular behaviour. These three key determinants can be useful for understanding motivational factors towards studying principles of accounting.

METHODOLOGY

This study adopted the elicitation technique using the TPB variables (Goh, 2009; 2010). The objective was to gather information regarding the research problem of hospitality students’ attitudes, key social groups and perceived difficulties toward studying accounting. Respondents (n=62) consisted of hospitality students enrolled in Principles of Accounting at a Private Hotel Management School in Australia were chosen through a convenience sampling method which gave way for snowball sampling method. Personal short interviews were used as the primary data collection method. Students were informed that the interviews were to be recorded and used solely for research purpose. Each interview session lasted between 10 – 15 mins. In order to ensure anonymity, participants were told to not mention their names and could leave if they felt uncomfortable about the topic at any point of the interview. Content analysis was used to analyze the data collected from the interviews as recommended by Ajzen (1991) and categorized into groups of similar patterns. This data was organized and coded into categories and a frequency analysis was conducted by taking into consideration the number of times a specific code appeared in the data so that the distribution of the most important items will be identified (Goh & Ritchie, 2011).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Sixteen attitudes were elicited. The most common positive attitude identified by students is that accounting is an interesting subject, followed by the fun factor. As younger student demographics see the fun factor as an important aspect of their learning, it is important for Lecturers to integrate fun and interesting tutorial activities in their lesson plans. Another positive attitude identified was that studying accounting has high relevancy towards their future career. On the other hand, the most mentioned negative characteristic of studying accounting is the confusing and difficult content to grasp and understand. Students also mentioned that accounting is a tedious and repetitive unit, which makes it difficult to keep up with all the new complex terminologies.

With regards to subjective norms, classmates was identified as the most influential social group. Students mentioned that classmates often encouraged each other to work hard and more importantly being able to explain accounting ambiguity at a student level for easier understanding. Students also mentioned the faculty members as an important reference group as he/she is the key driver of the unit and an interesting Lecturer can motivate students to be enthusiastic about studying accounting. Our results also reported an interesting finding where students mentioned that industry professionals invited to school as guest speakers also served as a key social group for them given the practicality and reality of accounting knowledge in future employments.

The third factor of behavioral intention is perceived behavioral control. The top perceived diffi-
difficulty about studying accounting is the complexity of jargons and terminologies. Students often stated that accounting is like learning a new language and the complexity of trying to distinguish all the jargons and terminology. The challenges in application was another difficulty where students perceived the struggle to apply the concepts into the practical environment. More often than not, students found it difficult to see the linkage between accounting concepts and actually putting it into practice. The lack of prior accounting studies in high school and numeracy skills were also identified as key barriers to studying accounting. Some statements made by students were: “I am not really good at numbers in general” and “I was thrown into the deep end without any knowledge of accounting”. Other factors elicited by the interview were the lack of motivation and focus, fast pace of unit, insufficient resources for self-testing, and night classes.

CONCLUSION

This paper has addressed a critical research gap in the field of tourism and hospitality education by exploring tourism and hospitality students’ perceptions towards studying principles of accounting. By employing the TPB as a guide in this research, stakeholders such as educational institutions and companies can identify the areas that they need to focus on in order to address their challenges when it comes to motivating and improving the learning experience in the accounting subject. More importantly, educators can gain insight into the ways students approach their studies and the ways in which students learn, as well as perceived motivating and deterring factors of academic performance in Accounting. This insight can provide a guide to teaching strategies needed to improve learning in accounting units, particularly concerning non-specialist students studying accounting modules (Abraham, 2006) and students enrolled in a hospitality business degree. Based on this exploratory paper, further research will be conducted through quantitative statistical tools to test the significance of these motivating factors before these motivations can be generalized across universities.

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THEORY AND PRACTICE GAP USING THE COMPETENCIES SET BY TECHNICAL AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY (TESDA) AS A BASIS FOR CURRICULUM REVISION

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INTRODUCTION

Many employers in the tour and travel agency have complained repeatedly that the tourism professionals are not prepared for the workplace due to low competence level especially of the fresh graduates.

Human resource plays an important role in a tour and travel agency as the industry is service intensive in nature. It has already led to many problematic issues related to increase investment for training and development of the incumbents by the industry people to reduce the competency gap. A competency gap refers to the difference between the competency and skills of the tourism graduates against the competency and skills needed by the industry for it to successfully implement its strategies and attain its objectives.

The employers also have called on the Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) that offer a tourism academic program to produce more employable graduates by providing them with transferable skills that can be taken into the workplace (Barrie, 2006; Kember and Leung, 2005; Smith et al, 2007).

It is along this line of thinking that the study is conducted in order to determine whether the competency level of the tourism graduates match the competency level needed by a tour and travel agency. Once a gap exists, the study attempts to propose possible solutions through Outcomes-Based Teaching and Learning (OBTL) to fill it up.

METHOD

The study utilized a descriptive survey design, because it was the most appropriate method to describe the competency gap between the competency level of the tourism fresh graduates against the needs of a tour and travel agency. Specifically, it described the following: the competence level of the tourism fresh graduates; whether the competence level of the tourism fresh graduates match the competency level needed by a tour and travel agency; the difference between the competence level of tourism fresh
graduates and the needs of a tour and travel agency; and finally it described OBTL in the design and development of the curriculum to address the competency gap between the competency level of graduates and the needs of a tour and travel agency. The study used both quantitative and qualitative analysis to describe the data of the study.

The methods of collecting the data used by the study to describe the competency gap were the following: Normative survey, interview schedule, and documentary analysis.

The normative survey questionnaire for tourism graduates and the managers and supervisors in a tour and travel agency were the same. It is based on TESDA Standards for National Competency (NC) 2 for Travel Services.

The questionnaire is divided into three sections, namely: Basic Competencies, Common Competencies, and Core Competencies. The Basic Competencies are divided into two (2) sub-sections namely: Unit of competency element 1: Participate in workplace communication and work in team environment, and unit of competency element 2: Practice career professionalism. The Common Competencies are divided into three (3) subsections namely: Unit of competency element 1: Develop and update industry knowledge; Unit of competency element 2: Perform computer operations; and unit of competency element 3: Provide effective customer service. The Core Competencies are divided into three (3) subsections namely: Unit of Competency Element 1: Book travel-related reservation; Unit of competency element 2: Issue tickets and multi-purpose document (MPD); and unit of competency element 3: Administer billing and settlement plan.

It also used a 5 point-Likert scale (Strongly Agree as 5 to Strongly Disagree as 1) to measure the self-evaluation of the tourism fresh graduates about their competency level, and the observation of the managers and supervisors about the competency level of the tourism graduates.

The second research instrument was the interview schedule. The interview schedule was validated based on the answers of the staff with their competencies that is observed by their managers or supervisor. The interview schedule was used to have an in-depth understanding of the needs of the tourism industry from the competency level of tourism graduates.

The study involved selected tourism fresh graduates and managers and supervisors of concerned tour and travel agencies in Manila area. The sample group that served as the respondents of the study was chosen through random and purposive sampling.

In the National Capital Region, the total number of DOT accredited tour and travel agencies is 223 (DOT Website). Out of 223 accredited tour and travel agencies, the top agencies based on their tourist arrivals are the following: Rajah Tours Corporation, Southeast Travel Corporation, and Baron Travel and Tours Corporation.

Finally, the content or documentary analysis was used, because some of the data needed by the study are only available from the materials that are already available and existing.

The statistical analysis of the study used the frequency, weighted mean, and standard deviation to present and analyze the data that describe the competence level of tourism graduates and the perception of the managers and supervisors about the competence level of tourism graduates as observed in their area of work in the tourism establishment using the statistical analysis software called Statistical Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Based on the overall mean of the self-evaluation of the tourism graduates and the perception of the tourism managers and supervisors, the t-test was used to describe the difference between the two means at 0.05 level of significance.

**FINDINGS**

For the self-evaluation of the employees that they possess and acquire at the highest competency level of the basic competencies at 4.52, next is the common competencies at 4.51 and the least observed are the core values at 4.19. In summary, an overall mean of 4.41.
For the observation of the managers and supervisors they observed the highest competency level of core competencies at 4.40, next is the common competencies at 4.22, and the least observed is the basic competencies at 4.19. The findings have an overall mean of 4.24.

The interview conducted by the researcher that even though there is no significant difference between the self-evaluation of the tourism graduate compare to the observation of their manager or supervisor about their skill still, there are areas that needs to be checked because it might be the start of a problem.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The respondents strongly agree that they can participate in workplace communication and work in team environment with a mean of 4.48, and they can also practice career professionalism with a mean of 4.55 (see Appendix A).

The tourism professionals are expected to possess the Basic Competencies after graduating in order to help the tourism industry attain its desired objectives. As Bath et al (2004) said, competencies such as soft skills, behavioral skills, generic attributes, are necessary in any field of work and should be an important element in undergraduate programs and are the responsibility of higher education to incorporate them as part of teaching and learning (Hind et al., 2007).

Likewise, the data in Appendix A shows that the tourism managers and supervisors strongly agree that tourism graduates demonstrated in their work the Basic Competencies according to the TESDA standard of Tour and Travel Operations and Tourism Promotions with an overall mean of 4.19. It shows the observation of tourism managers and supervisors about the competency level of tourism graduates based on their Basic Competencies.

Appendix A shows that the managers and supervisors strongly agree that the tourism fresh graduates participate in workplace and work in team environment with a mean of 4.30, and they also agree that they practice career professionalism with a mean of 4.07.

The latter data show that the respondents only agree that tourism graduates maintain intra-and interpersonal relationships in the course of managing oneself; pursue personal growth and work plans towards improving the qualifications set for the profession; utilize resources efficiently and effectively to manage work priorities and commitments; and renew licenses or certifications relevant to his job or career.

The data is contradictory to the self-evaluation of the graduates wherein they claim that they strongly agree that they practice career professionalism.

Appendix B shows that the graduates strongly agree that they have an updated knowledge about the tourism industry with a mean of 4.42, and knowledge of computer operations with a mean of 4.67, and know customer service with a mean of 4.43.

A tourism graduate must fully understand the value of customer service in relation to the tourism industry. It is the quality of service that the customers or guests had experienced that is why they continue to patronize a tourism product.

Quality human resource plays a dominant role in the success of tourism enterprise as the industry being service-intensive in nature. Gupta (2011) asserted that competency gap is responsible for poor quality human resource. The poor quality human resource gives poor image to the tourism products as the people rendering services are considered the part of the products under the inseparability characteristic of services.

The data show that the tourism managers and supervisors strongly agree that the tourism graduates demonstrate the Common Competencies in their work based on TESDA standards of Tour and Travel Operations and Tourism Promotions with an overall mean of 4.42. Appendix B shows the perception of the tourism managers and supervisors about the competence level of tourism graduates based on their Common Competencies.

Specifically, the table shows that the managers and supervisors strongly agree that the tourism graduates have developed and updated industry knowledge with a mean of 4.32; they also strongly agree that the graduates know computer operations
with a mean of 4.38; and finally, they strongly agree that the graduates know customer service with a mean of 4.55.

However, in the area of development and updating of industry knowledge, the respondents only agree that the graduates can identify and access correctly sources of information in the industry, and use informal and/or formal research to update his general knowledge about the industry.

This observation also contradicts the claim of the fresh graduates that they strongly agree that they have acquired the said specific skills in the development and upgrading of industry knowledge.

The respondents strongly agree that they possess the skill on travel related reservations with a mean of 4.43, and they can issue tickets and multi-purpose document with a mean of 4.34 as shown in Appendix C.

Specifically, the table shows that the managers and supervisors strongly agreed that the tourism graduates possess the competencies on travel related reservations with a mean of 4.46; they also strongly agree that the graduates possess the competencies for issuing tickets and multiple documents with a mean of 4.40; and finally, they strongly agree that the graduates possess the competencies to administer billing and settlement plan with a mean of 4.33.

The fresh graduates only agree that they can administer Billing and Settlement Plan with a mean of 3.79. The latter means that the respondents need more training in the preparation of the correct input rates and currency conversion so that an accurate statement of account will be billed to the clients and accurate payments will be received by the establishment.

However, in the area of issuing tickets and multi-purpose documents, the managers and supervisors only agree that the graduates can calculate total cost of travel requirements based on updated International rates; In the area of administering billing and settlement plan, the respondents only agree also that the graduates can compile information and documents required for Billing Statement Plans (BSP) reports at the appropriate time.

The data in the area of issuing tickets and multi-purpose documents confirm the self-evaluation of graduating students. It means that graduates and the managers and supervisors both only agree that the graduates can calculate total cost of travel requirements based on updated International rates.

This competency is important to a tourism establishment, because it has multiple transactions every day and the management cannot monitor every single transaction of the whole operation. It has to depend on the individual skills of its staff to prepare the documents or endorse relevant information to the right people to ensure that the task is done that would merit customer satisfaction.

However, in the area of administering billing and settlement plan, the self-evaluation of the graduates and the observation of the managers and supervisors contradict each other. While the graduates rate their competencies and skills as agreeable, the managers and supervisors rate the graduates skills and competencies as strongly agreeable.

According to Claravall (2013), a tourism graduate who seeks employment in a tour & travel agency should be familiar with its three (3) principal activities namely: 1) Administration, 2) Marketing & Sales, and 3) Operations. The latter is the core of a tour & travel agency business. It is primarily engaged in the efficient and effective delivery of the agency’s services as an intermediary or as agents of travel suppliers. Hence, it is not enough that a tourism graduate, who seeks employment in a tour & travel agency, know only something about his work. He must also have the skills to do what he knows in order to finish the assigned tasks to him with very little supervision at a limited time.

In relation to this, Barrie (2006) commented that the employers of the tourism industry have indicated that the tourism students or professionals are often not prepared for the workplace and call on universities to produce more employable graduates.

The same is asked by Kember and Leung (2005) when they said that the universities should provide transferable skills that can be taken into the workplace.

Hind et al. (2007) and Maherand Graves
(2007) furthermore suggested that by improving and developing their (tourism graduates) competencies such as interpersonal skills, teamwork, communication, and problem solving skills, value will be added to their intellectual capabilities making them more employable.

Finally, the data show that the managers and supervisors strongly agree that they observe tourism graduates demonstrate the Core Competencies in their work based on TESDA standards of Tour and Travel Operations and Tourism Promotions with an overall mean of 4.40. Appendix C shows the perception of the tourism managers and supervisors about the competency level of tourism graduates based on their Core Competencies.

As to the difference between the observation of the graduates and the managers and supervisors, based on the overall mean on the self-evaluated competence level of tourism graduates and the perception of tourism managers and supervisors, the p-value of 0.937 is greater than the 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the difference between the skills of the tourism graduates and the skills needed by the tourism industry is not significant, and the study rejects the null hypothesis that states that there is a significant difference between the skills of tourism graduates and the skills needed by the tourism industry in the Philippines. Appendix D shows the degree of difference between the skills of tourism graduates and the skills needed the tourism industry.

CONCLUSION

Majority of the fresh graduates responded that they have a high range of leadership skills in terms of administrative.

As to comparison of self-evaluation of the tourism graduate employee and their managers or supervisors, there is no significant difference in the skills they have both observed.

The tourism program of the university is effective that the graduates are able to transfer their competencies to their work place.

Suggestions for curriculum enhancement: Results of the data on the Basic and Core competencies and the result of the interview must be considered in syllabi enhancement of the Tourism Program syllabi.

The syllabi that need to be enhanced in Basic Competencies of tourism students are in Communication Arts and Principles of Tourism Management; In Common Competencies, the syllabi that need to be enhanced are the Computer Concepts and Society, World Tourism, and Information Technology in Tourism; and in Core Competencies, the syllabi that need to be enhanced are Principles of Economics w/ Taxation & Agrarian Reform, Business Math, and Principles of Marketing.

Following the mandate of CHED to use OBE, a proposal of transforming a sample syllabi in OBTL form.

The proposed enhancement plan is anchored on Outcome-Based Education (OBE) approach which is based on the twin principles of constructivism in learning and alignment in the design of teaching and assignment. The OBE learning activities addressed in the intended outcomes were mirrored both in the teaching/learning activities the students undertook and in the assessment tasks.

Specifically, the syllabi enhancement plan will adopt the following strategies:

1. Focus on the demonstration of students’ learning that occurred after a significant set of learning experiences in the Tourism Program (Fauouzi et al., 2003, p. 205). Learning outcomes are the observable and measurable performance of the tourism students.

2. Balance the number of hours on lecture and laboratory in the teaching and learning activities to allow the students to validate the theories acquired in real life situation in the industry through constant negotiation.

Constructivism assumes that tourism learning is an active, contextualized process of constructing knowledge rather than acquiring it. Knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences and hypothesis of the environment in the airline, hotels, travel & tour agency, restaurants, and tourist destinations.

Tourism students continuously test this hy-
hypothesis through social negotiation. Each person has a different interpretation and construction of knowledge process. The student brings past experiences and cultural factors to a situation (Vygotsky, Piaget, Dewey, Vico, Rorty, and Bruner).

3. Focus the teaching and learning activities based on the specific purpose of the subject such as English for Specific Purpose (ESP) in Tourism or Business Math for Specific Purpose in Tourism;

4. The portfolio assessment required items that addressed each Intended Learning Outcome (ILO), the highest level having to do with how students’ tourism work had changed as a result of being informed by theory. The students were to decide on the evidence for their achievement of the ILOs in the form of items for their portfolio and so explain why they thought the portfolio as a whole meet the ILOs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the conclusions drawn from the study, the following are hereby recommended:

1. The students of BS Tourism Management program should have more industry exposure than clerical work so that they can have extensive knowledge about how the industry works and eventually they can apply their learning in an actual job scenario;

2. Suggest a course syllabi based on OBTL Format, as this is seen to aid in achieving the desired competency for the specific tourism course work.

3. The tourism program of the research locale shall be retained but with enhanced course syllabi.

4. Present the results of the study to the administrators of different institutions and the institution where this study was conducted into for considerations, and adaptation and transformation of syllabi.

REFERENCES


Tovey, J. (2001). Building connections between industry and university: Implementing an internship program at a regional university. Technical Communication Quarterly, 10(2), 225–240.


APPENDIX A

Observation of the Students and Industry (Tourism Managers and Supervisors) about the Competency Level of Tourism Graduates Based on the TESDA Travel Services’ Basic Competencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Competencies</th>
<th>Graduates’ Evaluation</th>
<th>Industry (Managers and Supervisors) Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WM</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Participate in workplace communication and work in team environment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 I can obtain and convey specific and relevant information from appropriate sources.</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 I can perform appropriate and effective non-verbal communication.</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 I can record standard workplace forms and documents.</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 I can use basic mathematical processes that are used for routine calculations.</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 I can complete report requirements according to organizational guidelines.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Practice career professionalism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 I am committed to the organization and its goals as demonstrated in the performance of my duties.</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 I can maintain intra- and inter-personal relationships in the course of managing myself.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 I have work plans to pursue personal growth towards improving the qualifications set for my profession.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 I utilize resources efficiently and effectively to manage my work priorities and commitments.</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 I obtain and renew licenses and/or certifications relevant to my job or career.</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend of Verbal Interpretation (VI) based on Weighted Mean (WM): 1.00-1.80 Strongly Disagree (SD), 1.81-2.60 Disagree (D), 2.61-3.40 Neutral (N) 3.41-4.20 Agree (A), 4.21-5.00 Strongly Agree (SA)

APPENDIX B

Observation of the Students and Industry (Tourism Managers and Supervisors) about the Competency Level of Tourism Graduates Based on the TESDA Travel Services’ Common Competencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Common Competencies</th>
<th>Graduates’ Evaluation</th>
<th>Industry (Managers and Supervisors) Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WM</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Develop and update industry knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 I can identify and access correctly sources of information in the industry.</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 I obtain information that can help me perform my job effectively.</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 I can apply correctly the information from the industry to my day-to-day activities in work.</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 I can use informal and/or formal research to update my general knowledge about the industry.</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 I can share updated knowledge with customers and</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Common Competencies</td>
<td>Graduates’ Evaluation</td>
<td>Industry (Managers and Supervisors) Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WM</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colleagues as appropriate and incorporated to my day-to-day working activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Operate computers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 I can enter data in the computer using appropriate program/application in accordance with the company procedures</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 I can check and save accuracy of information in accordance with standard operating procedures.</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Provide customer service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 I greet the guests in line with the company procedure.</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 I can apply appropriate verbal and non-verbal communications to a given situation.</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 I always demonstrate sensitivity to cultural and social differences.</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 I use appropriate inter-personal skills to ensure that the needs of the customers are accurately identified.</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 I take possible opportunity to enhance the quality of service and products.</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td>4.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend of Verbal Interpretation (VI) based on Weighted Mean (WM): 1.00-1.80 Strongly Disagree (SD), 1.81-2.60 Disagree (D), 2.61-3.40 Neutral (N) 3.41-4.20 Agree (A), 4.21-5.00 Strongly Agree (SA)

APPENDIX C,1

Observation of the Students and Industry (Tourism Managers and Supervisors) about the Competency Level of Tourism Graduates Based on the TESDA Travel Services’ Core Competencies 1 -2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Competencies</th>
<th>Graduates’ Evaluation</th>
<th>Industry (Managers and Supervisors) Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WM</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Perform travel-related reservations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 I can identify the services of the suppliers to be book according to the customer’s requirements and requests.</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 I can identify and confirm details of specific products and services which have been sold to the customer.</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 I can keep records of all bookings made including requests and confirmations then file it in accordance with the company procedures.</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 I can monitor files to ensure that all confirmations have been received and follow-up pending bookings/reservations.</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 I can finalize customer’s final details and requirements with suppliers in accordance with the standard operating enterprise procedures.</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Issue tickets and multi-purpose document</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 I can validate travel data with clients and any</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX C.2

Observation of the Students and Industry (Tourism Managers and Supervisors) about the Competency Level of Tourism Graduates Based on the TESDA Travel Services’ Core Competency 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Competencies</th>
<th>Graduates’ Evaluation</th>
<th>Industry (Managers and Supervisors) Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WM</td>
<td>VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other travel related information in accordance with the company procedures.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 I can calculate total cost of travel requirements based on updated International rates.</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 I can input information through automated system such as Computer Reservation System (CRS), etc.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 I can determine all travel rules and travel related services and documents in accordance with supplier and company procedures.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 I can obtain schedule of fare / fees from airlines and other suppliers</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend of Verbal Interpretation (VI) based on Weighted Mean (WM): 1.00-1.80 Strongly Disagree (SD), 1.81-2.60 Disagree (D), 2.61-3.40 Neutral (N) 3.41-4.20 Agree (A), 4.21-5.00 Strongly Agree (SA)

### APPENDIX D

Difference Between the Skills of Tourism Graduates and the Skills Needed by the Tour and Travel Agencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t-test Value</th>
<th>Degrees of Freedom</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>0.937</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p-value < 0.05 significant
THE OPPORTUNITIES AND EFFECTS OF IT-BASED KNOWLEDGE AS BASIS FOR ENHANCED CURRICULUM IN TOURISM PROGRAM

Joanne Lobrino
Bernadeth Gabor
Anne Regina Lim
Bataan Peninsula State University

INTRODUCTION

Today, City of Balanga is also recognized as HIGH-TECH City because of its many features like free wi-fi internet connections available at the City Plaza Mayor, in most of the barangay halls and public elementary schools, as well as in different business establishments. Huge LED television is one of the main attractions. Likewise, the city plaza gives a European ambiance to anyone who visits the place. The experience is more heightened at night because of the strategic position of LED lights in all the buildings including the public library and the St. Joseph Cathedral.

City Ordinance No. 21, S. 2008, declaring eight y and 42 tenths (80.42) hectares of its central district as University Town area with school areas outside this radius as satellite areas will contribute much in attainment of the city vision to be a “world Class University Town by the year 2020”. Programs aligned to this advocacy included: IskolarBalangueño/ EDU CHILD; TeACHNOLOGY/ Provision of Assistance to Public Schools; University Town Infrastructure and Programs for Quality Education; Completion of City Library and New Sports Complex.

Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) is defined as "the delegation of one or more IT-intensive business processes to an external provider that, in turn, owns, administers, and manages the selected process or processes based on defined and measurable performance metrics." Since it is dependent on information technology, it is also referred to as information technology enabled services (ITES).

Based on the data gathered from the Municipal City of Balanga, BPO services are generally categorized into horizontal or vertical services. A horizontal BPO involves function centric outsourcing - the vendor specializes in carrying out particular functions across different industry domains. Examples of horizontal BPO are outsourcing in procurement, payroll processing, human resources, facilities management and similar functions. On the other hand, a vertical BPO focuses on providing various functional services in a limited number of industry domains. Healthcare, financial services, manufacturing and retail are examples of vertical BPO domains.

In the Philippines, the major components of the BPO industry are (1) contact center – provides a number of inbound and outbound services for sales, technical support, directory, etc. (2) software development – analysis, design, customization, etc. of systems software, (3) animation/creative services – process of giving illusion of movement to cinematic drawings or models thru 2D, 3D, etc. (4) data transcription – provision of transcription services for interpreting oral dictation of health and legal professionals (5) back office processing – services related to finance and accounting, and HR administration, and (6) engineering design – includes design for civil works, buildings, electronics, etc.

According to a presentation by Dr. Alvin Culaba on BPO Innovation and Competitiveness, he cited the NSO computing a larger multiplier effect through consumption via direct employment in the BPO industry by 2016. The BPO industry’s projected contribution to this country’s economy is quite staggering: Php 232.7 billion in VAT contribution for food purchases; Php 73.7 billion in housing rental; Php 45.4 billion in public transportation and mobile communications costs; Php 22.5 billion in clothing costs; Php 80 billion in savings/investments and Php 110 billion in taxes that could go to cover public services equivalent to 300,000 classrooms. It will
also entail larger tax collections and creation of other jobs either directly or indirectly (multiplier effect).

It is clear and but a fact that Business Process Outsourcing or BPOs aid in inclusive growth. However, the inclusive growth is to be able to better conclude what it can potentially provide for Balanga City as well.

Balanga has the strength and is ready to host the BPO center because of its ideal location, infrastructures and technology in place as well as having a pool of 15,000 college students, 2,000 of whom are scholars of the city government. The latter would also benefit from the presence of BPOs as their future employer of choice.

This research may help the university in its aim to be research and development centered institution making it more competitive with other institutions. This study may also serve as reference in making and improving other aspects of IT-BPO in preparation for University Town 2020 that will help enhanced tourism programs.

**Project Objectives**

The output of the study focused on the following areas:

- To be able to identify the possible opportunities and effects of IT-based knowledge in the curriculum of tourism program in BPSU.
- To motivate the academe to further develop the knowledge and skills of students to match the needs of IT-based knowledge.

**METHODOLOGY**

The proponents used descriptive method of research and distributed 313 survey questionnaires using purposive sampling technique to the target population mainly students, faculty members of Bataan Peninsula State University (BPSU) – Main Campus, and employees of the City Government of Balanga. The students were surveyed on two modes: first, those who are in campus were surveyed via pen and paper. Other student respondents, those who were not in campus or in on-the-job training, answered the survey via an online survey created through Google Forms. Employees from the City of Balanga were surveyed in person.

The gathered data were treated statistically using IBM’s Statistical Programs for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0.

Frequency and percentage distribution were used to describe the respondents’ profiles; while mean score and standard deviation were used to describe their perceptions on various aspects of the opportunities and effects of IT-based knowledge.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

The bulk of the data comes from the students, being one of the most important the end recipients of the University Town Project preparations for 2020 in which the centerpiece is the putting up of IT-BPO industry in Balanga City.

In terms of profile, Table 1 shows the demographic distribution of the respondents.

Majority of the respondents are female and are in regular academic standing. Out of the total 311 students who enrolled under the BS Tourism Management program, 283 or more than 94% of all respondents, thereby having a considerable sample size. A bulk of the respondents are aged 18-20 and are single.

**Table 1. Profile of Respondents (Students)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20.85</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>79.15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>283</td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Classification</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>13.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>283</td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>31.45</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>25.09</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>26.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>17.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>283</td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>283</td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The responses from the local government personnel were also gathered to acquire input for the study as basis for the enhancement of BS Tourism program in Bataan Peninsula State University.

Table 2 shows the profile of employee-respondents. Majority are female with age range almost evenly dispersed from 22-44 years old. Half are single and half are married.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Status</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has come up a case of urgent need to increase the level of awareness of student-respondents on IT-BPO industry and its very promising employment opportunities the over-all “Agree” level of description on students’ perception on its employment impact to them is somewhat low, despite of their perception that there is indeed a strong potential on the effects and opportunities to be created by the IT-BPO industry once established in the city. The low level of awareness on IT-BPO industry employment impact and as an industry in general is also not in keeping with their perceived very good preparation of the university for them as Tourism students to become IT-BPO professionals. In addition, the student-respondents also perceived that their career path development in the university is also preparing them to have professional opportunities and have competitive professional advantage in IT-BPO industry. When it comes to the students’ awareness on IT-BPO types, this study has come up with a case for basis for strengthening or modification of the BS Tourism program of the university to keep abreast with the future demands of IT-BPO industry in the City of Balanga. The low level of awareness on IT-BPO types among student-respondents (“Somewhat Aware”) is a case for development. Students do not even know well what a “Contact Center” is and surprisingly more interested on “Digital Contents”. In terms of factors considered in choosing long-term career among the students, majority would prefer professional growth over money and personal fulfillment. Over-all in terms of awareness and support towards the University Town Vision 2020, the respondents posted “Moderate Awareness” and are “Strongly In Favor” of the vision and see the efforts as “Extremely Likely” to be achieved and accomplished by the City. The students see the vision as benefitting primarily students and the local tourism sector.

Among the employee respondents, their perception on the IT-BPO impact on employment opportunities and effects, as well as the preparation in the part of the university were all perceived to be excellent by the respondents in expressing their over-all “Strong Agreement” to all items. In the same way, they also believed that the university is preparing students to become high-value IT-BPO professionals in the future though the extensive provisions on career development practices. For them, all types of IT-BPO jobs are important. They consider professional growth, financial security, fulfilling a personal vision to be essential factors in career among job seekers in IT-BPO industry. Their “Extreme Awareness” on University Town and IT-BPO as well as the integration of both shows
their involvement in the University Town 2020 vision and they believed that it is “Extremely Likely” to be accomplished. The employee-respondents see the vision to be benefiting primarily the local tourism sector and colleges and universities.

Based on the findings, the following are hereby recommended:

1. Thereby, intense information dissemination campaign on varied employment opportunities in IT-BPO must be conducted to increase realistic expectations toward IT-BPO industry employment. Moreover, students must be given a concrete and specific discussions on how their trainings could connect or bridge them to be utilized as IT-BPO professionals. The university must review its career development trainings among its students and come up with a course that specifically deals with competitive, IT-ready career pathing among students.

2. The university should review its BS Tourism Management curriculum in terms of integration of information technology in its core courses. Since IT-BPO demands IT-enabled and IT-proficient professionals, Tourism Management courses could be modified so as to integrate Information and Communications Technology (ICT) skills and concepts. A hybrid program that marries Tourism concepts and Information Technology should be created to answer this demand. This will be a pioneering work among State Universities and Colleges. The Tourism and Hotel and Restaurant Management department could collaborate with the College of Information and Communications Technology to integrate and come up with hybrid courses such as, for example but not limited to, Tourism Informatics, Tourism and Digital Content Production, and ICT-integrated Language Proficiency Trainings for Tourism Contact Center Professionals.

3. To facilitate a more efficient and more effective integration of IT-BPO concepts and skills in the university’s BS Tourism program, the University and the City should closely collaborate on matters such as curriculum development and improvement, student academic and professional development with high emphasis on Information Technology and Business Process Outsourcing, IT infrastructure and development support, real market and industry exposure, and efficient system of placement services and eventual professional tenure and career development practices in the industry. Both the City and the University must have clear-cut commitment towards the attainment of the University Town Vision

4. The Faculty Members, being the ones directly involved in training students of the BS Tourism program must also be fortified with full understanding of the IT-BPO industry and be equipped with the appropriate and applicable Information Technology skills that are usable to both Tourism and IT-BPO activities.

REFERENCES


PASSENGER SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING IN THE CHINESE AIRLINE INDUSTRY

Clement Kong Wing Chow
Lingnan University

INTRODUCTION

In competing in Chinese airline market, the ability of carriers to learn from their own operating experience and to provide good quality services has been argued to be an important source of their operating efficiency according to the organization learning theories. This efficiency is also regarded as a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Henderson, 1979; Stata, 1999; and Yelle, 1979). Given the objective of enhancing the customer satisfaction, it is essential to find out how carriers learn from their own operating experience to improve customer satisfaction by successfully reducing the customer complaints. Do Chinese carriers learn from their operating experience to reduce customer dissatisfaction? How successful or effective are the Chinese carriers in acquiring skills or knowledge in reducing the customer complaints by improving their service quality? What is the learning pattern of the Chinese carriers compared with the U.S. carriers? This paper targets to study how Chinese carriers go down their learning curves in reducing their customer dissatisfaction measured by customer complaints filed to the Civil Aviation Authority of China (CAAC). Lapré (2011), and Lapré and Tsikriktsis (2006) showed that the U.S. carriers had a particular learning curve pattern in reducing their customer dissatisfaction. It followed a U-shaped learning curve pattern: the U.S. carriers were capable of reducing customer complaints by organizational learning initially but over time customers raised their expectations based on their past experience and led to the increase of dissatisfaction in the end. Similarly, Baum and Ingram (1998), Ingram and Baum (1997) found a U-shaped relationship between organizational failure and operating experience in Manhattan hotel industry. Nadolska and Barkema (2007) also found a U-shaped learning curve relationship between the performance of overseas acquisitions and foreign acquisition experience. In addition, smaller and focused carriers also learn faster than their larger national carriers in reducing their customer dissatisfaction (Lapré and Tsikriktsis, 2006).

This paper makes a contribution to the literature in at least two areas. First, there has not been any research studying how Chinese carriers reduce customer complaints through the learning from their operating experience in the Chinese airline industry. This is the first study that can provide a more comprehensive analysis on this organization learning issue in the Chinese airline industry. The empirical results of this paper can provide a comparison with those obtained mainly from the U.S. airline industry in relevant literature. Second, our empirical results obtained in this study can provide information for the management of carriers to understand how carriers reduce their customer dissatisfaction. If carriers are able to reduce customer complaints successfully, it should help raise customer loyalty and lead to the improvement in their revenue and profits. Furthermore, complaint feedback from customers can be used for the development and improvement of their service quality and managing the expectations of their customers as well.

DATA AND METHOD

In this paper, an annual unbalanced panel data set of 26 Chinese carriers from 2004 to 2013 is used. There are altogether 209 carrier-year observations in the data set. Route-level information is unfortunately not available. The annual data of customer complaints, number of flights, revenue passenger kilometers are obtained from various issues of the Statistical Data on Civil Aviation of China 2005-2014 published by the CAAC.
As some sampled carriers did not receive any complaints for some periods of time, the dependent variable of customer complaints is actually censored. Given this censoring nature of the custom-
er complaint variable, we adopt the Tobit model to analyze it. Based on the learning curve model of Laprè and Tsikriktsis (2006), let us consider the following Tobit model specification:

\[
COMPL_i^* = \alpha_i + \beta_1\text{CFLNUM}_{i,t-1} + \beta_2\text{CFLNUM2}_{i,t-1} + \beta_3\text{LAFNUM}_{i,t-1} + \\
\beta_4\text{LAFNUM2}_{i,t-1} + \beta_5\text{AFL}_{i,t} + \beta_6\text{LARGE}_{i,t} + \beta_7\text{LIST}_{i,t} + \beta_8\text{OWNCH}_{i,t} + \epsilon_i
\]

\[
COMPL_i = \begin{cases} 
COMPL_i^* & \text{if } COMPL_i^* > 0, \\
0 & \text{if } COMPL_i^* \leq 0
\end{cases}
\]

where COMPLit* is the unobserved counterpart of observed customer complaints variable, COMPLit is measured as the number of customer complaints per 100,000 passengers received by the CAAC against carrier i in year t. \(\alpha_i\) is the fixed effect of carrier i.

To measure operating experience, most of researchers in the learning curve literature use cumulative production volume. Following Laprè and Tsikriktsis (2006), we use the natural logarithm of the cumulative flight number of previous year, CFLNUMit-1 of carrier i in period t-1. As a carrier has to manage all sorts of operations related to each flight such as selling flight tickets, checking in and out passengers, baggage, cargoes, and providing all sorts of in-flight services, etc., the cumulative number of flights basically summarizes the experience of operating all these services. In the operation of these services, carriers are capable of learning more about customers’ preferences on these services. CFLNUM2it-1 is the quadratic term of CFLNUMit-1. Lagging the cumulative flight number variable by one year, the total number of observations drops to 195. According to Laprè and Tsikriktsis’ (2006) result, carriers are successful in learning to reduce customer dissatisfaction in the short run. However, customer dissatisfaction rises as they raise their expectation based on their past experience. As a result, we have the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis H1: Customer dissatisfaction of Chinese carriers follows a U-shaped learning curve pattern. Chinese carriers learn from their operating experience to reduce customer dissatisfaction in the short run but customer dissatisfaction rises in the long run.

If hypothesis H1 is correct, \(\beta_1\) and \(\beta_2\) in equation (3) will be negative and positive in value respectively and they will also be statistically significant.

We introduce a variable, LARGEit, which is the dummy variable of large and national network carriers. LAFNUMit-1 is the cross product of LARGEit and FLNUMit-1 and LAFNUM2it is the cross product of LARGEit and FLNUM2it-1. These cross product terms help determine whether large and full service national carriers learn differently from their operating experience compared with other carriers. Small and focused carriers are expected to learn faster in reducing customer complaints than large and national carriers. It is because the organizational structure of large carriers is more complicated and learning channels are longer. These factors slow down their learning speed and the spread of the knowledge within the organization. As a result, we have the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis H2: In reducing customer dissatisfaction, large and network carriers learn at the same rate as small and focused carriers.

If hypothesis H2 is correct, the estimates of LAFNUMit-1 or LAFNUM2it-1 should be statistically insignificant indicating that large carriers do not learn differently from their smaller counterparts.

Furthermore, we also consider an alternative cumulative production variables, cumulative revenue passenger kilometer, CRPKit-1, of carrier i in period t-1 and cumulative revenue ton-kilometer of passengers and freight, CRTKit-1, of carrier i in period t-1 as the operating experience variables. As a result, equation (3) becomes the following:
\( \text{COMPL}^*_u = \alpha_t + \beta_t \text{CRPK}_{u-1} + \beta_t \text{CRPK2}_{u-1} + \beta_t \text{LACRPK}_{u-1} + \beta_t \text{LACRPK2}_{u-1} \\
+ \beta_t \text{AFL}_u + \beta_t \text{LARGE}_u + \beta_t \text{LIST}_u + \beta_t \text{OWNCH}_u + \varepsilon_u \)

\( \text{COMPL}^*_u = \text{COMPL}^*_u \) if \( \text{COMPL}^*_u > 0 \),
\( = 0 \) if \( \text{COMPL}^*_u \leq 0 \)  

\( \text{COMPL}^*_u = \alpha_t + \beta_t \text{CRTK}_{u-1} + \beta_t \text{CRTK2}_{u-1} + \beta_t \text{LACRTK}_{u-1} + \beta_t \text{LACRTK2}_{u-1} \\
+ \beta_t \text{AFL}_u + \beta_t \text{LARGE}_u + \beta_t \text{LIST}_u + \beta_t \text{OWNCH}_u + \varepsilon_u \)

\( \text{COMPL}^*_u = \text{COMPL}^*_u \) if \( \text{COMPL}^*_u > 0 \),
\( = 0 \) if \( \text{COMPL}^*_u \leq 0 \)  

**FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS**

Our empirical results show that the organizational learning curve pattern is not similar to that found by Lapre (2011), and Lapre and Tsikriktsis (2006). Our empirical results do not support a U-shaped curve relationship between customer complaints and their operating experience in the Chinese airline industry and reject Hypothesis H1. Furthermore, Hypothesis H2 is also rejected. The learning curve relationship of large and network carriers are inverted U-shaped instead of U-shaped while the learning curve of small and focused carriers is linear and downward sloping. It is because the organizational structure of large carriers which are all state-owned or state-controlled is more complicated and learning channels are longer. These factors slow down their learning speed and the spread of the knowledge within the organizations. As a result, large carriers are more likely to have delayed responses to any customer dissatisfaction. This delayed response can contribute to the inverted U-shaped learning curve relationship. On the other hand, small and focused carriers are in general learning faster in reducing their customer complaints compared with their large and network carriers. As a result, Hypothesis H2 is accepted.

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HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM IN ZIMBABWE. THE CASE OF SELECTED SMALL TO MEDIUM HOTELS IN GWERU.

Mildred Mahapa
Midlands State University

INTRODUCTION

The HRM function plays a critical role in the organization as it assists the organization in achieving its objectives through handling matters that affect employees. The success of the tourism industry depend on the quality of employees. The study sought to assess the human resource management challenges in hotels in Zimbabwe using selected small to medium hotels in Gweru. Gweru is a town that is located in the Midlands Province in Zimbabwe and is situated along the road and railway between Harare (the capital city) and Bulawayo. Gweru has become the trade Centre with so many developments taking place. It will examine the context of tourism development in Zimbabwe and human resource management issues in the hospitality sector in Zimbabwe focusing on management and employee perception about challenges of HR issues in small and medium hotels. Tourism, of which hotel and catering sector is a principal element, is becoming increasingly recognized as a valuable component of foreign exchange earner in most developing countries (Boella, 2000).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Human resource within an enterprise is seen as the single biggest cost of most hospitality enterprises around the world (Powell, 1999). Managing of the human resource therefore become critical. According to Storey (1959) as cited in Armstrong (2009:5) HRM is a ‘distinctive approach to employment management which seeks to achieve competitive advantage through strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce using an array, structural and personnel techniques”. In other words HRM enables organizations to thrive in competition through the human capital by using an array of structural and personnel techniques. It aims at improving the efficiency within the hospitality industry to achieve economic development within the economy. The effective management of the human resource is thus vital in the tourism sector. Tourism is a composite of activities, facilities, services and industries that deliver a travel experience, that is, transportation, accommodation, eating and drinking establishments, entertainment, recreation, historical and cultural experiences, destination attractions, shopping and other services available to travelers away from home (Tourism and Leisure Committee, 1997). Taking from the definition of tourism, the research focused on small to medium hotels. In Zimbabwe, agriculture and tourism are two of the largest foreign currency earners. Because of the uncertainties in agriculture resulting from the unpredictable climate conditions and fluctuations of prices of agricultural products on the international market, among other issues, tourism remains the only reliable source of investments and foreign currency. Therefore, there is the need to effectively manage employee within the hotels. Moreover, there is the need for research into the HRM challenges in small to medium hotels in the province as they is little literature in terms of these HRM issues. Thus, the present study aimed at filling in the existing literature gap. This study will contribute to better theory and practice of HRM. The research findings would help managers improve their HRM practices towards creating a sustainable tourism development. The research findings would be useful for policy makers, researchers and academicians in recognizing the need for best HRM practices in a developing country such as Zimbabwe.

In Zimbabwe, tourism is one of the industries with the strongest effect on the economy because it helps in developing other sectors. According to
statistics supplied by SADC (2010), tourism in Zimbabwe contributes about five percent to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The sector employs approximately eighty thousand people directly and indirectly. The tourism sector is estimated to have generated two billion Zimbabwe dollars in 1996/1997 for the country. This makes it the third highest earner of foreign currency, after agriculture and mining. Tourism has the potential of becoming the highest generator of foreign currency for Zimbabwe. The Government of Zimbabwe set up the Zimbabwean Tourism Authority to successfully market tourism in Zimbabwe and to further develop the industry. The organisation is divided into the following four divisions, Human Resources and Standards, Marketing and Communications, Finance and Administration and Research and Development. This paper focused on the Human Resources and Standards in the hotels. According to the Zimbabwean Revenue Authority a small company is one with six to forty employees, has an annual turnover of US$50 000 to US$500 000 and assets valued between US$50 000 to US $1 million. A medium sized company is one with 41 to 75 employees, annual turnover of between US$1 million and US$2 million and assets valued between US $1 million and US$2 million.

**METHODS**

The research took a descriptive survey approach based on small to medium hotels in Gweru. This choice was based on the premise that, Gweru is one of the upcoming towns for tourist destination where hospitality services are provided. Also there has been high levels of concern regarding human resource management practices in the tourism sector to cope with the growing number of visitors arriving in and outside the province. The data was collected through qualitative methods. The rationale for using the qualitative approach primarily was that the study involved identifying and exploring a number of challenges that give insights into and explains the nature of issues facing the tourism sector in Gweru. Semi-structured interviews were held involving the human resource managers and employees in all the hotels as well as individual employees. A total of 10 participants took part in the research, 5 from each hotel. From each hotel an employee from the HRM department was purposively selected as these deal with HRM issues on a daily basis and 4 general employees were randomly selected. The 2 hotels were conveniently selected because of their proximity to the researcher as well as the limited resources available. Key informant interviews were carried out with the HRM personnel and focus group discussions were carried out with the general employees. The use of the two methods of data collection were used as they provide a means for comparing the finding from various interviewees and thereby drawing precise conclusion in the final analysis (Marshall and Rossman, 1999). To make research more accurate in terms of the research method used, there was need to gather primarily information from different sources (Yars, 2002). Based on Yars argument, at least two or more sources of information must be used when conducting research. In this case, information about an organisation could be gathered from the organisation itself, for example, the human resource manager, from individual employees or HRM managers. The data that was collected from primary sources was done in confidentiality and with full informed consent of the participants for academic purposes. Hotels identified in this study are recognised in public domain with special interest in tourism with participants giving personal opinion and not their organization’s position. The hotels will be referred to as Hotel A and Hotel B. The thematic approach was used to analyze data.

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

Data from both hotels on the challenges is presented below. It was realised that there are many human resource management challenges faced by the hotels practices. The challenges identified are discussed below.

In both hotels, the HRM personnel pointed out that the major challenge is lack of finances and resources. Due to the size of the hotels and the need to grow it is difficult to spare much resource to HRM practices because the organization does not afford it. Training programmes were said lacked funding and this has affected the performance of employees. Boella and Goss-Turner (2005) suggested that if an organisation’s first and foremost objective is to provide a service, a holistic approach to service quality management must be developed
and employed, infiltrating all levels of the organisation from the chief executive to the entry level employees. This however is not being done as the hotels are facing financial challenges. The current state of the hotels contradicts the views by Boella (2005) who suggest that employees must be selected, trained properly, and continually motivated to be committed to the service quality strategy as a part of the organisation’s business strategy.

The HR personnel in Hotel A indicated that Human resource management is getting more and more complicated. Nowadays employees are knowledgeable and informative and they know what sort of rights or benefits they should have. Human resource departments need to provide diverse services in response to employees’ demand, including counselling, employees’ interpersonal relationships, and employees’ complaints, rather than just traditional administrative work.

One of the HR personnel participant in Hotel B highlighted that the lack of formalization of HRM function makes it difficult to effectively carry out HRM practices. Findings from the focus group discussions in both hotels revealed that, vacant positions of junior staff identified within these hotels are normally advertised by word of mouth. However this type of recruitment does not bring new ideas to the organization (Billah et al, 2009). It was identified that, poaching of staff was one strategy used by small to medium hotels and in addition senior staff recruitment is done internally because it is believed that, staff are already familiar with the organizational culture and have already been oriented on performance within the organization hence they can maintain standards in line with hotel policy (personal communication). The absence of someone fully committed to carrying the HRM practices means that the activities will not be carried out in an effective manner because there is no one fully dedicated to the implementation of those practices.

It was pointed out by the HR personnel in both hotels that most of the employees. The hotels staff was not committed to their work. Many employees regard hospitality work as a pass-through to a job in a higher level industry, instead of a life-time career commitment. They also suggested that low morale and motivation levels are critical contributory factors to high employee turnover. Employee turnover has been one of the biggest concerns in the hotel industry for a long time (Hinkin and Tracey 2000). The hotel industry globally constantly suffers from high staff turnover levels, which is a pervasive and serious problem resulting in high direct expenditure as well as intangible costs (Cheng and Brown 1998; Hinkin and Tracey 2000; Woods and Macaulay 1989). Direct expenditures include the administrative costs of separation, attracting and recruiting, selection, and hiring. Intangible costs include lost-productivity, poor service quality, and low morale which in turn result in damage to the hotel’s reputation (Cheng and Brown 1998;)

The HRM personnel from both hotels pointed out that performance management was also another HRM challenge. They pointed out that it is expected that outstanding employees have a pay rise or position promotion after their performance appraisal but this is not the case in the hotels. On the other hand the employees pointed out that they are not satisfied with the appraisal result because they feel that they are not evaluated fairly and objectively. These respondents thought that it is difficult to develop and implement a robust evaluation system because the perception of the appraiser is relative and subjective and a consistent standard is not easy to achieve. They believed that many hoteliers have considered this problem for a long time but are not clear how to achieve a better performance evaluation approach.

The respondents strongly agreed with the fact the tourism industry lacks competent people one of the major reason for the same was that the people who are joining the industry majority of them are simple graduates and under graduates not having any specific degree or diploma of tourism courses.

IMPLICATION & CONCLUSION

Critical to the achievement of policies hinges on the development of a sound and effective human resource management practices within the tourism sector. The underlying assumption of the study was that, future growth of visitors and tourists would depend largely on the attractiveness of the quality of sector personnel in delivering hospitality services. In addition, the quality of service obtained from
human resource division by visitors within the small to medium hotels would have a direct impact on the contribution of the growth of the tourism sector. Therefore understanding HRM challenges in the hotel sector will help in providing better solutions and eventually improve the service delivery process.

From the findings it can be noted is need for proper manpower planning, job description & specification and proper career planning in the hotels. The HR mangers need to ensure that there should be a strategic selection of the workforce taking in to the account the long term vision and growth. The workforce employed must possess the required certification, degree or diploma in tourism or related discipline as may be the requirement in order to qualify to work in the industry. More so people working at different level should be given regular and timely training inputs and refresher courses which will improve their skills and abilities according to the changing needs and requirements of industry. Sustainability tourism development requires a number of human resources development (HRD) strategies aimed at the tourism industry personnel, host community and the tourists, and underpinned by concepts and practices of sustainability. Sustainability based work culture, professional ethics, and operational practices are basic to sustainability in tourism.

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JOB RESOURCEFULNESS AND PROSOCIAL SERVICE BEHAVIORS IN HOTEL FIRMS: THE ROLE OF WORK ENGAGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly competitive market, providing high-quality service is regarded as a critical factor for the success of hospitality industry (Tsaur, Wang, Yen, & Liu, 2014). The pursuit of service excellence is considered an essential strategy (Johanson & Woods, 2008). Thus, increasing numbers of service providers seek to deliver superior service to customers in order to exceed customer expectations (Peccei & Rosenthal, 2001). Previous studies have suggested that service quality can be enhanced when employees do “that little bit extra” for the customers (Ennew & Binks, 1999). Employees’ prosocial service behaviors (PSBs) can be viewed as a customer-oriented service in the hotel industry and has a crucial effect on service quality and long-term success of hotels (Tsaur & Lin, 2004).

PSBs refer to the helpful behaviors of service employees directed toward the organization or toward other people (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Although PSBs have major implications for hospitality organizations, employees in frontline service jobs of the hotel industry are faced with stressful and demanding situations, such as long work hours, excessive job demands, aggressive customer behaviors, and emotional dissonance (Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014). Under these circumstances, hotel employees are in need of resources to be able to cope with difficulties emerging from the workplace. As a personal resource, job resourcefulness is a critical personality trait can be able to perform better even though they may be left with fewer resources (Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2011). Job resourcefulness refers to “the enduring disposition to garner scarce resources and overcome obstacles in the pursuit of job-related goals” (Licata, Mowen, Harris, & Brown, 2003). Such a personality trait is particularly important for hotel frontline employees who should be skilled at directly having intense face-to-face interactions with the customers (Ashill, Rod, Thirkell, & Carruthers, 2009). While some evidence exists for the influence of job resourcefulness on job-related outcomes (Harris, Ladik, Artis, & Fleming, 2013), the role of job resourcefulness in the PSBs process has yet to be explored.

Recently, employees’ work engagement has been extensively studied in the hospitality industry (Karatepe et al., 2014; Lee & Ok, 2015). Work engagement is a multidimensional construct defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job-resourceful employees are energetic, have enthusiasm, and are fully immersed in the work. That is, job-resourceful employees are likely to be engaged in their work. Furthermore, engaged employees can deliver superior service quality and make customers satisfied by going beyond their formal role requirements (Karatepe, 2013). Accordingly, employees’ job resourcefulness may enhance work engagement, which in turn affects PSBs. Based on the literature, work engagement may play a mediating role in linking job resourcefulness and PSBs.

The goal of this research was twofold. First, this study investigated the relationship between job
resourcefulness and PSBs. Second, the study examined how work engagement mediates the relationship between job resourcefulness and PSBs. The main contribution of this research is the revelation that job resourcefulness may represent a personality trait for hotel employees experiencing high levels of job demands, and further that it may be a helpful trait in strengthening work engagement and resulting in PSBs. This study responded to Karatepe (2013), who suggested incorporating other important performance outcomes into the research model would provide a better picture of the mediating role work engagement in frontline service jobs.

**METHOD**

Customer-service employees from hotels in Taiwan were chosen in this study to test our hypotheses. According to statistics obtained from the Tourism Bureau in Taiwan for the year 2014, 72 international tourist hotels exist in Taiwan. The international tourist hotels are four-star or five-star equivalent hotels. To produce a sample for this study, the researchers contacted the human resource managers of these companies and asked for assistance in the research process. General managers from 25 hotels agreed to participate in this study. The managers who agreed to participate in the research were provided with written explanations of the nature of the research and the questionnaire. This information was distributed to service employees across a broad range of customer-contact positions (e.g., front desk, bellhop, food service, and other customer-contact employee). Their participation was requested, but it was explained that participation was voluntary.

Questionnaire packets were mailed to each general manager. Each packet contained 20 customer-contact employee surveys, instructions, and postage-paid return envelopes. Customer-contact employees were asked about their perceptions of job resourcefulness, work engagement, and PSBs. The reminders and materials were mailed 1 month after the initial mailing. All questionnaires were returned directly to the researchers. Of the total sample, 19 hotels returned a minimum of 10 customer-contact employee questionnaires. At the end of the data collection, 289 customer-contact employee questionnaires were determined to be usable in the study.

**FINDINGS**

Characteristics of the sample. The sample consisted of 289 respondents. 130 respondents (45%) were male and 159 respondents (55%) were female. 113 respondents (39.1%) were single and 176 respondents (60.9%) were married. Educational levels were 79.9% who had college experience or above. The average age of the respondents was 37.52 years. The average organizational tenure of the respondents was 11.54 years. 55.7% of the respondents indicated that they had personal monthly incomes in the range of NTS $40,001-60,000.

Hypotheses testing. This study performed the structural equation model (SEM) adopted the maximum likelihood estimation method to investigate the relationships among job resourcefulness, work engagement, role-prescribed service behavior, extra-role service behavior, and employee cooperation. According to the fit indices, the hypothesized model provided an accepted fit to the data ($\chi^2=721.58$, df=289, $\chi^2$/df $=2.50$, RMR=0.04, SRMR=0.08, RMSEA=0.07).

The path from job resourcefulness to role-prescribed service behavior ($\beta = 0.52$, $p < .01$) was significant, supporting H1. The path from job resourcefulness to extra-role service behavior ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < .01$) was significant, supporting H2. The path from job resourcefulness to employee cooperation ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < .01$) was significant, supporting H3.

Furthermore, the paths from job resourcefulness to work engagement ($\beta = 0.59$, $p < .01$) were significant. Work engagement was also positively related to role-prescribed service behavior ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < .01$), extra-role service behavior ($\beta = 0.56$, $p < .01$), and employee cooperation ($\beta = 0.37$, $p < .01$). The hypothesized model was a partially mediated model, suggesting that job resourcefulness has influences on role-prescribed service behavior, extra-role service behavior, and employee cooperation directly and indirectly. Therefore, Hypotheses 4, 5 and 6 were supported.

**CONCLUSION**

Past studies have examined the relationships between personal resources and psychological out-
comes (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007). The current study posits one personal resource (job resourcefulness) and one psychological outcome (PSBs). We also investigate the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between job resourcefulness and PSBs. It was found that, as hypothesized, work engagement mediates the influence of job resourcefulness on PSBs: that is, an increase in job resourcefulness is associated with an increase in work engagement, which, in its turn, is positively related to role-prescribed and extra-role customer service behaviors as well as employee cooperation.

Due to involving in a standardized and routine work environment, frontline employees have little discretion or control over how they can respond to customers’ requests. They often take a passive role in their customer interactions and have few motivations to go the extra mile to serve customers (Auh, Menguc, & Jung, 2014). In addition, supervisors play a crucial role of enhancing employee work engagement (Warshawsky, Havens, & Knafl, 2012). However, hotel managers do not capitalize on employee resources fairly (Øgaard, Marnburg, & Larsen, 2008). Facing limited autonomy and that managers are not available for their employees, we suggest that job resourcefulness may be an alternative direction for enhancing employees’ work engagement and PSBs. For example, hotel managers can design job resourcefulness questionnaires to test what extent an employee has to hire the right type of employees in the frontline positions.

Results indicate that work engagement is a mediator in the job resourcefulness-PSBs relationship. This study proposes that the degree of work engagement may be a checkpoint to detect how job resourcefulness impacts PSBs. For example, supervisors should pay attention to their frontline employees’ work engagement. When they find service employees with burnout at their work (e.g., the opposite of work engagement), they should provide employees with opportunities to develop their abilities and skills. This will increase their work engagement, which in turn enhances PSBs because they can personally grow at work to overcome obstacles in the accomplishment of job-related goals.

The current study has some limitations. First, the main targets in our studies are drawn from the hospitality industry. This might limit the generalization of the empirical findings to other industries. Second, the authors collected data from a single source, raising concern that common method variance (CMV) may account for significant findings. Although we strived to reduce the effect of CMV by adopting procedural and statistical techniques, a multi-resources gathering research design can be used in the future study. Third, we focus on the mediating role of work engagement in the job resourcefulness-PSBs relationship. However, this study doesn’t mention other situation factors, such as leadership, social exchange relationships, employee competition etc. Further studies may improve these shortcomings by including the above mentioned variables for future empirical tests. Finally, this study was a cross-sectional study. Alternative casual directions cannot be ruled out. Further longitudinal research is needed to determine the cause-effect relationships among job resourcefulness, work engagement, and PSBs.

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THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG TOURISM ANIMATED ENDORSER CREDIBILITY, RISK PERCEPTION AND ADVERTISING EFFECT:
A ANIMATED ENDORSER CREDIBILITY ON MAOKONG AREA OF THE CASE

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INTRODUCTION

Through using spokesperson, tourism Industry hoped to transform the popularity and attractiveness of spokesperson into tourism products which were endorsed by them. Spokespersons can be classified to two kinds, real persons and avatar. However, which kind of spokespersons had better promotion effectiveness remained unclear. Moreover, the risk perceptions of travelling will influence tourists’ attitude regarding tourism products, therefore, the attitude to tourism destination will became negative, and consequently reduced the likelihood of their traveling intention. Spokespersons can increase tourists’ brand attitude to tourism products. The source of avatar spokespersons can be classified to non-celebrity and celebrity. Which kind of avatar spokespersons had better promotion effectiveness remained unclear, and whether credibility of avatar spokespersons would affect the advertising effectiveness and risk perceptions remained unclear.

METHOD

Avatar spokespersons of Maokong area were adopted to investigate the research questions. Simple sampling method was applied to collect questionnaires at Taipei station. One hundred and four effective questionnaire were collected.

FINDINGS

The result shown that avatar spokesperson credibility and advertising effectiveness had highly significant correlation, and risk perception and advertising effectiveness had significant correlation. After applying ANOVA, the results shown that, risk perception and avatar spokesperson credibility had significant differences among age groups, risk perception had significant differences among educational background groups, avatar spokesperson credibility and advertising effectiveness had significant differences among travel experience groups. Result shown that avatar spokesperson credibility affected advertising effectiveness, and risk perception affected advertising effectiveness under applying regression analysis.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

In practical contributions, this study would provide useful knowledge to tourism administrative authorities for selecting avatar spokespersons to promote destination, and can therefore reduce tourists’ risk perception and increased advertising effectiveness. In academic contributions, this study would increase the understanding regarding the differences of advertising effectiveness and risk perception between real spokespersons and avatar spokespersons. In the future, more studies were recommended on avatar spokespersons at other tourism destinations or for different tourism products.
TOURIST-RESIDENT CONFLICT: A SCALE DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a complex system that involves the following main stakeholders (D’Angela & Go, 2009): tourists, local residents, local enterprises, and government departments (Yang, Ryan, & Zhang, 2013). According to social exchange theory (Ap, 1992), the attitude and level of support of stakeholders toward tourism development are influenced by the overall assessment results of actual/perceived (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005). Accordingly, when stakeholder groups share different perceptions and goals toward tourism development, such as difference between the perceived benefits and personal interests or overall development costs, conflicts regarding tourism development may arise among stakeholder groups (Byrd, Bosley, & Dronberger, 2009).

Previous relevant studies on tourism development have reported numerous tourism conflicts occurring among stakeholders. Chesney-Lind and Lind (1986), in exploring tourism development problems in Hawaii, reported that conflicting norms of dress, speech, and behavior can heighten tensions between tourists and local residents. In recent years, numerous incidents of conflict, prejudice, and discrimination have occurred between Hong Kong residents and tourists from mainland China (hereinafter referred to as Chinese tourists) (Ye, Zhang, & Yuen, 2012). For example, Chinese tourists have been accused of violating the social norms and principles of Hong Kong (e.g., eating and making loud noises on the Mass Transit Railway) and causing numerous social problems (e.g., inflating the prices of consumer goods and real estate). By contrast, some Chinese tourists have reported that they did not receive reasonable or fair treatment when they traveled to Hong Kong, and have mainly attributed this to discrimination-related problems (Ye et al., 2012). On the basis of the aforementioned studies, tourism conflicts exist and severely influence the tourism development of tourist destinations in the long term.

Numerous studies have explored tourism impacts, which relate to how tourism development generates problems at tourist destinations (Byrd et al., 2009; Deery, Jago, & Fredline, 2012). However, the concept of tourism impact differs from that of tourism conflict. Tourism impact refers to the long- or short-term, positive or negative, and individual or accumulative influences of the continual interactions between tourists and host communities on tourist destinations, local enterprises, and local communities (Moyle, Weiler, & Croy, 2013). Conflict refers to individual people or groups perceiving that inconsistencies or contradictions in demands or goals exist between them and other people or groups (Boulding, 1963). Tourist–resident conflict refers to the conditions in which disagreement, negative emotions, and interferences arise between tourists and residents. In addition, tourism impact is usually unilateral; that is, the unilateral influences of foreign tourists or tourism development on local communities. By contrast, tourism conflict is bilateral, results from interactions, and is mainly reflected in the differing cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions of tourists and local residents.

Previous studies have proposed several terms related to tourism conflict such as tourism development conflict (Engström & Boluk, 2012), social con-
flict (Yang et al., 2013), and tourism and cultural conflict (Iverson, 2010; Ye, Zhang, & Yuen, 2013). However, previous research has not conceptualized tourism conflict nor developed a set of reliable and valid instruments for measuring it. Accordingly, this study conceptualized tourist–resident conflict and developed a scale for determining the implications, constructs, and contents of such conflict to compensate for the insufficient knowledge in the tourism research field.

**SCALE DEVELOPMENT**

Item Generation. To comprehensively understand the implications of conflict between tourists and local residents, one-on-one in-depth interview and group interview were adopted for collecting detailed face-to-face data from respondents. Twenty-one respondents (9 Chinese tourists and 12 residents of Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan) participated in one-on-one in-depth interviews. For the focus group interviews, two focus groups with a total of 12 respondents were formed, namely one group of six Chinese tourists and one group of six residents of Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan. On the basis of the literature review and in-depth interviews, two field experts evaluated the processes of content classification and naming in this study. The scale designed for local residents comprised 15 items in the following three main categories: cultural conflict, social conflict, and resource conflict. The scale designed for tourists comprised 16 items in the following three main categories: cultural conflict, social conflict, and transactional conflict. Furthermore, a panel of experts evaluated content validity. The six-person panel, consisting of tourism research scholars and tourism industry personnel, evaluated the relevance between each item and its operational definition and offered suggestions on the wording of, addition, or deletion of the items. Every expert scored each scale item from 1 (extremely unsuitable) to 5 (extremely suitable). Four items attained scores of less than 3 and were deleted. The remaining items were discussed and revised by the panel and subsequently retained as the initial scale items. The local resident scale comprised 13 items for its constructs of cultural conflict (4 items), social conflict (4 items), and resource conflict (5 items); whereas the tourist scale comprised 14 items for its constructs of cultural conflict (6 items), social conflict (5 items), and transactional conflict (3 items).

Data Collection (One) and Measure Purification. According to the tourist and local resident perspectives, the preliminary questionnaire was designed and the scale of tourist–resident conflict was developed. The items were scored on a 1–5 scale from 1 (extremely disagree) to 5 (extremely agree). At the time of the study, the foreign tourists visiting Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan were predominantly from mainland China; furthermore, tourist–resident conflict in the three destinations increased substantially as large numbers of Chinese tourists began traveling to the regions. Accordingly, this study focused on the phenomenon of conflict between Chinese tourists and local residents in Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan. The sampled population incorporated only Chinese tourists traveling to Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan and local residents of these three regions. The first questionnaire survey was administered from April to June 2015. A total of 271 valid questionnaires administered to local residents were returned, with 92 from Hong Kong, 90 from Taiwan, and 89 from Macau. The collected data were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) by using varimax rotation to reduce the number of items. According to the EFA results, the following three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted from the local resident scale: cultural conflict (4 items), social conflict (4 items), and resource conflict (5 items). The cumulative percentage of explained variance was 69.44%. The following three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were extracted from the tourist scale: cultural conflict (5 items), social conflict (4 items), and transactional conflict (3 items). The cumulative percentage of explained variance was 67.05%. The factor loadings of two items were smaller than 0.5 and were thus excluded. All factors exhibited a Cronbach’s α value greater than 0.70 and were thus considered reasonably reliable (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), thereby conforming to the criteria for internal consistency (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

Data Collection (Two) and Reanalysis of Measures. A second questionnaire survey was conducted and analyzed to ensure that the scale of tourist–resident conflict was valid and reliable. The second questionnaire survey was administered from July to September 2015. A total of 264 valid ques-
tionnaires administered to local residents were returned, with 89 from Taiwan, 88 from Hong Kong, and 87 from Macau. To verify the reliability and construct validity of the scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed for parameter estimation. In addition, the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the scale were further examined. The CFA results reveal that the local resident scale exhibited favorable goodness of fit ($\chi^2 = 245.16$, df = 65, $\chi^2$/df = 3.77, p < 0.001, GFI = 0.92, AGFI = 0.90, NFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95, IFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.08). The composite reliability of each construct was higher than 0.7, indicating high internal consistency (Fornell & Larker, 1981). The factor loading of each item was higher than 0.5, and the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct was higher than 0.5, indicating that the scale possessed favorable convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The square root of the AVE of each construct was higher than the correlation coefficient between any pair of constructs, demonstrating that the scale had discriminant validity (Fornell & Larker, 1981). The results reveal that the tourist scale exhibited favorable goodness of fit ($\chi^2 = 251.87$, df = 71, $\chi^2$/df = 3.55, p < 0.001, GFI = 0.93, AGFI = 0.90, NFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.94, IFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.08). The composite reliability of each construct was higher than 0.7, indicating high internal consistency. The factor loading of each item was higher than 0.5, and the AVE of each construct was higher than 0.5, indicating that the scale possessed favorable convergent validity. The square root of AVE of each construct was higher than the correlation coefficient between any pair of constructs, demonstrating that the scale had discriminant validity (Fornell & Larker, 1981). Accordingly, the scale of tourist–resident conflict, based on the perspective of the tourists and local residents, was finalized.

CONCLUSION

Through the scale development procedure, we conceptualized tourist–resident conflict according to the differing perspectives of tourists and local residents; subsequently, the scale of tourist–resident conflict was developed. The local resident scale comprised 13 items for its constructs of cultural conflict, social conflict, and transactional conflict. The findings expand the literature in the following regards.

First, numerous scholars have developed scales of tourism impact for measuring how tourism development influences tourist areas. However, we considered that the concept of tourism conflict differed from that of tourism impact. Specifically, tourism impact mainly measures the unilateral influences of tourists or tourism development on tourist areas; and tourism conflict refers to the outcome of bilateral interactions between tourists and local residents. Accordingly, the scope of tourism conflict differs from that of tourism impact. This is the first study that addresses the phenomenon of tourist–resident conflict in the context of the tourism industry. This constitutes the theoretical contribution of this study.

Second, tourism scholars have proposed several terms related to tourism conflict such as tourism development conflict, social conflict, and cultural conflict, and have explored the phenomenon of tourism conflict by employing qualitative research methods. However, no scholars have adopted quantitative research methods for conducting in-depth research on the concept of tourist–resident conflict. On the basis of the implications and components of conflict, the present study developed the scale of and constructs for tourist–resident conflict; therefore, the scale could be used to explore the phenomenon of tourism conflict according to the perspectives of different stakeholders (i.e., tourists and local residents) and could serve as a reference for tourism development and guide the management of tourism operations.

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THE MOTIVATING IMPACT OF HOTEL ONLINE REVIEWS AND PRICE ON CONSUMER BOOKING INTENTION

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INTRODUCTION

More and more people use online travel agencies (OTAs) for booking hotel rooms. An industry report showed that online booking is the leading and fastest growing distribution channel that brought in business from transient travelers (TravelClick, 2014). This report also confirmed the growing trend of using OTAs (e.g., Expedia, Orbitz, Priceline etc.). Before traveling, a great amount of customers looked up OTAs, a few more sought information on search engines and over one half of the customers did both (Anderson, 2011).

Several academic works have contributed to the research pertaining to the influences of electronic word of mouth (eWOM) on the consumer decision making process. The divergent impact of online word of mouth was reflected in male and female tourists among different age groups (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008). eWOM strengthened the designation of booking hotel rooms regardless of the valence of reviews, and the relationship was partially moderated by reviewer expertise (Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). However, another study revealed an incompatible result that the valance of the reviews was somehow aligned with consumer’s behavior intention (Mauri & Minazzi, 2013). More specifically, they found that positive reviews had a positive impact on customer expectations and booking intentions while negative reviews had the reverse impact, but hotels’ interaction with reviewers online would not help on increasing the number of bookings. Xie, Miao, Kuo and Lee (2011) investigated the impact of consumers’ exposure to reviewers’ personal identification information (PII) on their hotel booking intentions, and discovered perceived trustworthiness of online reviews as the mediating role.

Price is another crucial factor that people will consider before making a purchase decision. An early study indicated that people prefer to make a transaction online due to the competitive superiority of diminished price (Reibstein, 2002). An investigation among Taiwan travellers who had experiences making online transactions found that price is the decisive essential during the evaluation phase that pushes consumers to reach final decisions (Chang, 2009). Price will affect the customers’ booking decision. Affordable room rates associated with the consumer’s budget are the predominate elements people consider before choosing a hotel to stay in (Lockyer, 2005). While booking hotel rooms online, people use price as precedent to narrow down choices from a list of hotels (Pan, Zhang, & Law, 2013). Noone and McGuire (2013) conducted online experiments and proved the consumers’ preference of booking hotel rooms at lower rates on OTAs.

Motivating Operation (MO) is the theory that explained people’s temporary behavior intention; it is the assembly of “Establishing Operation (EO)” and “Abolishing Operation (AO)” (Laraway, Snycerski, Michael, & Poling, 2003). According to Laraway, Snycerski, Michael and Poling (2003), two impacts are brought by MOs—“value altering impact” and “behavioral altering impact”. As suggested by Fagerström and Ghezina (2011), price and online reviews are MOs that would increase or decrease the possibility of making a transaction online.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate which factor (price or online reviews, MOs) would most strongly affect consumers’ booking intention through OTAs. Could hotels with relatively decent consumer evaluations potentially surrender price in order to engender higher booking intention or vice versa?
METHOD

The survey of this study was scenario-based. Nine scenarios were generated using Adobe Photoshop, making them similar to Expedia. Each scenario used different hotels with varying price (low, medium and high) and review ratings (low, middle and high) attached with two consistent short texts, and those two short texts reviews were sorted from TripAdvisor. At the beginning of the survey, participants were asked to imagine that they were going to book a 3-star hotel for two nights in downtown Chicago area on the coming Independence Day (July 4th-6th). After randomly presenting each scenario, participants were asked what the chances were that they would book a room in the hotel using a 10 point Likert scale. Data were collected from a major Midwest U.S. university. A total of 346 questionnaires were collected. After eliminating respondents who did not read reviews, 280 samples remained valid.

FINDINGS

Univariate ANOVA was used to analyze data. Results showed that price, online reviews and price x online reviews all have a significant impact on consumer booking intention. Partial Eta Squared indicated that online reviews (N=280, η²=0.43) have a large effect on consumer hotel booking intention (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Multivariate effect</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td></td>
<td>29.54</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reviews</td>
<td></td>
<td>936.58</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price x Reviews</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: p <0.01

Main effects (Table 2.) and interaction effects (Chart 1.) were further analyzed. Results showed that there were no significant differences between low price and medium price (p=0.15) on booking intention. As for online reviews, all of them are significantly different (p<0.01) between each other on booking intention. When prices are high or reviews are negative, people are less likely to book hotel rooms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *higher score means participants are more likely to book a room (0=Not at all likely to book, 10=Would certainly book).

*no significant differences between medium and low price (p=0.15)

Compared with low price and medium price, when reviews are positive, consumers are not sensitive to price; rather they are more likely to book a room at a higher price level (See Chart 1.). This result is consistent with previous studies indicating that price and online reviews would influence consumer perceived service quality and value (Ye, Li, Wang, & Law, 2012; Noone & McGuire, 2013). Since the online ratings are already in a high level with prevalence of positive reviews, people may think higher prices (medium level) would provide better service and value than a low price level.
IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This research confirmed that price and online reviews both have a significant impact on consumers’ booking intention. However, it is online reviews that have larger impact on making a transaction. Managers should pay more attention to customer reviews and do the best to exceed customer expectations in order to generate more external positive eWOM. Also, it is possible for those hotels with better reputations to raise their rates on OTAs. As suggested by a previous study conducted by Anderson (2012), each point higher than competitors’ rating would allow hotel managers to increase price by 11.2% without losing current market shares and consumer booking intention.

The total number of respondents are reasonable, but samples are limited to students in a Midwest U.S. university. Future researchers should conduct more surveys from other age groups in a variety of locations. This research was built on scenarios manipulated by researchers and participants did not spend their own money on making an actual reservation. A real world situation should be studied using mixed methodologies.

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IMPLEMENTING CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

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INTRODUCTION

Customer Relationship Management (CRM) has been proven to be an aid in improving customer satisfaction and retention in the hotel businesses. Lo et al. (2010) in their study mention that CRM plays a vital role in achieving the hotels’ main objectives, which are about increasing guest satisfaction and retention. Beside the well-known and significant stories (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 2000) failing rates of CRM projects is as high as 65% (Almotairi, 2010; Kale, 2004). CRM implementations are time consuming and expensive with a significant risk of failure. Considering the importance of having a close relationship with customers in the current competitive business environment and the risks of implementing CRM projects, it is imperative that everything related to CRM must be handled with care (Mendoza et al., 2006). There are different reasons resulting in the failure of CRM, and organizational culture is identified by different researchers as one of the most important factor that enables or disables the achievement of desirable CRM outcomes (Bulte, 2004; Curry and Kkolou, 2004; Irina and Buttle, 2006; Kale, 2004; Siriprasoetsin et al., 2011). Alduwaileh and Maged (2013) in their study mentioned that cultural aspects are the most important factor in success or failure of CRM and CRM implementations will not succeed unless a proper cultural foundation exists. Organizational culture and its impacts on CRM implementation have been at the centre of attention for various researchers. Most of these studies, with qualitative approaches, have tried to highlight the role of organizational culture on CRM implementation (Chen and Popovich, 2003; Karakostas et al., 2005; Raman et al., 2006; Verhoef and Fred, 2002) while others have attempted to identify the organizational culture factors with potential impact on CRM implementations (Mitussis et al., 2006; Reinartz et al., 2004). Very few of these studies with empirical approaches tried to investigate the relationship between a limited set of organizational culture factors and CRM (Siriprasoetsin et al., 2011; Irina and Buttle, 2006; Rahimi and Gunlu, 2016); and to the best knowledge of the authors no study has been found to empirically be investigating the general impact of organizational culture on CRM implementation specifically in the context of the hotel industry. Irina and Buttle (2006) in their study mentioned that the future generation of the researches should prove the claim of the literature about this impact. This current study aims to fill this gap via conducting a comprehensive literature review and finding organizational culture with potential impacts on CRM implementations after that empirically investigating this impact.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CRM is based on the principles of Relationship Marketing (RM), which is considered as one of the key developmental areas of modern marketing (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 2000). Back in the early 1990’s, RM was embraced as a way for marketing departments to get to know their customers more intimately by understanding their preferences and thus increasing the odds of retaining them. This one-to-one approach of RM, which was very popular throughout the 90’s, was then replaced with a new approach known today as CRM. Rababah et al., (2010:223) defined CRM as “the building of a customer-oriented culture by which a strategy is created for acquiring, enhancing the profitability of, and retaining customers, that is enabled by an IT application; for achieving mutual benefits for both the organization and the customers”. CRM solutions in hotel business aim to seek, gather and store the right guests’ information towards; a) identifying and retaining the most profitable customers and im-
proving the profitability of less profitable customers, and b) develop the quality of the services via customizing them based on the need of customers (Sigala and Connolly, 2004; Rahimi and Kozak, 2016). Beside the well-known and significant stories about CRM success and the benefits, it brought to the companies (Sheth and Parvatiyar, 2000) failing rates of CRM projects is as high as 65% (Almotairi, 2010; Kale, 2004).

A survey on businesses with CRM strategy shows that the strategy’s failing rates are between 65% to 70% (Almotairi, 2010; Kale, 2004). Organizational culture is identified by most researchers as one of the most important factors that enables or disables the achievement of desirable CRM outcomes (Buttle, 2004; Curry and Kkolou, 2004; Iriana and Buttle, 2006; Kale, 2004; Siriprasoetsin et al., 2011). Various studies have attempted to find organizational culture factors with potential impacts on CRM implementations. Jeremy and Rogers (1999) in their study found below factors essential to fill in the existing gap between CRM vision and its reality: a) defined set of mission and vision of the CRM strategy between all personnel and departments b) move decision making processes down to all personnel (known as front-line empowerment) c) motivating and involving personnel d) creating a learning environment and innovative atmosphere are essential to fill in the existing gap between CRM vision and its reality. Further Chen and Popovich (2003) in their study identified a set of organizational culture factors as predictors of a successful CRM program such as; a) having a customer-centric culture b) staff commitment and involvement c) having a clear set of mission and vision about CRM goals. Organizational culture changes are required since CRM implementation needs change in attitudes and processes and organizations need to encourage personnel to accept these changes (Mendoza et al., 2006). Flowing organizational culture dimensions are identified by previous studies as predictors of a successful CRM implementation: cross functional teams, culture of teamwork, committed and involved employees, adaptive and responsive attitudes towards change, information sharing, learning orientation and knowledge management, defined set of mission and visions and higher degree of innovation. As mentioned before most of these factors were identified with qualitative approaches to highlight the potential role of organizational culture in implementing CRM (Chen and Popovich, 2003; Raman et al., 2006; Verhoef and Langerak, 2002) and their impacts on CRM implementations were not subjected to empirical analysis specifically in hotel industry. Considering the critical role of organizational culture in hotel industry due to its human based nature, current research will be empirically investigating the impact of composite organizational culture factors as identified by previous studies on implementing CRM in the context of the hotel industry. Accordingly the below conceptual framework and hypothesis were proposed.

Hypothesis: Organizational culture has a positive impact on CRM implementation in hotel industry.

![Figure 1: Research Conceptual Framework](image)

An overview of the previous literature regarding organizational culture and CRM shows that the identified organizational culture factors with potential impact on CRM implementation (Curry and Kkolou, 2004; Kale, 2004; Raman et al., 2006) have overlaps with all the organizational culture traits defined by Denison Model. Hence, the Denison organizational culture survey (Denison and Neala, 1996) is selected as the instrument to measure the organizational culture side of current study. Mendoza model (Mendoza et al., 2006) is selected for measuring the CRM implementation.

RESEARCH METHOD

A chain hotel from the UK was selected as the case of the research. The budget hotel started its CRM project in 2003. The instrument for gathering the data is a questionnaire comprised of two standard questionnaires of DOCS (Denison and
Neale, 1996) and Mendoza CRM Model (Mendoza et al., 2006). The questionnaire consisted of 86 questions and designed based on a 5-point Likert scale with an agree/disagree continuum (1-strongly disagree, 2- disagree, 3-neither agree nor disagree, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree). The first 60 questions are related to organisational culture and adapted from DOCS. The following 26 questions belongs to CRM implementation and adapted from the Mendoza Model. Last 6 questions of the questionnaire are related to demographic details of respondents. The total population is 364 managers of all branches. An online survey tool (Survey Monkey) was used and the link of survey was sent to the email of the respondents. In total, 235 (64%), completed questionnaires returned back. Partly completed questionnaires were disregarded and 214 (58%) questionnaires were used for the statistical analysis of the study. Collected data was subjected to correlation and multiple regression analysis by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.

RESULTS

Demographic analysis showed that majority of the respondents (53.2%) was female. More than forty present of the respondents were between the ages of 30 and 39. Thirty present of the respondents had undergraduate education and thirty present of the respondents had post graduate education. Correlational analyses were used to examine the relationship between composite factors of organizational cultural and CRM implementation. Composite score are calculated by averaging items representing both CRM and organizational culture. The results suggested that variables are positively correlated and correlations were significant and equal to .74 \( p < .001 \) two-tailed. Toward testing the hypothesis and finding whether organizational culture (Independent factor) is the predictors of CRM implementation (dependent variable) regression analysis is conducted. A regression analysis is first confirmed by testing the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals, revealing that the residuals are normally distributed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). According to F-value= 60.346 with sig < .05, it can be said that the model has a good fit for the data. The results showed that there is a positive and significant relationship between organizational cultures with CRM implementation. In another word organizational culture is the predictor of CRM outcomes.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

While different researchers identified organizational culture factors as most important factors that enables or disables the achievement of desirable CRM outcomes, current study conducted toward addressing the gap of the literature for a comprehensive empirical study to investigate the impact of organizational cultures on CRM implementation in hotel industry. The correlation ad regression analysis demonstrates that organizational cultures have a positive significant impact on CRM implementation of hotels, which is the answer to the gap of the literature (Iriana and Buttle, 2006).

REFERENCES


IS THERE UPPER BOUND IN DEMAND FOR RESTAURANTS? A SPATIAL ECONOMICS APPROACH TO IDENTIFY DEMAND

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INTRODUCTION

Restaurants are by nature places where consumers come to a certain location to purchase a perishable product. Within this definition a significant property about restaurants has been embedded which is consumers are required to come to a certain location at an expense of their own to consume at a restaurant. In other words, a restaurant’s consumer demand is not only dependent to the menu price but is also dependent to distance since time and money are both additionally spent to dine out aside from the price of the food. For instance, let us assume that there are two identical restaurants which sell the exact identical food and quality but one is further than the other in distance from the consumer. The rational decision for the consumer would be to choose the restaurant that is closer since the consumer requires less time and money to dine out than dinning out to the further restaurant. By extending this concept, if it is agreeable that consumers’ expense increases as distance increase because of the increase in cost of time and travel expense, and if it is agreeable that consumers have a maximum budget constraint for time and money willing to spend at a restaurant service, the natural conclusion will be an existence of a maximum demand bound for all restaurants since there will be a distance point where consumers are no longer willing to dine in a particular restaurant because of the high cost to distance. The idea that restaurants have a maximum bound for consumer demand, despite that there is no change in menu price, can be a very important concept in restaurant practice and research. It is because a maximum upper bound in demand leads to a maximum upper bound in revenue which differentiates the industry from manufacturing companies where transportation costs for moving products to a certain destination as well as tariffs between nations have been constantly reducing over the years (Baier & Bergstrand, 2001). More importantly, the cost of time is a lesser issue to manufactures who buy material since the seller can adjust product delivery time to buyers’ needs as opposed to consumers who dine out to restaurants that have inevitable cost of spending their leisure time to arrive at the restaurant.

The concept that a maximum bound in revenue exists for all restaurants leads to two important conclusions to practitioners which are (1) a maximum bound for profit exists for an investment in restaurants due to distance from the customer and (2) restaurant profitability is highly dependent to the number of willing to consume consumers within the distance which leads to a geographical issue in profitability. Conclusion (1) can be easily found by looking into the equation of profitability where revenue is the maximum profit a restaurant can earn since cost can only decrease profitability from revenue. Therefore, a maximum profit can never be larger than the maximum revenue which concludes to a maximum bound in profitability. The conclusion can be easily shown mathematically as $\text{Profit} \leq \text{Revenue}$ The second conclusion which is revenue depends on the number of willing to consume consumers within the distance of a restaurant can also be found in the revenue equation where quantity is now affected by distance from consumers. If distance is considered as a cost to consumers, a restaurant will have higher revenue when it is closer to the consumers that are willing to consume at the restaurant.

Although restaurant demand bound is dependent to distance and is the maximum potential geographical radius for demand, it is not the sole factor in estimating revenue. In reality, competition and
diversity in restaurants are also possible significant factors that play a role in determining revenue. Under the assumption that a bound exists for all restaurants, the two factors will for sure reduce the restaurant’s revenue since all competing restaurants regardless of their variety are substitutes of the other which decreases revenue. Therefore, this paper attempts to first theoretically prove that a maximum bound exist for each restaurant in a monopoly case by applying two assumptions which are

- No competition exists which means that there is only one firm within the demand bound
- Homogenous preference to the restaurant menu where consumers feel the same utility to the restaurant

The two assumptions are important since maximum bound are affected by competition and variety which the first assumption will later be relaxed to show how estimated revenue would change in a situation where competition with the same product exist and how estimated revenue are different when there is competition with different restaurant segments. Finally, the paper suggests an empirical test approach to find whether demand bounds are larger for full service restaurants than limited service restaurants which implements the relationship between increase prices to provide hedonic value.

**METHOD AND FINDINGS**

**Existence of maximum bound for restaurants**

Models for cost of distance are not a new concept in spatial economics. One of the pioneers in this field of study was Weber (1909) which attempted to explain locations of companies using the supply side. The study claimed that a company’s optimal location is based on the distance of the suppliers’ material from the company, the cost per weight of the material the supplier needed to produce a product, and the amount of input that is required to produce the company’s product. Findings showed in Weber theory showed that location of the company would be closer to the materials that cost per weight to transfer and an increase in the amount of input would also force the company to locate closer to the materials. The contributions of this study were one of the first pioneers to explain the importance of distance and location on the supply side of spatial economics. However, the demand should also be considered as much as the supply especially for restaurant industry since the amount of demand explains the upper bound of a restaurants profit. The model first starts with the simple aggregated Marshall’s linear demand curve equation for a particular restaurant

\[ q = \frac{a}{b} - \frac{b}{p} (a, b > 0) \quad \text{(Equation 1)} \]

where \( q \) is the quantity, \( a \) is the maximum price that no consumer will consume at the restaurant, \( p \) is the price, and \( b \) is the slope of the demand curve. When adding the consideration of space and time, the important implication is that consumers pay additional time and cost for reaching to the restaurant aside from the price that they pay within the restaurant which is shown in equation2

\[ p = m + rt_{ij} \quad \text{(Equation 2)} \]

where \( p \) is the total price that a consumer pays to consume at a restaurant, is the price that they pay to the restaurant, \( t_{ij} \) is the total time they travel to reach the restaurant, and \( r \) is the cost per unit time of the distance. To first show that a maximum demand bound exists for restaurants in a simplified version, the following restricted assumptions are applied to first control for completion and diversity:

**Assumption1:** The restaurant has no competition within its maximum bound
**Assumption2:** Consumers have homogenous preference to the restaurant menu

By inputting equation2 into equation1 and rearranging the equation, the price paid to the restaurant in space and time can be shown as

\[ m = a - rt_{ij} - bq_{(r_{ij})} \quad \text{(Equation 3)} \]

The implication of equation3 is that all consumers will have different demand curves depending on the distance from the restaurant. More importantly, because consumer demand curves depend on their distance from the restaurant, there exists a maximum bound in distance where a consumer who lives far away from the restaurant will not consume which can be shown using the company’s marginal revenue (hereafter MR) and marginal cost (hereafter MC). To show why this happens, an example is provided where 3 consumers live at \( t_{1r} > t_{2r} > t_{3r} \) which means \( t_{3r} \) lives the farthest
from the restaurant and \( t_{3r} \) is the closest to the restaurant. According to equation 3, the demand curves for the three people will all have different intercept points as shown in figure 1 (a) since there is an additional cost when traveling to a remote area. When aggregating the three consumers’ demand horizontally, the total demand curve will differ in slope depending on how far the consumer is from the restaurant as shown in point ABCD of figure 1 (b). The restaurant’s marginal revenue (MR) can be calculated by \( MR = dTR/dq \) where total revenue (TR) is \( TR = m \times q \). When inputting equation 3 inside TR, total revenue is \( TR = (a - rt - bq(ri)) \times q \). Finally, by taking the derivative of TR respect to \( q \), the marginal revenue (MR) is found by \( MR = a - rt - 2bq(ri) \) which are shown in point AEFGH in figure 1 (b). For simplicity, if we assume that MC is a constant and that MR=MC is the restaurant maximized profit point an important result can be found. The maximum profit of the restaurant is generated from only consumer \( t_{1r} \) and \( t_{3r} \) and not consumer \( t_{2r} \) since the cost to travel the distance to the restaurant for consumer \( t_{2r} \) is too great. Therefore, the maximum bound is \( t_{2r} \) in this discrete model which concludes to the first theorem,

**Theorem 1:** An upper bound exists in demand for all restaurants due to additional price for distance.

The implication of this theorem shows that although the menu price is constant over time, consumers will still have heterogeneous price acceptance due to difference in where the consumer is located. The example also shows that there should be a certain maximum radius demand for all restaurants. However, the radius is not the same for all restaurant type. This is because all restaurants’ utility is different to consumers for different restaurants. For example, let us compare a quick service restaurant to a fine dining restaurant. People expect more out of a fine dining experience than a quick service restaurant such as hedonic aspects such as interior or atmosphere (Ha and Jang, 2013). This additional aspect might generate higher utility which allow consumers who dine at fine dining restaurants to have a higher tolerance to distance and therefore, consumers will be willing to travel longer distance for fine dining restaurants than quick service restaurants.

![Fig.1. Change in demand due to difference in consumer distance](image)

**Allowing competition and product diversity by relaxing Assumption 1 & Assumption 2**

Hotelling (1929) was one of the first studies related to spatial economics and completion. The study uses a duopoly case where two identical product selling company’s sold in a certain district where consumers where evenly spread out. Hotelling (1929) showed that even though the two companies started at different locations the result would end as a nash equilibrium located adjacent to each other. However, although the end result of Hotelling (1929) is intriguing, the final result only happens in a duopoly case and not in a higher number of competing companies than two. More importantly the Hotelling (1929) assumes that the two competing companies produce an identical product which is not the case for restaurants. Restaurants can be segmented into quick service restaurants, casual dining restaurants, and fine dining restaurants. Even within each segment the price range and utility are differ which further complicates the issue of competition and diversity.
However, this paper attempts to deal with the issue by relaxing assumption1 and assumption2 which allows heterogeneous products and competition. When considering different products the concept of utility is required because all restaurants will have different utilities depending on different type of service. Salop (1979) model is modified by assuming that there are different restaurants with different prices at locations. Restaurant at location is valued by consumers with most preferred variety by the preference function. The possibility that when utility is not met the consumer will consume at home which we denote as is also included. Aside from restaurants’ utilitarian aspects which are price and distance cost, one other important aspect that a restaurant contains is the hedonic aspect which is the restaurant emotional utility that consumers are willing to pay additional opportunity cost of time and higher prices to enjoy hospitality service. For a consumer to consume at restaurant the utility maximization should be

$$\max_{i} \left[ U(i,j) + U(h_j) - p_i \right] \geq \bar{c}$$

(Equation 4)

where is which is the utility of utilitarian aspect and is the time travel distance and is. By inputting and to equation 4 and rearranging the equation, the model can be written as

$$\max_{i} \left[ u_a + u_{ih} - \bar{c} - p_i - c(t_i + t_{ij}) \right] \geq 0$$

(Equation 5)

Equation 5 shows that the reservation price is \( v = u_a + u_{ih} - \bar{c} \). Total monetary price paid is \( p_i \), and the total opportunity cost of time is \( c(t_i + t_{ij}) \). By first relaxing assumption1, equation 5 can be shown graphically as figure 2 (a) where a case can be found that two companies with identical price and bound overlap in competition with both having and the intercept as \( p_i \), and the slope of \( c(t_i + t_{ij}) \). In such case, both companies will decrease in bound where company A decreases to point \( \bar{A} \) and company B decreases to point \( \bar{B} \). Therefore, the results lead to this paper’s second theorem.

**Theorem 2:** An increase in completion will decrease the demand bound which in return decreases the total revenue for each restaurant.

By additionally relaxing assumption2, Figure 2 (b) shows an example with full service and limited service restaurant where company A is full service and B is limited service. Studies in the hospitality restaurant research have found that limited service are utilitarian orientated while full service restaurants consist of more hedonic value which implement that \( u_{ih} \) (full service) > \( u_{ih} \) (limited service) (e.g. Ryu and Han, 2010). It is also known by common sense that people generally spend longer times in full service restaurants than in limited service restaurants \([t_{ij}\text{(full service)}>t_{ij}\text{(limited service)}]\) and the price is higher for full service restaurants than in limited service restaurants \([p_i\text{(full service)}>p_i\text{(limited service)}]\). By using the restrictions to equation 5, figure 2 (b) explains the relationship of competition and difference in products. The results show that company A will earn less than company B below of limited service but will earn a surplus \( v_f - v_l \) in which limited service will not be able to reach.

One question that this model can solve through empirical test is whether the demand bound for full service is larger than limited service. If there is information of average \( p_i \), distance from competitors, average revenue for each restaurant, and average time spent in each restaurant the estimated opportunity cost of time can be estimated which will provide an estimation for \( \bar{AE} \) and \( \bar{DH} \). Using a simple t-test for \( \bar{AE} \) and \( \bar{DH} \) will find whether full service has a larger bound than limited service. If it is empirically found true that \( \bar{AE} > \bar{DH} \), the implication is that current full service restaurants’ hedonic value is worth the increase in price.
CONCLUSION

This study attempts to theoretically explain that a maximum demand bound exists for restaurants using the characteristic that consumers have to come to the restaurant to consume. The model explains that distance and time spent is a key factor in explaining restaurant demand bound while competition plays as a factor in reducing the demand bound of a restaurant and also reduces the revenue of both restaurants. However, when comparing for different segments the findings of reduction in bound and revenue becomes complicated by the fact that utility for full service restaurants are higher than quick service restaurants and therefore full service restaurants might have a long distance acceptance to consumers and also have higher revenue due to the additional revenue that quick service restaurants cannot access to. One of the potentials of this model is the possibility to find whether hedonic value is worth the higher price for full service restaurants comparing to limited service restaurants which we present as an example to utilize this model. However, this model is not free from limitations when empirically tested. This is because revenue and demand are also affected by other factors which are not considered in the model such as satiation (Caro and Albéniz, 2012) and economy of scale which have the possibility to change results. Therefore, a cautious and practical approach should be developed to empirically find both maximum bound and value of hedonic versus utilitarian in restaurants.

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THE VALUE OF GASTRONOMY IN HOSPITALITY

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One of the factors that affect tourists’ value of experience is the value in consumption where food experience plays a crucial role. While gastronomic tourism has always existed, its popularity is very much on the increase nowadays. It is not considered unusual to travel long distances for food tasting and wise professionals are taking the best advantage of this demand. Even if the main purpose of the travel is not gastronomy-related, food experience is still highly significant for building strong experience value.

This paper focuses on the importance of gastronomy, its role in creating value in consumption and how the optimal food experience can be achieved in today’s field of tourism. A true gastronomic experience requires not only good taste but also a harmony of visuals, presentation and service. Therefore, gastronomy will be analysed as a whole process from the aspects of presentation, service and taste. Creating value in the consumption of food is also a matter of good and fitting representation. As gastronomy is a key element of the culture, it is essential to represent the related cuisine if cultural tourism is intended. Thus, the topic of relevancy will be covered in this paper. The sense of taste and its part in creating an emotional platform for the customer will also be examined along value creation in consumption. The paper intends to establish a good understanding of the core aspects of food experience and its place in tourism.

Keywords:
Gastronomy, Hospitality, Food Value
IS THERE LIGHT AT THE END OF THE HOSPITALITY CAREER TUNNEL FOR FEMALE HOSPITALITY STUDENTS?

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INTRODUCTION

In Australia, the Accommodation and Food Service Industry has reported gender ratios of female (55%) employees outnumbering male (45%) employees (Workplace and Gender Equality Agency, 2015). This shift can be linked to more women having higher education qualifications, which leads to employment. Ladkin (2000) argued that hospitality students were more confident about securing a job if they obtained a higher education qualification. This has seen a well-qualified hospitality younger generation with expectations of getting quick promotions (Chen & Choi, 2008). However, the issue arises when it comes to the managerial gender composition as the Workplace and Gender Equality Agency (2015) have reported that across industries about 65.4% of the managerial positions are made up by men while only 34.6% are made up by women.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are a number of key attributing factors that can be seen as barriers faced by employees towards a successful hospitality industry. The importance of work-life balance, career development opportunities and good working environment are considered by most employees in their progression in the hospitality industry. Such demanding workload makes it hard for people, especially those who have families, to survive in the job they have (Mooney & Ryan, 2009). Likewise, employee empowerment and involvement are key elements in retention and commitment of hospitality employees (Kusluvan, et al 2010). Organizational conditions play a role in employee’s better performance at work (Kazlauskaite, et al, 2006), given the demanding nature of work that hospitality has. For women, there is an issue beyond family-related career barrier. According to earlier studies, women in the hospitality industry also experience discrimination and sex-role stereotypes that hinder them in their career advancement (Zeytinoglu et al, 2001).

Thus, it is not surprising that hospitality students prefer to more popular hospitality career choices in departments such as Sales & marketing and Human Resources, while Food and Beverage and Front Office are the least favoured departments (Jenkins, 2001). The opportunity for interaction has also been identified by hospitality students to be their main reason for choosing a career path in the industry (Chuang & Dellmann-Jenkins, 2010). However, it is also important to note that students also expect efforts from hotel companies to be developed and retained (Scott & Revis, 2008). With that being said, it is also with the educational institutions role to assure their students of their employment by networking with the companies from industry (O’Leary & Deegan, 2005).

The paper employs an established human decision making theory, Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) to examine the different variables that influence female students’ attitudes and barriers towards their hospitality career goals. The TPB is a rational decision making model used to examine the anticipation of behaviour from intentions of an individual (Ajzen, 1991). There are three key independent variables used in the prediction: 1) people’s attitudes (Att) towards a particular behaviour; 2) perception of others’ influence (subjective norm - SN) as to whether they would approve or disapprove of the performance of a particular behaviour; and 3) perceived behavioural control (PBC) of an individual’s
perceived ease or difficulty in performing a particular behaviour. These three key determinants can be useful for understanding motivational factors towards choosing a career path in the hospitality industry as a woman.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study adopted the elicitation technique using the TPB variables (Goh, 2009; 2010). The objective was to gather information regarding the research problem of students’ attitudes, key social groups and perceived difficulties toward pursuing a career in hospitality. The handpicked sampling technique was adopted as recommended by O’Leary (2013) that involves selecting a sample with a particular intention in mind, which allows researchers to intrinsically explore interesting cases or improve knowledge by going beyond the set boundaries. Respondents (n=23) consisted of female hospitality students enrolled in a Private Hotel Management School in Australia were chosen through a convenience sampling method which gave way for snowball sampling method. Such sampling method was used due to the time and cost concerns. Personal short interviews were used as the primary data collection method. Students were informed that the interviews were to be recorded and used solely for research purpose. Each interview session lasted between 10 – 15 mins. In order to ensure anonymity, participants were told to not mention their names and could leave if they felt uncomfortable about the topic at any point of the interview. Content analysis was used to analyze the data collected from the interviews as recommended by Ajzen (1991) and categorized into groups of similar patterns. This data was organized and coded into categories and a frequency analysis was conducted by taking into consideration the number of times a specific code appeared in the data so that the distribution of the most important items will be identified (Goh & Ritchie, 2011).

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

Five positive attitudes and 6 negative attitudes were elicited. The most common positive attitude identified by students is being able to connect and communicate with people, while the customer service part of the hospitality comes second as a good reason for them to be in the industry. As younger generation of employees see personal development as an important aspect of their career intention (Lub et al., 2012), multiple career opportunities were also identified as an important factor. Another positive attitude identified was that hospitality allows individuals to travel and work. On the other hand, the most mentioned negative characteristic of a career in hospitality is the long working hours as well as the irregularity of the working roster as undesirable. Students also mentioned that hospitality is a difficult industry due to the different demands of customers and the stressful environment are the bad side of working in the industry. With regards to subjective norms, the school was identified as the most influential social group. Students mentioned that the Career Development department and the school’s network made them feel assured of a career in the industry. Students also mentioned that industry professionals invited to school as guest speakers also served as a key social group for them to grow and stay in hospitality. Only a few students mentioned about being influenced by their friends and work colleagues. The third factor of behavioral intention is perceived behavioral control. Both general hindrances and in particular barriers to women’s career progression were identified. The top general barriers that the female students identified were visa restrictions, competition and the stressful environment of the hospitality industry. The difference in language and culture were also identified as a barrier to career progression. Other factors elicited by the interview were the unwillingness of the management to train staff, and age as an issue for older students in progressing in the hospitality industry. The interviews elicited five career progression barriers particular to women. Balancing family and career was identified as the most significant factor for female students. This result confirms earlier research stating that one of the most prevailing reasons for women’s career growth barrier is the incompatibility of the nature of hospitality work and family life (O’Leary & Deegan, 2005). Moreover, students also mentioned about men’s domination of leadership roles and the sexism that exist in hotel companies. Others mentioned that although some managers are women, they are single and therefore do not understand the family life. Also, some student stated that they worry about the negative perspective of companies to those individuals who have families may affect their
promotion and development in the hospitality career chosen.

CONCLUSION

Attracting and retaining the younger workforce has been a difficult task for most managers. This paper has addressed a critical research gap in the workforce literature by exploring insights of career progression of female students towards a career in hospitality. By employing TPB as a guide in this research, stakeholders such as educational institutions and companies can identify the areas that they need to focus on in order to address their challenges when it comes to entice the young educated women, who are the current and future workforce. The findings in this paper are particularly collected from female students, however results may not be necessarily exclusive to women as the male perspective were not analysed. Therefore, further research may focus on the male’s perspective on the challenges and expectations towards a career in the hospitality industry.

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HOW DO SERVICE TEAM RESOURCES AFFECT JOB PERFORMANCE? A DIARY STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

Often in airlines, hotels, and foodservice operations, service delivery is executed in teams. While many contact employees are designated to engage in personal interactions with the customers, these employees nevertheless rely on the support from their teams or operational units to add the ‘personal touch’ in their service delivery (Babbar & Koufteros, 2008). Likewise, hotels rely on service teams in order to increase service flexibility and performance (Teare, 1993), and in restaurants, teams rather than individuals are responsible for guest services, handling complaints, sales targets, ordering cutlery and glassware, and cashing up after service (Ashness & Lashley, 1995).

Furthermore, team member compositions in the hospitality industry tend to be more dynamic than other industries in accordance with its business characteristics. Individual employees may be assigned to a number of different service teams even in a day, in the airline or hotel industry. In addition, the lengthy duration of contact time renders service providers in the hospitality industry vulnerable hiding their state when contacting customers face to face. In this line of reasoning, in the hospitality industry, team-related resources for contact employees are expected to have higher impact on customers’ perceived service outcome. Therefore, the effects of team-based resources on service outcome warrant investigation.

Even in consistent job circumstances, an individual has state variations by time or situation, so called within-person fluctuations (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009a) or within-person variability (Dalal, Bhave, & Fiset, 2014). Although increased interest on within-person vari-

ation has led active researches in organizational studies (Dalal et al., 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a), the majority of approaches remain on daily-level fluctuation or conceptual discussion for situational changes. To fill this gap, the present study calls on team performance variation caused by team member variation, along with resources variation in daily basis. The aim of this study is to better understand service team performance, under team dynamics and the consequent changes of daily resources. Specifically, the role of team-member exchange is explored in service team dynamics.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Team Dynamics in Service Teams

It is natural that service performance, even for individual employees contacting customers, depends significantly on the composition and the co-workers of the teams that the individual employees are assigned to. Accordingly, the importance of team dynamics in service performance has been well recognized in the academic literature with a rather diverse scope. A few notable works include investigation on the work-team personality composition and team performance (Neuman et al., 1999), link between the personal heterogeneity in teams and team performance (Mohammed & Angell, 2003), inquiry on the effect of leader-member exchanges on team performance (Boies & Howell, 2006), and the relationship between team attributes and performance of operational service teams (Lee, To, & Billy, 2013). At the heart of these relations, it is inferred that working with different colleagues influences individual team-members, and consequently, performance.

Theories on within-person variation often fo-
Focus on psychological aspects such as affect, personality or motivation, but lately interests on work situation as an integrated factor for within-person performance variability is increasing (Dalal et al., 2014). Abrupt situational changes such as reconstruction of team composition (members) are feasibly considerable variation. Intra-team relationship has approached and studied from diverse standpoints. The predictors of performance in the aspect of team-member interaction include conflict (Jehn & Mannix, 2001), team climate (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; González-Romá & Gamero, 2012; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002), social network (Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001), and social exchange between leader-member (Banks, Batchelor, Seers, O’Boyle, Pollack, & Gower, 2014) and/or between team-members (Kamdar & Dyne, 2007). Therefore, it is hypothesized that change in team member composition influences individual performance by interacting with other resources.

Job demand, Job-related Resources and Team Performance

Job demands and resources (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Veldhoven, & Xanthopoulou, 2010) model has risen as an alternative to Demand-Control model (DCM; Karasek, 1979, 1998), as recognizing that job control is limited to explain the complexity of job-related resources. Job demand refers to a cost-associating job-related physical or psychological effort, whereas job resources refer to any physical, social or organizational aspects of the job supporting goal achievement or personal growth in workplace (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004). By interacting with job demands, job resources often reduce job related physical or psychological costs. Job demands are not necessarily negative (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), but they turn into job strain beyond adequate level of employee acceptance. The JD-R model assumes that the two factors, job demands and resources, are applicable to various occupational settings irrespective of the particular components of the factors (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This assumption has encouraged researchers to account for various components when measuring job demands and resources with different dimensions or structures. Another aspect of job resources considered is that of personal resources (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009b). Due to the reciprocal relationship between personal resources and other job resources (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, & Barrick, 2004; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007), job resources in broader view includes personal resources.

The most studied output variable of JD-R the most has been employee psychological well-being, whereas job performance is less studied or has mixed results despite the virtue of its theoretical and practical importance (Bakker et al., 2004). Increase of studies on the relationship between JD-R and performance in recent years prove the notion. In the hospitality setting, Xanthopoulou et al. (2009a) analyzed the relationship between job and personal resources and performance in a fast food restaurant using the diary study method. Salanova, Agut, and Peiro’ (2005) reported that organizational resources were found to predict customer assessed employee performance and customer loyalty.

Team-Member Exchange (TMX) under team dynamics

Interpersonal context of job resources has been regarded as a critical component in job resources along with task and organizational aspects (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Halbesleben, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). TMX, a significant variation factor in organizational performance (Liden, Sandy, & Sparrowe, 2000; Seers, 1989) refers to the quality of exchange relationships among members in working group developed based on the social exchange theory (Seers, 1989). Notwithstanding the important implications of coworker relationships for employee working behavior and unlike leader-member exchange (LMX), TMX is less seriously undertaken in organizational behavior research (Kamdar & Dyne, 2007). Susskind and Borchgrevink (1999) path analyzed the effect of TMX, a team-interactive factor, to team performance in hospitality context. The empirical analysis revealed the TMX as a significant latent antecedent of team performance with positive coefficient.

Based on the theoretical and empirical foundations, the following hypotheses are proposed: H1. Day-level job demands and job-related resources affect day-level service team performance.
H1a. Day-level job demands have a negative effect on day-level service team performance.
H1b. Day-level job-related resources have a positive effect on day-level service team performance.
H2. Working with other JD-R, TMX under team dynamics has a positive effect on service team performance.

DATA AND METHODS

In order to collect JD-R and performance data at the team level, a laboratory that replicated an actual coffee shop setting was operated inside a university in South Korea. Teams were responsible for providing service to the customers at the contact point, which includes greeting and taking orders, preparation and serving of the menu items, and any other service required on an ad-hoc basis. Six service employees were recruited on campus for their participation in the experiment without being exposed to the purpose or details of the study. A questionnaire on perceived service performance for customers, and a daily diary for employees were developed based on a thorough review of the relevant literature. Scales that were validated in previous studies were identified and modified for the study on hand.

The experiment was executed for 20 days from Tuesday through Thursday, in Oct-Nov 2015. Each team combination consisted of three employees, and all possible combinations (6C3 = 20) of the teams were randomly distributed to each day, allowing no duplicate team composition. Consistent daily condition including job description and job authority was maintained but team composition and customer demand, for team composition was intentionally manipulated in the study and the demand was uncontrollable in a virtual field experiment.

Meanwhile, many researchers invite common respondents when measuring predictor and criterion variable, and it is potential cause of common method biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). This study made an effort to reduce such bias through different sources in measurement. As the job performance of contact-service employee is the service outcome, this study measured the performance of service employee using customer evaluation of the service provided. Daily performance of service team, the dependent variable, was assessed by actual customers who were served by the team. Service performance was limited to customer-provider interactive service quality to focus on variation of human resources, and the items were adopted from SERVEQUAL (Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1988) and Brady and Cronin (2001) but modified and reduced to essentials to fit to the field study. In general, job demands cover both physical and psychological aspects. Due to the simplicity of job description and limited working hours for service employees in this experiment however, workload was selected as a reasonable variable addressing job demands. As the response rate was fairly corresponded with number of visitor, which increase or decrease job demand level, the number of questionnaires collected each day was taken as a proxy of job demand. Day-level job and personal resources were measured by employees on the daily shift, with three items of autonomy (Bakker et al., 2004), two of self-efficacy (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995), two of organizational-based self-esteem (Pierce et al., 1989) and two of optimism (Scheier et al., 1994), as used in measuring day-level work-related personal resources by Xanthopoulou et al. (2009). Considering the characteristics of tasks in the coffee shop and relatively short duration of working hours, the quality of team-member exchange was measured with two applicable items based on Seers (1989). TMX has often measured by ones’ perception of coworkers. In this research however, TMX is measured by the teammates in order to separate measurement sources of variables, and to reflect not the perceived but the actual exchange quality provided by the teammates. The questions were modified to alter the subject of behavior, and the sample item is, “Today, I took extra work to help ensure the completion of teammate’s work”, changed from “Today, my co-worker took extra work to help ensure the completion of my tasks”. Followed by the previous studies, the ranges of all the survey items were 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). For the dependent variable, a total of 186 customer responses assessing daily team performance was collected (average of 9.3 per day), and for independent variables measuring an employee’s job-related resources and the TMX from the teammates working with the employee on the same shift of were comprised of 60 responses from 6 employees in 10 different team combinations. Multiple regression was conducted to identify rela-
tions and interactions among daily JD-R, TMX, and team performance.

RESULTS

Measurement reliability was tested with Cronbach’s α, and the items increasing α when deleted were removed, following Nunnally’s (1978) measure validation process. One item on autonomy was deleted from this procedure. The alpha for job-related personal resources items were .918 showing high consistency. Principle component analysis revealed two factors, one for autonomy and self-efficacy (herein “control” factor), and the other for self-esteem and optimism (herein “positivity” factor), from job and personal resources items (KMO= .87, p<.001 for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity), and the mean scores for each factor were used for further analysis. Service team performance, assessed by customers with items reflecting three aspects were averaged, and TMX were brought from other teammates’ diary and averaged. Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Demand</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>Positivity</th>
<th>TMX</th>
<th>Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demanda</td>
<td>9.30</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.306**</td>
<td>.617***</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlb</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.306**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positivityb</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>.249</td>
<td>.617***</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMXc</td>
<td>5.93</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.348***</td>
<td>.426***</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performanced</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>-.311**</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.263**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 2 summaries the regression results. Because of the heteroscedasticity issue among variables from different sources, weighted least squares (WLS) regression was executed to test the hypotheses. Job demand was negatively influenced on team performance, supporting H1a (β = -.035, p < .01). H1b was partially supported however, since the control factor (autonomy and efficacy) showed no statistically significant effect on team performance, whereas the positivity factor (self-efficacy and optimism) was positively significant (β = .153, p < .01). In the first model, team performance was regressed on JD-R variables. TMX was input as additional independent variable the second model, and was found to be significant (β = .096, p < .05), with the significant effect of job demand (β = -.041, p < .01) and positivity resources (β = .120, p < .01) were still exist. Therefore, H2 was supported. No significant joint effect was found between JD-R and TMX, means TMX as a moderator.

Table 2. Regression Results for Service Team Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Service team performance (customer rated)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Model 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demanda</td>
<td>-.035***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlb</td>
<td>-.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positivityb</td>
<td>.153***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMXc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2 (Adj. R2)</td>
<td>.429 (.399)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR2</td>
<td>.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F (df)</td>
<td>14.03*** (59)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Data are standardized regression coefficients.

TMX = team-member exchange. Control: Autonomy & self-efficacy Positive: Organizational-based self-esteem & Optimism

Table 2 summaries the regression results. Because of the heteroscedasticity issue among variables from different sources, weighted least squares (WLS) regression was executed to test the hypotheses. Job demand was negatively influenced on team performance, supporting H1a (β = -.035, p < .01). H1b was partially supported however, since the control factor (autonomy and efficacy) showed no statistically significant effect on team performance, whereas the positivity factor (self-efficacy and optimism) was positively significant (β = .153, p < .01). In the first model, team performance was regressed on JD-R variables. TMX was input as additional independent variable the second model, and was found to be significant (β = .096, p < .05), with the significant effect of job demand (β = -.041, p < .01) and positivity resources (β = .120, p < .01) were still exist. Therefore, H2 was supported. No significant joint effect was found between JD-R and TMX, means TMX as a moderator.
CONCLUSION

Thoroughly manipulating service team dynamics through experimental design, the current study investigates the effect of team resources on team performance. The results of empirical analysis indicate that daily fluctuation of certain team resources, both the positive component of employees (optimism and organizational-based self-efficacy) and the interactive relationship quality given by team-members (TMX) positively affects customer-evaluated service team performance, whereas daily workload pose a negative impact. Therefore it is concluded that service team resources improve team performance, a predictor of customer satisfaction and organizational profit.

This study is expected to contribute significantly to both furthering of knowledge in the academic literature and effective team-based service management by the practitioner audience. Most conspicuously, the inquiry on performance of service teams in hospitality and tourism organizations has been a longstanding one with major findings limited to the relationships among latent constructs that lead to team performances (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008). While of significant value in understanding the dynamic team processes, they still fall short of providing a theoretical framework to manage the schedule of service team members, which undoubtedly would affect team performances. This study is interdisciplinary in nature with introducing the both concepts of JD-R and TMX. Based on the notion from the previous literature that the job demands and resources affect job performance, this study fills the research gap by further examining daily variation of JD-R under service team dynamics in hospitality setting. Within the process, TMX was brought into JD-R model, measured by other team-members in the same working shift, and empirically validated. TMX is mostly studied in organizational behavior research, while job resources are in the domain of human resources management. From theoretical reviews and the organic and reciprocal nature of each field, the current study introduces the intersection from the two different arenas. In addition, by employing a 7-week longitudinal diary study and separating raters for measuring independent and dependent variables, this study attempted to overcome possible common method biases caused by common raters. Matching data from different sources was challenging, but it would relieve potential artificial covariance between predictor and criterion variable, increasing reliability and validity of the results (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Meanwhile, in employee rostering and scheduling research, focus has been rather limited to satisfying the labor demand varying through cycles and seasons, minimizing labor costs, and complying with various employment laws and regulations that the organizations are subjected to (Bard & Binici, 2003). By considering the service quality which is a critical component for hospitality companies to succeed, this study suggests practical implications for hospitality organizations to deal with service team dynamics. For service employees whose tasks are frequently carried out at the team level (Ashness & Lashley, 1995), HR managers in hospitality and/or service industry can consider the impacting variables in their decision making processes.

Nevertheless, this study cannot be free from a number of limitations. Even if the job condition was plain and relatively consistent throughout the experiment, daily job demands physically and psychologically perceived by employees may vary. Another issue comes with the use of part-timers in the experiment. The employees recruited for this study were not a full-time worker thus had tentative contract period with relatively short duration of working hours. This nature is not consistent with full-time or regular workers and may lead some differences in the output. Regarding the characteristics of hospitality industry with seasonality and fluctuating demand, an uptake and the rostering of part-time staffs are commonly occurred (Ernst, Jiang, & Sier, 2004) and thus the findings are believed to be useful in a certain extend. Lastly, field experiment utilizing an actual coffee shop could strengthen the validity of the findings but the locational constraint, in a campus, might have biased sample to be generalized. Physical limitations including the duration of experiment and the sample size should be also counted. Duplication of the research from multiple sites with larger sample size would allow more valid and reliable conclusion.

For further discussion, two interesting things were found from the result. One is an insignificant
effect of the control factor in job and personal resources on team performance. The factor covers job autonomy and self-efficacy, and the level of daily job autonomy and self-efficacy of employees has little impact of customer perceived service quality. According to Kamdar and Dyne (2007), employees with agreeable personality have a higher tendency of helping coworkers. Self-efficacy and agreeability are not always incomparable, but the traits are quite different. For this reason, it is cautiously inferred that the control aspect of the employees may work as robustness hence negatively affect other teammates or customers. Based on profound evidence of positive relationship between job control and performance, this result needs to be further investigated. The other is a decrease of beta of positivity factor from model 1 to model 2 in Table 2. The result indicates the effect of personal resources, organizational-based self-esteem and optimism slightly dampened when accompanying with TMX. Mediation test of TMX between positivity and team performance through hierarchical regression revealed no significant results, and therefore complexity of the interactions among JD-R on team performance is expected to be more explored in the future research.

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AN INTEGRATIVE LOOK AT LEISURE TRAVEL OUTCOMES AND LIFE SATISFACTION AMONG CHINESE EMPLOYEES

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INTRODUCTION

As people are becoming more aware of the importance of wellbeing and quality of life, academic research in this area has been growing rapidly. Neal and colleagues (1999) were among the first to examine the effects of leisure travel as a life event on individuals’ life satisfaction, whose research indicates that life satisfaction can be directly influenced by trip satisfaction. Tourism research on life satisfaction has been mainly guided by goal theory (e.g., Neal, Uysal, and Sirgy 2007, Sirgy, 2010, Sirgy, et al, 2011), which is based on the notion that tourists can experience higher levels of subjective wellbeing if they select leisure travel goals, that have high levels of positive valence and expectancy, that tourists engage in certain actions to implement these goals, and that they engage in actions to experience goal attainment (Sirgy, et al, 2011). More recent research of such has focused on different social groups (McCabe and Johnson, 2013, Pagan, 2015). In the same vein, few has ever specifically examined employees’ views about leisure travel outcomes and life satisfaction.

A review of the previous studies shows that a great variety of life satisfaction domains were identified which could be enhanced by satisfactory leisure travel outcomes. For instance, Sirgy and colleagues (2011) identified thirteen life domains which were believed to be most affected by travel/tourism. These domains are very specific, covering almost all one’s walks of life. It is noted, however, that the life satisfaction domains were analyzed separately, their cohesive influence on one’s overall life satisfaction remains undetermined; undermined could also be the practical significance as policy makers have to consider many conceptually overlapping life domains without knowing which area(s) to focus on. As such, it is suggested that the life domains should be studied in a cohesive manner when examining their roles leading to one’s overall life satisfaction.

Lindenberg (1986, 1991, and 1996) proposed the social production function theory (SPF) and applied it in social research. SPF assumes that people produce their own cognitive life satisfaction, the ultimate goal in their life, by trying to optimize achievement of universal needs via instrumental goals within the constraints they are facing. Life satisfaction in social production function theory is seen as subjective wellbeing which exists to the extent that universal needs (i.e., physical wellbeing and social wellbeing) are met; these needs are met through engaging in activities that satisfy instrumental goal (van Bruggen, 2001). According to van Bruggen (2001), the universal goal of physical well-being comprises two first-order instrumental goals: stimulation and comfort. The universal goal of social well-being comprises three first-order instrumental goals: status, behavioral confirmation and affection. As such, the social production function theory provides a basis for a systematic approach to the measurement of life satisfaction. Given the SPF approach’s distinctive feature, this study attempted to apply the hierarchical model to the context of tourism, linking people’s life satisfaction and leisure travel experience and outcomes. It is noted that, despite employees’ important role in social stability, economic growth and key support to their family life, studies of life satisfaction in the context of tourism have not specifically focused on the special group of employees yet, hence this study aims to examine employees’ leisure travel outcomes and life satisfaction who are living and working in China based on the SPF theory. More specifically, this study is designed to explore the instrumental goals sought by Chinese employees from taking leisure travel, then to examine how the instrumental goals affect their universal goals, which, in turn, lead to enhancing their overall life satisfaction.
RESEARCH METHOD

Literature review shows that a comprehensive life satisfaction study usually takes a two-step approach (e.g., Ormel et al., 1997, Sirgy et al., 2011, Hag 2012). The first step involves a semi-structured interview approach, aiming to identify experience outcomes and domains of life satisfaction; the second step uses a quantitative data analysis approach, to statistically test the relationships between experience outcomes and life satisfaction. While quantitative data analysis can help test the statistical significance of relationships among travel experience outcomes and life satisfaction, Filep (2012) called for greater use of qualitative approaches to understanding happiness within the context of tourist experiences. As a result, this study adopted a two-step approach including both the qualitative and quantitative studies. Phone interviews were conducted in the month of May, 2014. A convenience sampling technique was used to identify a pool of 56 who were the investigators’ friends or friends’ friends. After the phone interviews, the audios were transcribed; the interview transcriptions were then content analyzed to identify common notions and themes. Four doctoral students majoring in tourism management were invited to form a discussion panel with the principal investigator, to review the transcriptions as well as the notions and themes.

A questionnaire was designed based on the results of the phone interview. To test the relations among the constructs, data were collected based on a survey conducted in six Chinese cities in China starting from September 2014 and ending in November, 2014. The convenience sampling technique was used and data collection sites vary in each city based on convenience and accessibility. The survey questionnaire contained the 41 items derived from the previous qualitative study, using a five-point scale with 1 standing for very negative and 5 for very positive; in addition to the measures of the SPF constructs, demographic and travel behavior related questions were included such as gender, marital status, age, household income and previous travel experience. As a result, 540 respondents completed the surveys which proved to be valid and useable for data analyses. With the collected dataset, descriptive data analyses were conducted with SPSS, and structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses were conducted through LISREL 8.80 to examine the structural relations.

RESULTS

As a result of the content analysis and panel discussion, seven travel-driven instrumental goals and one universal goal (i.e., satisfaction with career success) were identified in addition to the pre-defined two universal goals; also identified were the items associated with the seven instrumental goals and one universal goal. In terms of measurement of the SPF constructs, in addition to the identified terms, the overall life satisfaction was to be measured based on the five-item scale developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin (1985), one example of the five items is, ‘in most ways my life is close to my ideal.’ As for the two universal goals of ‘physical satisfaction’ and ‘social satisfaction,’ one single-item variable was created to measure each of the two constructs, i.e., ‘generally, travel enhances my life satisfaction physically and mentally;’ and ‘generally, travel enhances my satisfaction in family and social life.’ Overall, a total of 41 items were to be used to measure the seven instrumental constructs, three universal constructs and one overall life satisfaction construct, respectively, in this study (Table omitted for brevity). Based on the results, ten hypotheses were developed to be tested in the quantitative part.

In order to test the structural relations with SEM, the two formative constructs needed to be transformed to be treated as reflective constructs by using Treiblmairer et al.’s (2011) two-step approach. Confirmatory Factor Analysis was first conducted, to test the goodness of fit of the measurement model. The fit indices were: x2=2499.85 (df = 576, p < .001), RMSEA = 0.079, CFI = 0.92, NFI = 0.90, which shows good fit (MacCallum, Brown, & Sugawara, 1996). Overall, the measurement model showed a good fit for the data. Convergent validity was assessed by the significant loadings between the observed variables and each latent variable; the measurement model showed goodness of fit to the data.

The structural model was estimated to test the hypothetical relations. The results showed that the goodness-of-fit indices (Goodness-of-fit statistics: x2= 2625.66 (df = 593, p <0.001), RMSEA = 0.080,
CFI = 0.92, NFI = 0.90) were all within the acceptable level, suggesting that the model is adequate. The four constructs – contextual elements/physical comfort, novelty experience, learning experience and ‘escape’ experience – explains 37% of the variance of ‘personal physical and mental satisfaction’; social recognition, behavioral confirmation and satisfaction in love/affection explains 46% of the variance in ‘satisfaction in family and social life’; and in turn, the constructs of ‘personal physical and mental satisfaction’ and ‘satisfaction in family and social life,’ together with ‘satisfaction in career development,’ explains 28% of the variance in ‘overall life satisfaction.’

The standardized coefficients and corresponding t values of the ten proposed paths, indicating that eight out of the ten paths proved to be significant (Table omitted for brevity); in other words, eight hypotheses were supported by this study, with the two hypotheses – H3 and H6 – not supported as shown in Table 3. Specifically, ‘comfort,’ ‘novelty experience,’ and ‘escape experience’ are found to contribute to ‘physical life satisfaction’ in a positive way, while ‘learning experience’ was not significant in predicting one’s personal satisfaction; one’s ‘social life satisfaction’ was significantly influenced by ‘social recognition’ and ‘satisfaction in love/affection,’ not ‘behavioral confirmation.’ In terms of one’s overall life satisfaction, all the three constructs – ‘physical life satisfaction,’ ‘social life satisfaction,’ and ‘satisfaction in career development’ proved to be significant predictors.

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

The qualitative part of this study shows that the above-mentioned instrumental goals grounded on leisure travel outcomes were all associated with the universal goals of physical satisfaction or social satisfaction. In addition, there was another construct labeled as “satisfaction in career development.” In comparison with the other instrumental goals, this construct appeared to be critical and extremely important to the satisfactory life of the working class as well as their family. As such, this construct has been identified as Chinese employees’ third universal goal, in addition to the two other SPF universal goals - physical satisfaction and social satisfaction.

The quantitative part of this study showed that the travel-driven instrumental goals of comfort, novelty experience, escape experience, status and affection were found to be significant in contributing to Chinese working people’s upper-level universal satisfaction. Specifically, the universal goal of physical satisfaction is found to be enhanced by the instrumental goals of comfort, novelty stimulation, and escape stimulation, but not by the learning stimulation. In other words, the effect of learning stimulation is insignificant and therefore ignorable at the presence of the other physical instrumental goals.

The SEM analyses further showed that all the three universal goals – physical satisfaction, social satisfaction, and satisfaction in career development – significantly influence Chinese employees’ overall life satisfaction; in turn, all the identified travel-driven instrumental goals (except ‘learning stimulation’ and ‘behavior confirmation’) influence their overall life satisfaction indirectly through the universal goals. This way, this study provided empirical evidence from the perspective of Chinese employees that satisfactory leisure travel outcomes can enhance people’s life satisfaction.

Methodology-wise, this study incorporated both reflective and formative constructs in the structural equation modeling analysis. The SPF method applied in this study evidently illustrated and analyzed the hierarchical relations among the leisure travel outcomes, instrumental goals, universal goals and overall life satisfaction. Findings of this study indicate that the specific domains of life satisfaction (or instrumental goals) resulting from satisfactory leisure travel experiences may not impact one’s overall life satisfaction directly and separately, instead, what each domain of life impacts directly is either one’s physical or social life satisfaction, which in turn, contribute to the overall life satisfaction. In addition to theoretical contributions, this study has several practical implications to China’s policymakers, tour operators, and tourist-receiving areas or travel destinations. For instance, China’s State Council has recently issued regulations on employees’ annual paid leave, to make it actually work, local governments need to take concrete measures to reinforce the implementation of the regulations and guarantee employees’ legal rights not to be deprived.
In summary, this study examined Chinese employees’ leisure travel outcomes, the relationships between the outcomes and employees’ universal goals and overall life satisfaction. The theory of social function production was introduced and applied in this study, to explore the hierarchical relations among the SFP constructs, which are either formative or reflective. This approach overcame the shortcomings of the previous approaches such as the bottom-up spillover theory, which could not integrate the relationships among the constructs, thus making the findings fragmental and not cohesive. By identifying the third universal goal, this study stresses the importance of becoming successful in career for Chinese employees, in addition to fulfilling the two other universal goals, i.e., physical and social; and the third universal goal “satisfaction in career development” should be considered as a unique universal goal for the working class in China. This study proved to be of both theoretical contributions and practical implications. As the survey was conducted with a convenience sampling technique, the sample and responses may not be representative to the population of the working class in the whole country of China. It is recommended to do more similar studies with random sampling approaches on China’s employees’ leisure travel and life satisfaction, to improve the robustness and generalizability of the results.

REFERENCES


EXPLORING APPLICATIONS OF COGNITIVE COMPUTING IN SMART DESTINATION MANAGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Recent developments in information communication technology (ICT), mobile technology, and Internet of Things (IoT) has transformed not only the tourism experience (Tussyadiah, 2015; Wang & Xiang, 2012), but also management of tourism destinations (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang & Koo, 2015).

More and more tourists have become technologically empowered, smart tourists who constantly demand destination information services throughout the entire travel experience (Tussyadiah, 2015; Wey, Yen & Shao, 2003). There are needs to transform the traditional tourism destinations to be technologically enriched smart destination to meet future tourists’ demands (Want, Li & Li, 2013).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Smart Destination. The concept of smart destination is extended from the concept of smart city, where information and resources are integrated into an infrastructure and provided to not only residents, but also tourists (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang, & Koo, 2015). Lopez de Avila (2015) defines the smart destination as “an innovative tourist destination built on an infrastructure of state-of-the-art technology, which guarantees the sustainable development of tourist areas, 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.” The State Council of the Chinese Central Government had proposed a Smart Destination Initiative with an aim to build a platform on which ICT can be seamlessly integrated into tourist activities, the consumption of tourism products, and the management of tourism resources through a variety of end-user devices (e.g., Internet of Things) (Wang, Li & Li, 2013). Although there are many hardware and software (applications) issues need to be resolved, this Smart Destination Initiative may set a benchmark for future smart destination development and management.

Tourist Experience. From the tourist’s perspective, the notion of seeking memorable travel experiences has been recognized as the ultimate goal of visiting a tourism destination (Marchiori & Cantoni, 2015; Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2012; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The formation of a tourist’s total travel experience consists of the pre-travel, on the destination, and post-travel stages. Neuhofer, Buhalis & Ladkin (2012) proclaimed that recent development in ICT, mobile technology and IoT has enabled the tourist as the co-creator of their experience in the creation of the total travel experience throughout the three stages. The tourists not only consume information about a destination, but also generate huge amount of data in a variety of forms (e.g., unstructured text, graphic, voice, video, etc.) through a variety of channels. Due to fierce competition among tourism destinations, destination management organizations have been encouraged to look for technology applications which might be used to enhance tourist experience while visiting a destination (Neuhofer et. al., 2012).

THE CHALLENGE

The development of ICT and particularly the Internet and mobile technology empowered a “new” generation of tourists who are becoming knowledgeable and are seeking exceptional value for their money and time (Buhalis & Law, 2008).
With huge amount of data both provided to and generated by the tourists, one of the challenges to destination management might be how to learn from the tourist’s perspective about their demands and expectations (i.e. the user-generated contents) quickly in a real-time and on-going environment, especially when they are in the destination, and respond with revenue generating recommendations.

OBJECTIVES OF THIS STUDY

If the trend of destination management is moving toward the smart destination, given the capabilities of machine learning and reasoning, cognitive computing might be suitable for analyzing the complex and enormous amount of data generated in a destination. As a result, the main objectives of this paper are three fold. First, we will review recent development in ICT, cognitive IoT, and smart destination development and management. Second, we will explore possible applications of cognitive computing in smart destination management. Third, there are still a lot of unknowns in implementing cognitive computing. This requires further research in, for example, integration of tourist behavior, information searching behavior, social network, marketing, and mobile service model. All these should be built upon data analytics. We will propose an agenda for future research.

REFERENCES


ECONOMIC GAINS OF TOURISM IN THE GOOD GOVERNANCE OF THE CITY OF NAGA, PHILIPPINES

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INTRODUCTION

Naga City is one of the most highly urbanized Cities in the Philippines. For this, it carries some of the notable names fit for what it is now known today. Naga City has this image of a Pilgrimage City, Third Oldest Royal City in the Philippines, Most Awarded Local Government Unit, Center of Trade and Commerce in Bicol, Bicol’s Educational Center, Cradle of Arts and Culture, Most Livable City, and Center of Good Governance.

Naga City had been renowned nationally and internationally having received numerous awards in governance and produced sterling leaders like Luis R. Villafuerte, Raul Roco and Jesse Robredo.

The City of Naga is one of the most awarded local government unit having modeled innovations in local governance. It also has the biggest advantage in terms of location being centrally located in the region where multinational companies hold their regional offices. It is the home of notable colleges and universities that had produced men and women leaders in the country.

Its residents are noted to be very hospitable that goes with the place for its long tradition of rich cultural heritage. Traditional indicators also said that life for its citizens is easier to live because of good governance where transparency and accountability are promoted to ensure a clean and innovating local government for its people. It is composed of twenty seven (27) barangays and boosts a number of tourist destinations and tourism related businesses such as fine hotels, resorts and restaurants offering world class products and services. There are at least five places of interests in the City which are regularly visited by tourists. These are the churches and monasteries, natural attractions, resorts, historical landmarks, monuments and museums.

This study is enormously significant because not only the local government units in the Philippines that can replicate the practices but also all other local governments in Asia and the Pacific who wish to recognize the best practices that will be identified.

Naga City being the center of governance in the region, this study will explore and assess how far is good governance in Naga City making a difference among the tourism industry stakeholders. This study specifically will: 1. Determine how far good governance is being implemented in the City of Naga and the economic gains it generates in the field of tourism, 2. Assess the effects of this economic gains to its stakeholders, and 3. to identify and document the best practices in tourism governance in the City of Naga that can be replicated by other local government units in the Philippines.

METHOD

This study will utilize a descriptive method of the good governance and elements of economic gains of tourism based from a combination of qualitative and quantitative designs. Data from this study will be drawn from the business sector particularly those businesses engaged in the creation of products and services being availed but not limited to tourists whether local or foreign. A triangulation of focused group discussions, interviews and site visits and the use of a structured questionnaire will be used for conducting surveys to generate the needed data. Survey groups will be the local officials of the city involved in the day to day activities and operations of the local government unit, businessman who are owners and managers of business related establish-
ments who are offering products and services such as hotels, restaurants, spas, resorts, souvenir shops and as well as their employees.

FINDINGS

Findings of this study will focus on the presentation of data to answer how far good governance is being implemented in the City of Naga and the economic gains it generates in the field of tourism, the effects of this economic gains to its stakeholders, the best practices in tourism governance in the City of Naga that can be replicated by other local government units in the Philippines. Along this line, the data on the key elements of good governance will check into the areas of economic gains of tourism.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

Conclusions of this study will be presented in different forums in several occasions for the group of businessman engaged in tourism business and to the local government officials and employees of Naga City as well as other offices to look into improving the best practices that will be uncovered. This will also create an innovative center in tourism for the replication of other local government units in the Philippines.

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LEVEL OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN THE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF PANGUIL RIVER ECOPARK IN LAGUNA, PHILIPPINES

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Far Eastern University

INTRODUCTION

Community as a stakeholder plays an essential task in tourism development; Community participation (CP) is a vital component of sustainable tourism development and is advocated as a means to achieve both planning-oriented and community-oriented objectives Shani and Pizam (2012). Haywood (1988, p. 106) defines community participation as ‘a process of involving all stakeholders (local government officials, local citizens, architects, developers, business people, and planners) in such way that decision making is shared (Okazaki, 2008). However, Addison, (1996) stated the barriers which include lack of education, business inexperience, insufficient financial assistance and conflicting vested interests have to be overcome (Okazaki, 2008).

This paper will contribute to the scant literature on community-based tourism in the Philippines by examining the level of participation and the factors that influence community participation in community-based tourism (CBT) programs of Pangil River Ecopark, Laguna, Philippines.

Pangil River Ecopark is located in Laguna. This destination is accessible from people living in Manila who are up for a budget-friendly vacation. The price is very affordable and includes the food, entrance fee, and tour guide (Guia, 2012).

Community-based tourism efforts will be measured to study the effect of participation type and it will be conducted in July 2016 until November 2016. The research designs to be used in the study are qualitative and quantitative. Survey questionnaires and in-depth interview will be utilized.

For this study, the various levels of participation as described by Arnstein (1969) will be employed. Figure 1 shows how these levels are integrated with Butler (1980) and Selin & Chavez (1995).

Figure 1. Community-Based Tourism Model as suggested by Arnstein (1969) and Selin & Chavez (1995) as developed by Okazaki (2008)
The bottom parts of Arnstein’ (1969) ladder are (1) manipulation and (2) therapy. They describe a level of non-participation that has been seen by some as a not-so genuine community-participation. The next part (3) informing and (4) consultation, are described as levels of tokenism. Under this conditions citizens may hear and be heard but their views might not heeded by the powerful. The next level, (5) placation, is seen as a higher level of tokenism. The highest levels, (6) partnership, (7) delegated power, and (8) citizen control, are thought of as citizen power.

Reid, Heather and Taylor (2000) suggest that before embarking on the creation of a tourism development plan, community members should consider developing mechanism for ensuring that all voices in the community are heard and that as many stakeholders develop the capacity to access the decision-making process as possible. Jamal and Getz (1995) recommend collaboration to manage turbulent planning domains at the local level. They add that collaboration may provide an effective mechanism for community involvement in tourism planning through selection of key stakeholders to represent the various public interests.

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THE EFFORT TO DEVELOP RESIDENTIAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM INDICATORS (STI) FOR JAPAN’S OKU-NIKKO AREA: ON THE RESIDENTS’ PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

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Japan Travel Bureau Foundation

INTRODUCTION

In order for a tourism destination to be sustainable, it is important that conditions be desirable not only for the tourists who visit the destination, but also for the residents who live there, the businesses that operate there, and the local resources that attract visitors to the destination. The creation and subsequent monitoring of indicators that express plainly as numerical data the respective situations of these tourists, residents, businesses, and local resources, in order to precisely grasp their situations and implement effective management of the tourism destination, is the idea behind Sustainable Tourism Indicators (STI)-based destination management.

The beginning of the development of STI dates back to the 1980s, when global interest in environmental issues increased and the concept of sustainability was defined. At the 1992 Earth Summit, with the goal of realizing a sustainable society, the development and use of sustainability indicators was proposed. Following on these events, also in the field of tourism, around the UNWTO, research and practice of STI has grown, and “Indicators of Sustainable Development for Tourism Destinations: A Guidebook” was published in 2004 as the outcome.

UNWTO (2004) introduces 3 phases and 12 steps as the STI development process. Issues that are faced in each destination are different, so, STI for measuring them are also different. In addition, in order to better develop and use STI, the participation of the various stakeholders in all of the 12 steps is believed to be very important.

Organizations other than the UNWTO have also been developing the STI systems. The DIT-ACHIEV Model which the Dublin Institute of Technology (DIT) developed includes 33 indicators from the following six areas: Administration-Community-Heritage-Infrastructure-Enterprise-Visitor. Specific indicators to be monitored are determined through consultation in each destination. The DIT-ACHIEV Model also argues that the participation of the various stakeholders is very important.

We are making an effort to introduce a STI for the Oku-Nikko area, one of Japan’s typical tourism destinations, as a three-year project from 2014.

In the first year of this project, we carried out an analysis of previous research and practices on STI (literature search, hearings for DIT-ACHIEV Model stakeholders), then held hearings from various stakeholders (hotels, restaurants, transport businesses, guide businesses, tourist facilities, officers, leaders residents’ association, and so on) (attendance local meetings, individual hearings), then formulated ideal visions of the Oku-Nikko area and the potential indicators. We call it “the Oku-Nikko STI-Model (draft)”. In the second year of this project, in order to measure the value of the Oku-Nikko STI-Model (draft), we carried out a visitor survey, business survey and resident survey.

UNWTO (2004) and Miller (2013) point out that too many STI will disturb efficient use of STI. Hence, it will be necessary to narrow down the indicators in the Oku-Nikko STI-Model (draft).

In this paper, which focuses on resident survey, we will report the process and results of the survey, then consider a view of the selection of appropriate STI.

METHOD

This survey was conducted between September and mid-December, 2015. The survey
was intended for all residents from elementary school sixth graders and up. This is why we heard the following story in a pre-hearing to local stakeholders. “Because the future of Oku-Nikko area depends on children, it is necessary to grasp children’s opinion. Elementary School sixth graders or higher should be able to understand the intent of the questions correctly, and express their opinions.” For children from elementary school sixth grade to junior high school third grade, we made a separate questionnaire written in plain words. The contents of the questions were almost identical in the adult version and child version.

619 surveys, equivalent to the total number of residents, were distributed. 131 surveys were collected, for a collection rate of 21.2 percent.

Surveys were distributed to all residents via community notice or mail, and collected via mail. Additionally, surveys were distributed to elementary and junior high school students at schools throughout the Oku-Nikko area.

The questionnaire used for this survey was created using, as references, the resident’s perception questionnaire survey conducted previously by Japan Travel Bureau Foundation, UNWTO (2004), and the DIT-ACHIEV Model. In addition to basic attributes, the survey items consisted largely of questions relating to the following four areas: general life circumstances; work circumstances; tourism; and local resources and attractions. There were 30 questions in total.

Prior to carrying out the survey, we held numerous hearings with various stakeholders, collecting opinions regarding survey items and implementation methods.

**FINDINGS**

The features of the profiles of the respondents are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideal visions of the Oku-Nikko area</th>
<th>STI</th>
<th>Value of STI</th>
<th>Time when value of STI was obtained</th>
<th>Data source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Oku-Nikko area is comfortable to live in</td>
<td>Local satisfaction level with comfortable to live in the Oku-Nikko area</td>
<td>25.2%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local satisfaction level with their job</td>
<td>46.8%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who intend to keep living in the Oku-Nikko area</td>
<td>35.1%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The population is being maintained</th>
<th>Number of households</th>
<th>343</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>statistics by Nikko City</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Population</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>statistics by Nikko City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of children in population</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of people who moved from cities</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of 20s in participants in community activity (ex. volunteer fire brigade)</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Locals are attached to the Oku-Nikko area</th>
<th>% who are proud to live in the Oku-Nikko area</th>
<th>48.9%</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who can identify his/her favorite place in the Oku-Nikko area</td>
<td>71.8%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results obtained by this survey are summarized as the Oku-Nikko STI Model (draft) (see Table 2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideal visions of the Oku-Nikko area</th>
<th>STI</th>
<th>Value of STI</th>
<th>Time when value of STI was obtained</th>
<th>Data source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locals are participating in community activity</td>
<td>Local participant level with community activity</td>
<td>52.7%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that he/she can be involved in decision-making about tourism</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that the Oku-Nikko area is an attractive destination</td>
<td>67.9%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that tourism is important for the Oku-Nikko area</td>
<td>88.5%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who have a favorable impression of visitors</td>
<td>45.0%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that the number of visitors is appropriate</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who want to be engaged in the tourist industry</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who want his/her children to be engaged in the tourist industry</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local satisfaction level with tourism</td>
<td>43.5%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that tourism generates employment and revenue</td>
<td>52.7%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that tourism brings about increase of the cost of living</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>% who believe that living conditions are worsening as a result of tourism</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that tourism causes traffic congestion</td>
<td>46.6%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that tourism causes the public order in the Oku-Nikko area to get worse</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that the Oku-Nikko area’s infrastructure (roads, facilities, etc.) has been maintained as a result of tourism</td>
<td>51.9%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that the scenery and townscape are getting worse as a result of tourism</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>% who believe that cultural and natural resources are being preserved as a result of tourism</td>
<td>24.4%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that tourism provides their opportunities to take part in activities</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% who believe that tourism promotes personal and cultural interaction</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>questionnaire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Incidentally, children’s respondents (we collected 7 questionnaires from children) were likely to be more positive than any other age group.

Through this survey, we could obtain useful data in development and use of STI in the future.

**Implications**

UNWTO (2004) points out that in order to develop a compact STI without leaking important STI, against the ideal visions of each destination, it is essential to identify high priority issues. In our project, it will be necessary to narrow down, together with stakeholders, the high priority issues in the Oku-Nikko area. The actual STI to be monitored will be selected based on that. UNWTO (2004) states that in selection of STI, there are five criteria: (1) Relevance of the indicator to the selected issue (Does the indicator respond to the specific issue and provide information that will aid in its management?), (2) Feasibility of obtaining and analysing the needed information, (3) Credibility of the information and reliability for users of the data, (4) Clarity and understandability to users, and (5) Comparability over time and across jurisdictions or regions.

In this study, in order to have a reference in selection of STI in the future, from the viewpoint of relevance, we considered selection of appropriate
STI related to high priority issues of the Oku-Nikko area.

In the Oku-Nikko area, population decline has become a major issue. The Oku-Nikko area is a destination where many residents are engaged in the tourist business, so, there is a sense of crisis that there will be no residents who are in charge of tourism.

In this survey, there were three questions related to population: “livability”, “pride to live in the Oku-Nikko area”, and “intention to keep living in the Oku-Nikko area”. We examined these 3 STI, in terms of which is most relevant at measuring the issue of population decline.

While a little less than 30% of the respondents either agreed or somewhat agreed with this statement that "The Oku-Nikko area is comfortable to live in", approximately 50% either agreed or somewhat agreed with this statement that "I’m proud to live in the Oku-Nikko area". This shows that residents feel that the Oku-Nikko area is uncomfortable to live in, but it is an area they can feel proud to live in. However, as respondents who either agreed or somewhat agreed with this statement that "I want to keep living in the Oku-Nikko area" remained at less than 40%, it was found that even if residents feel proud to live in the Oku-Nikko area, that doesn’t mean they can keep living there.

From the above results, it is considered that as STI to measure the issue of population decline, “livability” and “intention to keep living in the Oku-Nikko area” are more relevant than “pride to live in the Oku-Nikko area”.

In the next step, as well as clarifying ideal visions of the Oku-Nikko area based on the results of this survey, it will be necessary to narrow down, together with stakeholders, the STI that show the ideal visions clearly and are truly essential to the Oku-Nikko area, and to establish desired values for those STI.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This paper is supported by the Environment Research and Technology Development Fund of the Ministry of the Environment, Japan (4-1407)

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USING DATA ENVENLOPMENT ANALYSIS TO BENCHMARK HOTEL EFFICIENCY: A CASE OF HOTEL PERFORMANCE IN SILICON VALLEY, CALIFORNIA

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San Jose State University

INTRODUCTION

Evidence shows that multinational hotel giants such as Hilton, Marriott, and Accor are involved in a number of new hotel projects in San Francisco Bay Area. Despite the opening of a number of new hotels, with more under construction and in the pipeline, lodging demand continues to outpace supply in the market. Eager to get a piece of the pie, investors have looked toward acquiring and redeveloping existing assets. Conversions and rebrandings at a number of hotels following recent transactions reflect that brand affiliations are still important in this market. Given the well-established cliché in the real estate business of “location, location, location” also applies in the hotel industry, hoteliers and/or investors looking to find an optimal site to launch new hotel projects in the market would carefully develop the market entry strategy.

With the assistance of data envelopment analysis (DEA), the level of overall hotel efficiency in a region can be objectively reviewed before the selection of a market entry point. Furthermore, the DEA approach can be of significant importance to government decision makers and destination management organizations (DMOs) since the findings will enable them to benchmark their own region’s economic efficiency with a list of strategically identified competing regions. Conceptually, the efficiency of a decision making unit (DMU) is determined by its ability to transform inputs into aimed outputs. That is, hotels in a region can be defined as efficient by pricing the inputs (i.e., capital, labor, etc.) and outputs (i.e., room revenue, food and beverage revenue, etc.) in such a way that the hotels in this region can produce more than they put into. If hotels in a region are found to be inefficient, they can use the data provided by DEA as compared with other efficient regions to make improvements or to relocate their resources among their own hotels. Low efficiency within the hospitality industry has been a major concern, but this situation is unlikely to improve without a general change in the way efficiency is measured and managed (Marianna Sigala, 2004).

This paper attempts to 1) evaluate production efficiency of the hotel industry in Silicon Valley and other surrounding counties in San Francisco Bay Area by using the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) technique and 2) to organize the results of the DEA, that is, the efficiency of regions into meaningful structures or groupings by using cluster analysis technique. DEA is a non-parametric, multi-factor, productivity analysis tool that utilizes multiple input and output measurements in evaluating relative efficiency. It is best suited to the comparison or benchmarking of a number of similar operational units (Kirk, 2005). On the other hand, cluster analysis is a familiar statistic analysis, the first use of which was generally accredited to Tryon, R. C. (1939). Cluster analysis is mostly used when there exists no prior hypothesis based on the underlying theory. In the present study, the hotel industry of a county in San Francisco Bay Area is regarded as a DMU, which is the unit of analysis for this study, and the degree of relative efficiency of each region is examined. The findings of this research will have implications for government decision makers, hoteliers/investors and DMOs in their quest for formulating expansion strategies and investment decisions in Northern California.
METHOD

DEA Models. The DEA approach allows for the measurement of overall efficiency (OE), pure technical efficiency (PTE), and scale efficiency (SE). Two main types of DEA analysis, namely the input-oriented and the output-oriented analysis, have been widely applied to evaluate efficiency for various types of DMUs. Generally, the input-oriented analysis focuses on the cost minimization, while the output-oriented analysis focuses on the output maximization.

Since the objective of this study is to identify the determinants of relative efficiency and to maximize output of the analyzed regional hotel industry’s performance, this study uses two basic output-oriented models to evaluate OE, PTE and SE of the hotel industry at the county level. The first one is the CCR model, so-called since it was first introduced by Charnes, Cooper and Rhodes (1987). The second one is the BCC model since it was first used by Banker, Charnes and Cooper (1984). For all DMUs, overall efficiency refers to the extent to which a region achieves its overall efficiency. The overall efficiency can be further separated into two components: pure technical efficiency and scale efficiency. Pure technical efficiency is concerned with the level of efficiency with which a regional hotel industry uses its inputs. Scale efficiency, on the other hand, is used to measure how scale impacts its productivity; it is the ratio of OE from the constant-return-to-scale (CRS) to PTE obtained from the variable-return-to-scale (VRS).

The input and output indicators

The selection of the input and output indicators are based on two main criteria: the literature survey and the commonly accessible data. According to previous studies, input resources for the hotel industry include input materials such as staff, capital and equipment. These resources produce tangible and intangible services through front office and back office operations (Yasin et al., 1996). Our analysis utilizes three input indicators: (1) total number of full-time employees in a regional hotel industry; (2) total number of guest rooms in the hotels in a region; (3) total fixed assets in a regional hotel industry. On the other hand, output is a concrete measurement that an organization uses to see if it reaches its objectives (Hwang & Chang, 2003). In our study, two output indicators for hotels’ economic performance are chosen: (1) total revenue, the revenue generated by room occupancy, food and beverage service, and others such as laundry, lease of store space, night clubs, service fees and (2) average occupancy rate calculated by taking total occupied room-nights as a percentage of total available room nights.

Data Collection

In the present study, the hotel industry at county level in San Francisco Bay ARea is regarded as a decision making unit. Data was provided by the STR share center. Relevant input-output indicators of San Francisco Bay Area, including three input indicators and two output indicators depicted above are used in this study. To derive at the DEA results, a specialized computer package-DEASolver: Professional Version 3.0 is used to analyze the data.

Research Design

This study takes two steps. The first step of the research is to evaluate the efficiency of the hotel industry at the regional level. The second step is built on the results of the first step, which uses cluster analysis to group hotel regions by levels of efficiency.

EXPECTED FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The objective of this exploratory study is to evaluate the relative production efficiency of the regional hotel industry in Silicon Valley and surrounding counties by using DEA. Based on the CCR and BCC models, this study incorporates multiple inputs (i.e. number of employees, guest rooms and fixed assets) and outputs (i.e. total revenue and average occupancy rate) in determining the relative efficiencies. Rankings of counties in San Francisco Bay Area will be presented, according to hotels’ overall, pure technical and scale efficiency scores respectively.

The findings of this exploratory study can be used as a reference for formulating market entry strategies as well as investment decisions. For DMOs and regional government policy makers, the
findings will allow them to benchmark the best hotel industry’s performance and offer policy or marketing guidelines for improving regional performance.

This study provides only a general view of the efficiency in regional hotel industry since it is exploratory in nature. Future studies may be conducted to focus on specific types of hotels such as economy vs. luxury hotels or state-owned vs. private-owned hotels. Due to data availability, this research used only aggregated data at the regional level. Disaggregated and more pertinent data might be needed to provide further meaningful guidelines for hoteliers, DMOs and government decision makers. Studies can also be conducted to investigate how production efficiency of the hotel industry shifts over time. Finally, care needs to be taken in interpreting the outcome of DEA approach, as there is no implication that a unit scored as 1.00 is necessarily highly efficient, just that it is “best in class.” The results can be sensitive to the choice of inputs and outputs (Smith, 1997). We recommend further studies to compare different scenarios of inputs and outputs to form more comprehensive knowledge of hotels’ production efficiency.

SELECTED REFERENCES


CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF SMALL AND MEDIUM ENTERPRISES IN HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY IN SOUTH KOREA

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INTRODUCTION

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) has been studied since the 1950s (Carroll, 1999). CSR facilitates voluntary actions related to philanthropy and socially responsible business practices (Kotler & Lee, 2005). Previous research has investigated the CSR activities of large companies that belong to the hospitality and tourism industry; however, the results of these studies cannot be applied to small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) because they differ in nature and management structure (Spence & Rutherfoord, 2001; Garay & Font, 2012). Lee, Mak, and Pang (2012) investigated the fundamentals of CSR among SMEs in the Southeast Asian context and have examined the unique operations of these enterprises. In Korea, SMEs play an important role in facilitating the economy. Although the stakeholder framework proposes the multidimensionality of CSR actions, only a few studies have looked into the CSR activities implemented by SMEs in the tourism and hospitality industry (Garay & Font, 2012).

This study aims to explore the CSR activities of SMEs operating in the tourism and hospitality industry in South Korea. These CSR activities are classified into various dimensions based on different primary stakeholders. The analysis of the cases of SMEs in S. Korea intends to provide the elements of CSR engagement among SMEs to further understand the actual difference in the CSR approach. In addition, this study aims to address the following research questions: 1) What are the characteristics of the SMEs engaging in CSR actions in the tourism and hospitality industry? 2) What are the CSR activities reported by SMEs?

LITERATURE REVIEW

CSR can be defined as the activities that contribute to the welfare of society beyond the firm’s profits as required by law (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). SMEs have unique characteristics. First, SMEs are generally managed by the owners (Lamberti & Noci, 2012). Therefore, these firms engage in CSR activities because of individual values of SME owners’ CSR efforts and the owners’ leadership (Spence & Rutherfoord, 2001). SMEs participate in CSR activities in an informal, trusting basis, and personal manner (Jenkins, 2006), and they are closely embedded in their respective local communities (Lee, Mak, & Pang, 2012). This study investigates the characteristics of SMEs that belong to the hospitality and tourism industry and attempts to provide a list of CSR activities specifically performed by these enterprises.

Previous research has demonstrated that the multidimensionality of CSR can be evaluated with a stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) as a theoretical framework. CSR activities can be used to evaluate how enterprises establish a relationship with their stakeholders (Carroll, 1999; Clarkson, 1995). Companies not only focus on increasing their revenues but also on improving the well-being of their primary stakeholders (Freeman, 1984). Previous empirical studies have classified the dimensions of CSR activities into five categories (Inoue & Lee, 2011; de Grosbois, 2012). The websites of SMEs can be one of the basic tools for explicit CSR communications and reporting. For example, Chapple and Moon (2005) studied CSR across seven Asian countries by conducting a content analysis of the companies’ websites or annual publications. The present study investigates the CSR activities of SMEs along with their websites.
METHOD

In the first step of this study, the list of CSR of SMEs offered by Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency (KoSEA, 2016) was used to verify the SMEs certified under social enterprises. KoSEA provides inclusive support to business start-ups and management of social enterprises. From a total of 1506 companies, the sampling frame of a database with 282 companies in tourism-related industry provided by the KoSEA was obtained. The websites of the SMEs were analyzed to examine any CSR activities through content analysis (Yin, 2003). The CSR activities were classified in terms of employee relations, product quality, community relations, environmental issues, and philanthropy issues.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

This study aimed to analyze the engagement of SMEs that belong to the tourism and hospitality industry in CSR activities. The findings of this study contribute to the issue on CSR in SMEs in the tourism and hospitality industry by providing examples of the existing CSR activities of SMEs in S. Korea.

The findings of this study provide theoretical and practical implications. The findings indicate that the CSR activities implemented by SMEs are related to broad stakeholders. To note, these SMEs are mostly micro-enterprises, and they implement numerous CSR practices, such as environmental issues, saving energy, recycling, sustainable development, civic attitude promotion among customers, heritage conservation, community network building, local and regional development, and recruitment of local people, women, older adults, and immigrants. This study determined that in the South Korean context, SMEs actively engage in CSR actions not only for altruistic reasons but also for legitimization reasons. SMEs make efforts to obtain certification from the KoSEA and to receive subsidies from the government.

Despite its relevant contributions, this study has limitations. Given that CSR activities are explicitly self-reported by companies, research findings should be honest and reliable. Further studies should explore the internal and external CSR activities of SMEs. In addition, future research should also thoroughly look into how the CSR actions of SMEs affect their respective stakeholders.

REFERENCES

HOTEL SUPERVISOR AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP, EMPLOYEE MINDFULNESS, THRIVING AT WORK, AND HELPING BEHAVIOR

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INTRODUCTION

Positive psychological research is a new concept in the positive organizational behavior domain. Scholars consider it is important to apply the concept and measurement of positive psychology to the workplace because these positive human resources and psychological stocks assist in improving performance (Luthans, Avey, & Avolio, 2007; Luthans, Avey, Avolio, Norman, & Combs, 2006). With the rapid development of informational technology and internet, consumers can obtain diverse and rich consumer information. In recent years, the growth of the number of foreign visitors and the tourism revenues in Taiwan, a variety of customer demand has gradually significant also leads an increasingly competitive and complex hotel business environment (Chiang & Hsieh, 2012). Therefore, Wu & Chen (2015) noted that employees in the hotel industry should have specific service and business knowledge to accommodate the competitive external environment and satisfy customers’ diverse needs (Hallin & Marnburg, 2008).

Although several studies have highlighted the service processes of hotels are becoming knowledge-intensive and innovative (Den Hertoget et al., 2011; Kahle, 2002; Nievesa et al., 2014), the current study considers that while employees provide a helping and proactive service behavior, hotels would create an effective and successful service delivery, extra impression and customer satisfaction beyond the basic demand (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Raub & Liao, 2012). Even though past studies have addressed the relationship between leadership behavior and subordinates extra effort or helping behavior (e.g. Toor & Ofori, 2009; Eisenbeiss & Knippenberg, 2014; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; Mayer, Kuenzi, & Greenbaum, 2010; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog, & Folger, 2010), some research also indicated hospitality supervisors leadership behavior is positive related to employee work performance (Hsiao et al., 2015; Karatepe, 2013; Loi, Ao & Xu, 2014). However, the existing hospitality literature contains few studies regarding the impact of authentic leadership on employee helping behavior and proactive customer service behavior. Given the importance of cognitive change in promoting employee helping behavior and proactive customer service performance, this study introduces mindfulness and thriving at work as mediating variable in the context between authentic leadership and employee outcome. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to investigate the proposed model of authentic leadership as related to mindfulness, thriving at work, and helping behavior. To summarize our arguments and highlight our contribution, this study significantly contributes to positive organizational behavior literature and hotel management practice. The ensuing sections contain theory and research hypotheses, methodology, statistical analysis, conclusions regarding academic and managerial implications, and suggestions for further study.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

At hotel service workplace, it is well known that frontline employees’ service is critical to influence customers’ impressions for hotels. Thus, in hotel practice, some hospitality organizations have improved their value on service delivery and introduced
proactive customer proactive service mechanism by the insight into the evolution of customer demand. However, recent existing hotel service studies still pay more attention on formalized employee service work role performance (e.g., Lee & Ok, 215; Ling, Lin & Wu, 2016; Wu & Chen, 2015). According to Raub & Liao (2012), the character of proactive customer service performance is embedded in self-starting, long-term oriented, and forward-thinking approach to service delivery. Proactive customer service employees provide proactive service is in accordance with their own initiative and enthusiasm without any instruction.

Research on authentic leadership has increased dramatically over the past decade. Regarding to the nature of authentic leadership, as Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson (2008) addressed, authentic leadership is as “a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development.”. Therefore, authentic leadership can be represented as a higher order construct composed of four dimensions: internalized moral perspective, self-awareness, relational transparency, and balanced processing (Peterson, Walumbwa, Avolio & Hannah, 2012). Hence, authentic supervisors are likely to have positive impact on employee proactive customer service performance.

In term of mindfulness, Kabat-Zinn (1994) defined mindfulness that “mindfulness involves paying sustained attention to ongoing sensory, cognitive and emotional experience, without judging or elaborating on that experience.” Mindfulness was originated from several research and practice domains, such as clinical medicine and psychological Counseling (e.g. Bishop et al., 2004; Shapiro et al., 2006), neuroscience (e.g. Creswell et al., 2007), and education (e.g. Burke, 2010; Napoli et al., 2005). So Reb, Narayanan & Ho (2013) noted mindfulness training has been found to reduce chronic pain (Kabat-Zinn, Lipworth, & Burney, 1985), reduce anxiety (Kabat-Zinn et al., 1992) and increase immunity (Davidson et al., 2003). Glomb, Duffy, Bono & Yang (2011) noted that although mindfulness meditation is at the heart of Buddhist tradition (Nyanaponika, 1998), it has no religious connotation (Hagen, 2003), and mindfulness meditative practices are becoming increasingly popular (Mitchell, 2002). Nearly a decade, organizational and applied psychology scholars have been begun to declare that mindfulness positive enhances individual task performance, job satisfaction, well-being, organizational citizenship behavior at workplace, and lower anxiety and emotional exhaustion (e.g. Dane, 2011; Dane & Brummel, 2013; Glomb, Duffy, Bono, & Yang, 2011; Hülshöger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013; Leory, Anseel, Dimitrova, & Sels, 2013). Therefore, mindfulness now have been interpreted and applied on diverse perspective, including mindfulness as an mindfulness-meditation training, mindfulness as a cognitive style, mindfulness as a state, mindfulness as an ability, and mindfulness as a trait (e.g. Kong, Wanga & Zhao, 2014; Pirson et al., 2012; Reb et al., 2013).

Thus, according to Pirson et al. (2012), we adopted a socio-cognitive perspective of mindfulness which encompasses three dimensions, novelty seeking, novelty producing, and engagement. Overall, at hotel workplace, mindfulness hotel frontline employees is more likely to pay attention to ongoing sensory, cognitive and emotional experience, lead positive value to provide proactive customer service performance. Given the theory and literature review, this study proposes seven hypotheses as following.

H1. Authentic leadership is positive related to mindfulness
H2. Mindfulness is positive related to thriving at work
H3. Authentic leadership is positive related to thriving at work
H4. Mindfulness mediates the relationship between authentic leadership and thriving at work
H5. Thriving at work is positive related to helping behavior
H6. Mindfulness is positive related to helping behavior
H7. Thriving at work mediates the relationship between mindfulness and helping behavior

METHOD

Regarding to sample procedure, to investigate the causal relationships among authentic leadership,
mindfulness, thriving at work, and helping behavior, we surveyed 38 Taiwan’s tourism hotels as research objects in March 2015. Except personal information, all questions in this study were answered on a seven-point Likert scale. Approximately one month after survey distribution, 231 of the 630 employee-rated questionnaires were returned, and after eliminating the incomplete and invalid questionnaires, 217 valid questionnaires were identified, giving a valid response rate of 34.44%. The participants were largely female (69.1%); 82.3% were unmarried; 76% were less than 30 years old; 74% had completed university education; and 74.2% had been working less than 5 years at their current hotel. With regard to measurements, we consulted three hotel managers prior to the survey to discuss and check the scale’s appropriateness for the hotels’ conditions. All measurements for this study were taken with multiple-item scales, and frontline service employee answered all questions on a seven-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Authentic leadership, mindfulness, thriving at work, and helping behavior are described below. Authentic leadership contains four dimensions: internalized moral perspective, self-awareness, relational transparency, and balanced processing, and it were measured with the 16 items of the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) developed by Walumbwa, et al. (2008). Mindfulness contains three dimensions: novelty seeking, novelty producing, and engagement. It was measured with 14 items of Langer Mindfulness Scale (LMS14) by Pirson, Langer, Bodner, & Zilcha-Mano (2012). For employees’ thriving at work, learning and vitality were involved in thriving, and we adopted 8 items in Porath et al. (2012). Finally, helping behavior was measured with 4 items scale by Zhou & George (2001). All measurements are employee self-reported. Finally, several statistical analyses were used in this study and illustrated as below.

**ANALYSIS RESULTS**

For descriptive analysis result, the average values of all research variables are between 4.81 and 5.52, with standard deviations between 0.69 and 0.92. In addition, as expected, correlation analysis result shows that all variable are interrelated. In testing reliability and construct validity, reliability analysis showed all reliability range was 0.793 to 0.939, revealing the four measurement scales are reliable. In addition, from confirmatory factor analysis results, CFA final results demonstrated that proposed measurement model fit the data reasonably. For testing convergent validity, all factors loaded significantly on their intended construct, all were above 0.6 (p < 0.01), the composite reliabilities of all constructs were greater than 0.8, the reliability range was 0.724 to 0.926, and average variances extracted (AVE) were all above 0.5, indicating adequate convergent validity (Nunnally, 1978). In addition, for testing discriminant validity, all average variance extracted values were higher than r-square values, indicating the discrimination of measures and demonstrating the adequate discriminant validity of the study constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

This study adopted structural equation modeling to examine research hypotheses. Result showed that the theoretical model demonstrated a reasonable fit: $\chi^2 = 159.09$, $\chi^2/df = 2.651$, GFI = 0.886, CFI = 0.940, IFI = 0.941, RMSEA = 0.081, and SRMR = 0.059. Furthermore, standardized path coefficients from structural equation modeling results were adopted to determine direct effect between variables. Results indicated that authentic leadership has significant and positive direct effect on employees mindfulness ($\beta = 0.282$, p = 0.021), supporting H1; employees mindfulness has significant and positive direct effect on employees thriving at work ($\beta = 0.54$, p = 0.003), H2 was supported; authentic leadership has significant and positive direct effect on employees thriving at work ($\beta = 0.31$, p < 0.05), H3 was supported; employees thriving at work has significant and positive direct effect on helping behavior ($\beta = 0.35$, p = 0.002), supporting H5; Mindfulness has significant and positive direct effect on helping behavior ($\beta = 0.37$, p = 0.016), H6 was supported. In addition, following the principle of mediating effect by Baron and Kenny (1986), we further adopted Sobel test to calculate the critical ratio as a test of whether the indirect effect in the theoretical model is significantly different from zero(Preacher & & Leonardelli, 2001). First Sobel test result showed that mindfulness partially mediates authentic leadership and thriving at work (z-value = 1.98, p-value = 0.047, and z-value was greater than 1.96). Another Sobel test result showed that thriving at work also partially mediates mindfulness and helping behavior (z-value = 2.13, p-value =
CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This study focused on Taiwan’s hotel industry and proposed a theoretical model which comprises authentic leadership, mindfulness, thriving at work, and helping behavior. It contributed to the fields of positive organizational behavior literature and hotel management. Although previous studies have noted the consequences of authentic leadership, this study addressed that authentic leadership, mindfulness, thriving at work, and helping behavior were positive interacted. Two partially mediating effect of mindfulness and thriving at work were also existed between supervisor authentic leadership and employee helping behavior. Specifically, for the newly construct of mindfulness, we found that mindfulness surely influences hotel employee thriving at work and helping behavior. This result not only corresponds to the past studies that it is beneficial for mindfulness to reduce individual negative emotion, but also we highlighted a new finding for hotel management domain that mindfulness acts a basis of stable emotion for hotel employees to pay attention to the ongoing work and provide helping behavior for others. Therefore, in practice, hotel managers have to consider the effectiveness on introducing mindfulness training mechanism so that enables employees thriving at work and promotes helping behavior for supervisors, coworkers, and customers. Despite the contributions and implications have been offered, we found some potential limitations in this study. First, the cross-sectional study design undermines the causal conclusions derived from the findings; therefore, a longitudinal design is recommended in the future. Second, methodologically, before the survey, even though this study used back-translation and consulted practicing managers to validate the scale for the hotel environment, and we have adopted confirmatory factor analysis for testing measures’ construct validity, revealing that the fitness is acceptable. Nonetheless, the primary dependent variable, helping behavior, was a self-reported measure and the weakness of self-reports is their potential to introduce common method variance (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2003). In order to avoid common method variance, we recommend that future re-

search collect data from separate sources (supervisors, employees) and phases.

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APPROPRIATE SERVICE ATTRIBUTES FOR OPTIMIZING THE “MINBAK” OPERATION

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Of various types of rural accommodations, Minbak has been emerged as a new type of rural accommodation in countryside, which is devoted to strengthening the community capacity of rural destinations in light of economic perspectives. Given this recognition, this study aims to implement the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) model based on pairwise comparisons of criteria attributes to develop a conjecture structure for the criteria and associated weights of rural accommodation (namely Minbak) selection (RAS). We first constructed an AHP model with a three-level evaluation structure to test cases of rural accommodations in South Korean countryside. Given our model’s high degree of consistency and accuracy, results indicate that the factors of price and cleanliness are the most salient for Minbak selection. As a result, this study’s Minbak selection criteria can be implemented by destination management organizations as part of their platforms for optimizing the sustainability of Minbak.

Keywords: Minbak, service attributes, analytical hierarchy process (AHP), rural destination, DMO’s rule
ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, BURNOUT, DEPRESSION
SYMPTOMS AND JOB PERFORMANCE AMONG CHINESE
ECONOMY HOTEL EMPLOYEES

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INTRODUCTION

Social support is very important for the Chinese economy hotel employees, who mainly come from the poor area of China. They are suffering from the high life and work stress in Beijing. A lot of researches have found that social support affects the psychological health of employees, such as depression (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2001). One specific type of social support is organizational level support, especially for the employees who work more than 10 hours normally in the economy hotel industry in China. Eisenberger et al. (1986) introduced the concept of perceived organizational support (POS) as "employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being". When employees perceive organizational support, that is, the organization is providing rewards and enrichment opportunities for their service, they become attached to their organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Research has shown that employees who perceive their organization is supportive are more likely to be committed to fulfilling their role within the organization (Loi, Hang?Yue, & Foley, 2006). Given the positive effect of POS on employee commitment and job satisfaction (BORMANN & BIRULIN, 1999), it seems logical to suggest that perceived organizational support is related to job performance as well, which has been found in full-time retail employees and other professionals (Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). Furthermore, previous research has shown that organizational support is associated with employee psychological well-being (Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009), especially the negative facets of psychological health, such as depression, anxiety etc. (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2001). Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H1. Organizational support will be positively related to economy hotel employees' work performance.

H2. Organizational support will be negatively related to economy hotel employees’ depression.

Burnout has attracted researchers’ attention for decades, since burnout has been found related to psychological and physical health of employees (Chang & Wang, 2014; Leiter et al., 2013). The Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS) has three dimensions labeled Exhaustion, Cynicism, and Reduced professional efficacy (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002; Schutte, Toppinen, Kalimo, & Schaufeli, 2000). Exhaustion refers to the excessive consumption of an individual’s affective resources and concurrent loss of vigor. Cynicism refers to an individual’s negative, cold and extremely estranged attitude toward others. Reduced professional efficacy means the decrease of one’s feelings of competence and work achievement. In daily life, economy hotel employees must not only work about 8-10 hours (data from the same survey), but also deal with all kinds of clients. At the same time, they must respect the saying that “customer is the God” and offer considerate services at any time needed. As a result, hotel employees are among the professionals most susceptible to burnout. Many researchers have found that employees’ burnout and psychological conditions were significantly correlated (Chang & Wang, 2014; Leiter et al., 2013). Some researches also found that burnout and depression are not one entity, but a reciprocal relationship (Ahola & Hakanen, 2007; Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008). Moreover, research in
hotel industry has found that burnout is correlated with intention to leave (Mansour & Tremblay, 2016), thus, it is logical to suggest that burnout will affect the job performance in hotel industry in China. Based on previous discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3: Burnout will be negatively related to economy hotel employees’ work performance.
H4: Burnout will be positively related to economy hotel employees’ depression.

Both individual and situational factors have been found to play important role in reducing burnout, such as personal resources (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009), personality (Bakker, Van Der Zee, Lewig, & Dollard, 2006) and individual demographic characteristics (Purvanova & Muros, 2010) within the individual factors domain, and occupational and organizational characteristics (González- Morales, Rodríguez, & Peiró, 2010) among the situational factors. Researchers have found that organizational support is negatively related to burnout (Asad & Khan, 2003; Jawahar, Stone, & Kisamore, 2007). Apart from organizational support, person-environment fit (P-E fit) has drawn researchers’ attention. The P-E fit literature includes many types of fit, such as an individual's compatibility with his or her vocation, organization, job, work group and supervisors (Caplan, 1987). The current research focused on the impact of person-organization fit (P-O fit) on burnout, in the level of organization. P-O fit addresses the compatibility between people and the entire organization in terms of personality, value, climate and goal. Both as organizational factors, organizational support was found to be related to P-O fit (Ballout, 2007; Biswas & Bhatnagar, 2013). Moreover, P-O fit has been found to be associated with burnout (Siegall & McDonald, 2004; Vianen, 2000). Thus, it is proposed that among economy hotel employees, organizational support is related to P-O fit and both of the two organizational factors are associated with burnout.

H5. Organizational support will be negatively related to burnout.
H6. P-O fit will be negatively related to burnout.
H7: Organizational support will be positive related to P-O fit.

METHOD

Participants

This study used a sample of 236 employees working in the economy hotel industry in Dongcheng District, Beijing. Participants’ ages ranged from 18 to 70 years (M age =34.7 yr., SD = 9.4) with an average job tenure of 6.2 years (SD = 5.9). Approximately 46 percent were male. Totally, 38 percent reported having less than a bachelor’s degree, and 62 percent had a bachelor’s degree or beyond. The average working hours per week was 44.5 hours (SD = 19.7), ranging from 6 hours to 100 hours. All the questionnaires were self-rated by participants. 400 questionnaires were sent out in total and 236 valid copies were received back.

Measures

All the scales used in the present research were in Chinese. They were translated and back-translated by the standard procedure.

Organizational support. Employees’ perceptions of organizational support were captured using 8 high-loading items from Eisenberger et al.’s (1986) 36-item instrument. For example, “My organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor”. All the eight items were measured on seven-point scale, and the Chinese version was validated (Xu et al., 2005).

Person-organization fit. Saks and Ashforth’s (1997) perception of fit measure was adapted to measure person-organization fit (four items) on five-point scale (1 = to a very little extent, 7 = to a very large extent). Example item is “To what extent is the organization a good match for you”. The Chinese version was validated by Wang et al. (2010).

Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey. The Maslach Burnout Inventory—General Survey (MBI—GS; Schaufeli, et al., 1996) can be applied to a broader variety of occupations than the original MBI. The MBI—GS (15 items) has three dimensions: Exhaustion, Cynicism, and Reduced professional efficacy. The Chinese version of the MBI—GS was revised and validated by Li & Shi (2003).

Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D). This scale is a self-report inventory including 20 items. It was
created by National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) as part of a study, especially to determine depression among adult communities. Research suggests that both the items and the scale of the Chinese version of the CES-D have good construct and concurrent validity (Zhang et al., 2010).

Job performance. Job performance was measured by one item “To what extend would you assess your performance in this hotel”, with 1 = not good at all, and 7 = very good.

Procedure
Participants were invited to fill the questionnaires on a voluntary basis during a training conference for the economy hotel employees in Dongcheng District in Beijing. Participants anonymously completed the five questionnaires in one sitting. Path analysis was undertaken using the AMOS 22.0 structural equation modeling program (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999).

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and correlations
The average scores and the standard deviations of variables under study and their Pearson correlations are presented in Table 1. All variables were significantly correlated to each other. Organizational support and P-O fit were moderately related to each other (r = 0.608, p < 0.01). Gender and age were not related to other variables (all ps > .05). thus, they are not included in the models.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Organizational support</td>
<td>38.71</td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Person-Organization fit</td>
<td>14.13</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>0.608**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Burnout</td>
<td>-10.21</td>
<td>11.84</td>
<td>-0.474**</td>
<td>-0.378**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Depression</td>
<td>32.35</td>
<td>7.54</td>
<td>-0.260**</td>
<td>-0.261**</td>
<td>0.485**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Job performance</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.367**</td>
<td>0.253**</td>
<td>-0.428**</td>
<td>-0.179**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Path Analysis
According to the model proposed in the introduction, a path analysis was conducted. In this model, organizational support and P-O fit were treated as an exogenous variable while burnout, depression, and job performance were all treated as endogenous variables. The estimation of the model was conducted by a maximum likelihood method.

The result from the original full model specification showed that all paths, except one direct path from organizational support to depression, were significant; the standardized regression coefficient of the path from organizational support to depression was R² = 0.03 (p > 0.05). The model did not fit the data well (see Table 2). Therefore, the direct path from organizational support to depression was removed. A new path analysis for the modified model was then conducted. The standardized regression coefficient for the modified model are shown in Fig. 1.

Figure 1. The modified model. Note *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.
Table 2 shows the model fit indexes for the initial and the modified model. The modified model fit the data satisfactorily, c2/df = 0.67, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = 0.01, NFI = 0.99, TLI = 1.01.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>χ²</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>χ²/df</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>NFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial model</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modified model</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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Discussion

This study explored the relationship among organizational support, Person-Organization fit, burnout, depression symptoms and job performance. Significant direct and indirect effects on depression and job performance were found. The results of the present study provide the support for the hypothesis that, in this sample of Chinese economy hotel employees, burnout was a mediator between occupational support, P-O fit, the occurrence and exacerbation of depressive symptoms, and poor job performance. This explained how organizational factors (such as organizational support, P-O fit) can affect personal psychological health (such as depression) and personal performance.

However, contrary to the prediction, the model with organizational support directly related to depression did not fit the data well, suggesting that even if employees live in an environment which is not very supportive, as long as they have the ability to manage their cognition on support and burnout, depression episodes and exacerbation of health conditions are not inevitable. This result is consistent with previous research which also found that burnout mediated occupational commitment and health(Hakanen et al., 2008). Considering burnout plays an important mediating role in the relationship between occupational factors (support, fit etc.) and mental health problems, the hypothesis can be modified as following: organizational factors can contribute indirectly to mental health conditions and depression through burnout.

This finding has important theoretical implications. The present study confirms the mediating effect of burnout between occupational support & fit and mental health & performance among the economy hotel employees in China. Economy hotel employees should be surveyed regularly for job burnout so that interventions can be administered in a timely manner, preventing job burnout from contributing to mental health problems and poor job performance.

The findings of this study contribute to individuals and organizations. At the individual level, it is important to choose the proper job type as well as proper organization to reduce the possibility of burnout and mental problems, since both organizational support and person-organization fit significantly predict burnout, which is correlated to depression symptoms. At the organization level, understanding the employees' experience of organizational support and burnout and its psychological and occupational outcomes will help employers respond wisely to such situations and come up with possible new interventions. The most important intervention may be to increase occupational support by helping employees adapt successfully in their jobs(Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007).

The present study had several limitations. The sample was selected from only one district in Beijing. Considering there are various types of economy hotels in China, which have developed dramatically in the last decade, this sample may not be representative of all economy hotel employees in China. Using only self-report questionnaires, one must be cautious about common methods bias. More objective methods could be used in future analyses.

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THE EVOLVING SOCIAL ROLE OF CHINESE HOTELS
SINCE 1949 : BASED ON
DATA FROM PEOPLE’S DAILY (1949-2013)

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Accommodation is one of the six essential components of tourism with the others being food, travel, sightseeing, shopping and recreation. Therefore, researchers of tourism and hotels consider the hotel industry as an industry striving to serve the needs of tourists and travelers, and carry out studies on the investment, operation and management of the hotel industry. As a multi-functional service industry, however, the hotel industry plays not only the role of satisfying the needs of travelers, but also perform the function of serving certain political and social needs. Furthermore, the role of the hotel industry evolves over time to meet the changing needs of social development. However, research on the role of the hotel industry and its evolution is rare in the academic literature on hotel management. It is therefore the aim of this article to broaden the academic horizons of relevant research by means of exploring the hotel industry from a multiple perspective of politics, economy and society. With data collected from People’s Daily—the CPC’s official newspaper, this article analyzes hotel-related news on People’s Daily through the method of text analysis in an attempt to probe into the evolving role of the hotel industry in the national economy as well as in the political and social life of China.

Keywords:
Hotel Industry, People’s Daily, Role Evolution, Text Analysis
PREDICTING RESTAURANT OPERATORS’ INTENTION TO SUSTAIN HEALTHY RESTAURANT BY THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR AND INNOVATION ADOPTION THEORY

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INTRODUCTION

Foods provided by restaurants were associated with increased health risks like obesity and chronic diseases caused by excessive calories, fat, and sodium (Bowman et al., 2004; Burton et al., 2006). Healthy restaurant initiatives offered healthy menu and menu labeling for three years in Seoul, Korea. This study focused on the perspectives of restaurant operators, especially the decision to run a healthy restaurant because healthy restaurant initiatives cannot succeed without their active participation. Considering the unique characteristics of participation in healthy restaurant initiatives, this study integrated the theory of planned behavior and innovation adoption theory (Chou et al., 2012; Lim, 2009; Quaddus and Hofmeyer, 2007). Intention to run healthy restaurant not only can be influenced by attitudes and the responses of family members, friends, and colleagues but is also subject to uncontrollable factors like environmental features, resources, and self-efficacy.

The difficulty of changing a restaurant operation (for example, by adjusting menu recipes and offering menu information) can interfere with a restaurant operator’s intention to maintain healthy restaurant initiatives. The current study focuses on consumers’ behavior toward healthy restaurant at the point of restaurant owner’s perspective. This study intends to identify factors that best explain restaurant owners’ intention to run healthy restaurant. More specifically, this research investigates the relative importance of each perceived innovation characteristics, attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The purpose of this study was to find out what affected restaurant operator intention to participate in the healthy restaurant initiatives using the theory of planned behavior and the innovation adoption theory.

METHOD

Sample and data collection

Eighty-five restaurant operators participating in the healthy restaurant initiatives were selected as the population of this study. Before administering the survey, researchers visited seventy nine healthy restaurants to explain the purpose and procedure and asked restaurateurs if they were willing to participate in the study. Data were collected through self-administered questionnaires via mail. A total of 52 healthy restaurants participated, and the response rate was 67%.

Survey questionnaire

The main survey questionnaire consisted of perceived innovation characteristics, attitudes toward healthy restaurants, subjective norm, PBC, and behavioral intentions to sustain healthy restaurant initiatives. All items were measured using a 5-point Likert-scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5).

Data analysis

Descriptive analysis evaluated the process of establishing healthy restaurant initiatives and noted the changes in restaurant customers and sales. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to examine the dimensionality of perceived innovation characteristics. Instrument reliability was assessed with Cronbach alpha. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the influences of perceived innovation characteristics, attitudes, subjective norm, and PBC on the intention to sustain a healthy restaurant.

FINDINGS

A series of exploratory factor analyses identi
fied the underlying factors for perceived innovation characteristics. Five factors with 15 items were extracted and labeled relative advantage for restaurants, relative advantage for customers, compatibility, need for change, and complexity. A regression analysis model that incorporated a TPB model and IAT was estimated to test hypothesis 1 through 4. This model was explained by 55% ($R^2 = .55$). The results indicated that perceived behavioral control, attitudes toward healthy restaurants, relative advantage for restaurants, and complexity among innovation characteristics were significant for intention to sustain healthy restaurant initiatives. However, subjective norm and compatibility, relative advantage for customers, and need for change among innovation characteristics did not have a positive significant effect on behavioral intention.

**IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION**

This research suggests that enhancing positive attitudes and the relative advantages of the healthy restaurant initiatives encouraged participation. Finally, voluntary and continuous participation and expansion of healthy restaurant initiatives requires community and government support, a simple to use process for change, and a good understanding of the relative advantages of healthy restaurant initiatives. To encourage restaurant operators to maintain healthy restaurant initiatives, operators must have access to sufficient technical sources and a sense of self-efficacy.

**REFERENCES**


EXPLORING THE IMPACTS OF BRAND IMAGE AND TRUST ON BRAND EXTENSION ATTITUDE IN TAIWAN’S HOTELS: THE MODERATE OF PRODUCT CATEGORY FIT

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, many hotel groups have established positions in fashion and culture, to creatively design a hotel’s brand at home and abroad. The objectives are to extend the brand, create a new brand position, and develop new markets in order to expand the new customer base and capture competitive advantages in new markets. Brand extension can become the largest revenue generating business within the parent brand’s hotel and, therefore, has become one of the major developmental strategies of hotel groups. For example, Marriott International extends its luxury resort hotel brand, JW Marriott, to its business hotel brand, Courtyard Marriott. Furthermore, some hotel groups use an entirely new brand to expand the marketplace, such as W Hotel extending to the new brand Aloft.

With the increasing number of tourists and heightened demand, many hotel groups have established different positions with a new brand. Brand strategy of a company is important because of its critical impact on the company’s financial and marketing performance (Kwun and Oh, 2007). Thus, brand is an important asset for the firm, and can build trust with customers. In the tourism industry, brand is an important part of a hotel group. There are many international hotels that effectively use the strategy of brand extension to differentiate their services and products from competitors. For instance, FIH Regent Group purchased the Regent Hotels in 2010 and will extend the use of points overseas. Domestically, FIH Regent Group has adopted the strategy of brand extension. Currently, the group has many hotel brands in Taiwan, such as Silks, and Just Sleep. In addition to extending the hotel brand, FIH Regent has also extended its restaurant brand to include Silks Palace, Spice Market, Mi Han, Just Italian, Garden Villa, CBN, and Just Grill.

In order to reduce the risk of leading the market with a new product or brand and to save time creating a new brand image, a firm will typically use the reputation of the parent brand in the market in order to extend a new product or brand (Bhat and Reddy, 2001). Brand extension not only can convey strong brand position, but also reduce the risk of marketing new products to the customer (Taylor and Bearden, 2002). Brand extension can also reduce the risk of market failure when introducing a new product (Aaker and Keller, 1990). A hotel’s brand has become a factor in the purchasing intention of customers. Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) suggest that brand image will affect customers’ perceptions of the product and services provided by the company, and will affect consumer attitudes and behavior. In addition to a hotel’s brand image, brand trust and brand attitude have gradually become the key consideration for the customer (Huang Pei Wen, 2009).

Brand extension strategy has been widely used in practice, and an increasing number of studies focus on brand extension. As a result, brand extension strategy has become an important strategic tendency in both domestic and foreign firms. The studies related to brand extension are focused on actual products, however, and rarely discuss brand extension in terms of tourism and hospitality. Recently, evidence shows that the tourism and hospitality industry in Taiwan widely use brand extension to launch hotels and restaurants. Therefore, this study proposes a model of brand extension that includes brand trust in the lodging industry, and
tests the International Hotel’s brand image, brand trust, brand attitude, extension of brand attitude, customer purchase intention, and product category fit. Specifically, the objectives of this study are to: (1) evaluate the perceptions of the International Hotel’s brand image, brand trust, brand attitude, extension of brand attitude, product category fit, and purchase intention in the brand extension of tourism and hospitality services, (2) determine the International Hotel’s brand image and brand trust and their effects on brand attitude, (3) determine the International Hotel’s brand attitude and how it affects extension of brand attitude, which in turn affects purchase intention, and (4) examine how product category fit moderates brand attitude toward an extension of brand attitude.

**METHOD**

This study proposes a model and hypotheses:

![Proposed Research Model](image)

**Figure 1. Proposed Research Model**

H1: Brand image is positively related to brand attitude.
H2: Brand trust is positively related to brand attitude.
H3: Brand attitude is positively related to extension of brand attitude
H4: Extension of brand attitude is positively related to purchase intention.
H5: Product category fit moderates the relationship between brand attitude and extension of brand attitude such that the positive effect of brand attitude on extension of brand attitude increases as product category fit increases.

This study utilized a questionnaire for primary data collection and measures items for each construct on seven-point Likert scale. The questionnaire included questions about brand image, brand trust, brand attitude, extension of brand attitude, purchase intention, product category fit, and demographic information. Brand image was measured with eight items from Salinas and Pérez (2009) scale and adopts items from several other works (Martin and Brown, 1990; Aaker, 1996; Weiss, Anderson, and MacInnis, 1999; Villarrealo, 2002) to refine the measure. Brand trust was measured with four items and, according to Xie, Peng, and Huan (2014), adopts He’s (2006) scale. Brand attitude is measured with five items and, according to Albrecht, Backhaus, Gurzki, Woitschläger (2013), adopts Völckner and Sattler’s (2006), Chebat’s (2013) and Mitchell and Olson’s (1988) scales. Extension of brand attitude is measure with the same items as brand attitude. Product category fit scales have been chosen according to Ashton and Scott (2011) and adopt Martin and Stewart’s (2001) scale to measure. Purchase intention items are adopted from Ashton and Scott (2011). Finally, demographic information for this study includes: gender, age, education, marital status, occupation, average income, and in FIH Regent Group.

Using convenience-sampling method, our study targeted the general consumer for data collection. The study was first vetted through a pre-test and expert validity test. The data were analyzed using SPSS 19.0 and this study’s statistical methods include: descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, and regression analysis.

**FINDINGS**

The survey was collected at Taipei Main Station from January 20, 2016 to January 31, 2016. The number of surveys obtained 70 valid questionnaires. The majority of respondents were female (62.9%) and between 21 and 30 years of
age (22.9%), followed by those who were 51 to 60 years of age (21.4%). In terms of education, the majority of respondents had attended college (54.3%). Of all respondents, 21.4% were working in the service industry.

The respondents tended to agree with the International Hotels in Taiwan of brand image (Mean = 4.86), brand trust (Mean = 5.03), and brand attitude (Mean = 4.99). Descriptive results suggested respondents have good perceptions of brand image, brand trust, and brand attitude toward Regent Taipei Hotel. The means of extension of brand attitude (Mean = 4.77), product category fit (Mean = 4.96), and purchase intention (Mean = 4.43) showed the perceptions for extension brand are tend to be average.

The reliability results indicated that the Cronbach’s α values of brand image, brand trust, brand attitude, extension of brand attitude, product category fit and purchase intention reliability range from 0.783 to 0.953 for the proposed construct. These indicated a high level of reliability and consistency in the measurement scales.

Regression analysis was tested to investigate the causal relationships between the variables. The results showed that the standardized regression coefficient β value for brand image on brand attitude stands at 0.767 (p = 0.000). This showed that brand image cause brand attitude, which supported H1. Brand trust also directly influenced brand attitude, that the standardized regression coefficient β value for brand trust on brand attitude is 0.751 (p = 0.000), which supported H2. And the results showed that the standardized regression coefficient β value for brand attitude on extension of brand attitude stands at 0.500 (p = 0.000). That showed that brand attitude influence extension of brand attitude, which supported H3. Hierarchical regression was used to test moderating variables (product category fit) to observe whether the moderator affecting the influence of brand attitude on extension of brand attitude. In this study, the product category fit significantly moderated the impact of brand attitude on extension of brand attitude. The results showed R² after the adjustment in step one is 0.686; after the interaction in step two, R² decreased to 0.673. But the p-value of the interaction between brand attitude and product category fit is 0.0000 < 0.05, which was significant, which supported H4. Moreover, the standardized regression coefficient β value to extension of brand attitude between purchase intention at 0.280 (p = 0.000), which supported H5.

**IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

In recent years, the hospitality industry has begun to employ a strategy of brand extension to expanding markets and this study confirms the importance of brand extension in the industry. In this study, the variables chosen are brand image, brand trust, brand attitude, the extension of brand attitude, product category fit, and purchase intention. The targeted sample for the study was the general consumer. Results show that brand image and brand trust are positively related to brand attitude, that brand attitude is positively related to the extension of brand attitude, and that product category fit serves as a moderator between brand attitude and the extension of brand attitude.

Recommendations for future research could include additional hotels to expand the study. Additionally, other variables may be found to moderate the relationships in this model, such as brand image fit or brand familiarity. Alternatively, future research could focus on how consumption for the parent brand or consumption for extended brand is to be classified.

For practice, this study suggests that International Hotel in Taiwan should be engaged in improving the hotel’s services and products in order to increase brand image and brand trust. This will impact the parent company’s brand attitude and will promote the extension of brand attitude and, ultimately, customer’s purchase intention.

**REFERENCES**


EXAMINING THE ANTECEDENTS OF A CONSUMER’S FLOW EXPERIENCE WHEN BOOKING HOTEL ROOMS ONLINE

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Jingxue (Jessica) Yuan
Texas Tech University

INTRODUCTION

Flow, also called optimal state of experience, was originally developed by Csikszentmihalyi (1975a) to describe a mental state in which people feel good and forget about everything else while involved with certain activities. Specifically, the person experiencing a flow state will have narrowing of the focus of awareness, loss of self-consciousness, clear goals, unambiguous feedback, feelings of pleasure, and a sense of control in an activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975a). Csikszentmihalyi (1977) described the flow state as “holistic sensation that individuals feel when they act with total involvement” (p. 36). Researchers have used the concept of flow in different disciplines and fields of study for a diverse set of activities from outdoor activities to daily work. Researchers have also tried to identify the elements that can give a holistic description to the specific mental status.

Many previous studies have been conducted in relation to consumers’ online purchase intention (e.g., DeLone & McLean, 2003; Hwang & Kim, 2007). Some of the studies specifically aimed to examine the motivation of online shoppers in general (e.g., Morganosky & Cude, 2000; Zhou, Dai, & Zhang, 2007) and some targeted online hotel booking (e.g., Sparks & Browning, 2011; Wong & Law, 2005). As Law (2009) pointed out, the Internet has been a major distribution channel for hotel rooms. More and more potential online customers reserve their hotel rooms on the Internet. Nevertheless, few studies were conducted in relation to the intrinsic factors and mental experiences of online shoppers and how these factors and experiences influence consumers’ hotel booking intention in the online environment. The study was to generate findings that can help hotel marketers to create a better online environment for customers to experience flow.

METHOD

This paper was to examine the various flow antecedents of an individual’s flow state when visiting hotel booking websites. Ever since the theory of flow was developed (Csikzentmihalyi, 1975a), consumers’ flow experience has been studied and measured using various elements of antecedents (e.g., Agarwal & Karahanna, 2000; Bridges & Florsheim, 2008; Chen, 2006; Novak et al., 2000; Richan & Chandra, 2005; Sickpe, 2005; Smith & Sivakumar, 2004; Trevino &Webster, 1992; Webster et al., 1993). Based upon previous literature, this current study proposed the following constructs as the antecedents to the flow experience (FL): (1) Perceived Website Complexity (PWC) (e.g., Finneran & Zhang, 2003), (2) Perceived Control and Perceived Skill (PC&PS) (Csikszentmihalyi, 1977), (3) Perceived Challenge and Arousal (PC&A) (e.g., Novak et al, 2000), (4) Telepresence and Time Distortion (T&TD) (e.g., Hoffman & Novak, 1996), (5) Focused Attention (FA) (e.g., Ghani et al, 1991), (6) Interactive Speed (IS) (e.g., Richard & Chandra, 2005), (7) Importance (I) (e.g., Novak et al, 2000), and (8) Playfulness (P) (e.g., Webster et al., 1993).

The data analysis was conducted using SPSS and SPSS Amos 20. Respondents’ demographic information and the general online shopping/booking patterns were examined from the 510 collected responses. All measurements of the construct were tested by adopting the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in which the relationship between a latent variable (construct) and the observed variable (parameters) was evaluated and verified. Structural
Equation Modeling (SEM) was then used to test the fit of the proposed Flow model and related hypotheses.

**FINDINGS**

After minor modification by correlating several error terms, the CFA results showed overall good fit indices ($\chi^2 = 1359.25$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 2.96$, CFI = .928, TLI = .917, RMSEA = .064, SRMR = .062). The reliability of each scale (construct) was estimated by the composite reliability (CR). CR of the constructs within the model ranged from .721 to .956. The value of CR above 0.70 was recommended by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) to indicate acceptable internal consistency of a measurement scale. Standardized factor loadings for each item were above 0.496 and statistically significant. The lowest AVE values of the model were .624 ($\geq 0.50$), indicating that the validity of the construct was high (Hair et al., 1998).

SPSS Amos 22.0 was used to test the structural equation model for proposed hypotheses. The hypotheses were tested using the method of Maximum Likelihood (ML) to confirm each path between two constructs (Table 1). Seven hypotheses tested in the model were statistically significant ($p < .05$) including Hypothesis 2 “perceived skill $\rightarrow$ flow” ($\beta = .190$, moderate), Hypothesis 3 “challenge $\rightarrow$ flow” ($\beta = .120$, moderate), Hypothesis 4 “telementrance and time distortion $\rightarrow$ flow” ($\beta = .427$, strong), Hypothesis 5a “focused attention $\rightarrow$ telepresence and time Distortion” ($\beta = .441$, strong), Hypothesis 6b “interactive speed $\rightarrow$ focused attention” ($\beta = .222$, moderate), Hypothesis 7 “importance $\rightarrow$ focused Attention” ($\beta = .766$, strong), and Hypothesis 8 “playfulness $\rightarrow$ flow” ($\beta = .173$, moderate). On the other hand, four hypotheses tested in the model were not statistically significant ($p > .05$), including Hypothesis 4, 5b, 6a, and 6c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Path Loading</th>
<th>$p$ - value</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>PWC $\rightarrow$ FL</td>
<td>-.039</td>
<td>.397</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>PS $\rightarrow$ FL</td>
<td>.190</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>PC $\rightarrow$ FL</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>T&amp;TD $\rightarrow$ FL</td>
<td>.427</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5a</td>
<td>FA $\rightarrow$ T&amp;TD</td>
<td>.441</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5b</td>
<td>FA $\rightarrow$ FL</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>IS $\rightarrow$ T&amp;TD</td>
<td>-.052</td>
<td>.338</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b</td>
<td>IS $\rightarrow$ FA</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>***</td>
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<tr>
<td>6c</td>
<td>IS $\rightarrow$ FL</td>
<td>.075</td>
<td>.235</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I $\rightarrow$ FA</td>
<td>.766</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>P $\rightarrow$ FL</td>
<td>.173</td>
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Note: *** indicates $p < .001$, ** indicates $p < .01$, * indicates $p < .05$

**CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this paper was to examine the hotel booking flow experience based upon several antecedents. The hypothesized model with 11 research hypotheses were tested to explore the antecedents of the flow experience while customers visited hotel booking websites.

Hypothesis 1 was rejected. It indicated that the complexity of a hotel booking website cannot predict online flow experience. In other words, a complexly designed hotel booking website has limited influence on consumers’ flow experience when they visit hotel booking websites. The original hypotheses of perceived skill and perceived control (PS&PC) and perceived challenge and arousal (PC&A) were based on Novak et al.’s (2000) flow model, where perceived skill and perceived control as well as perceived challenge and arousal could predict online flow experience. After model modification, however, the constructs of perceived control and arousal were eliminated from the proposed model in the current study due to insufficient factor loadings. Therefore perceived skill (PS) and perceived challenge (PC) were individually tested and
were found to have positive effects on online hotel booking flow experience. Apparently, the more a customer thinks he/she is skillful in using hotel booking website functions and features, the more likely he/she would be in the state of flow. Also the more perceived challenge a hotel booking website presents (e.g., online features), the more likely a customer would reach the state of flow. These two findings confirmed the results from many previous studies (e.g., Csikszentmihalyi, 1975a; 1977; Ghani & Deshpande, 1994; Ghani et al., 1991; Hoffman & Novak, 1996; Massimini & Carli, 1988; Novak et al., 2000; Trevino & Webster, 1992; Webster et al., 1993), revealing that perceived skill and perceived challenge are two key elements of online flow experience. Hypothesis 2 and 3 were supported.

Hypothesis 4, 5a, 6b, and 7 were supported while Hypothesis 5b, 6a, and 6c were rejected in the SEM analysis. These hypotheses were designed to test the relationships among importance, focused attention, interactive speed, telepresence, time distortion, and the flow experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997; Huffman & Novak, 1996; Novak et al., 2000) when customers visit hotel booking websites. The results showed that the importance of the matter/task (i.e. searching hotel information or making a hotel booking) had a positive effect on customers’ focused attention during their visit on hotel booking websites. The customers’ focused attention and the website interactive speed (or internet speed) could lead them to a status of telepresence and time distortion, in which they would forget about where they were and how much time they spent on the hotel booking websites. Eventually, telepresence and time distortion would lead customers to the online flow experience while visiting the hotel booking websites. The causal relationships among importance, focused attention, interactive speed, telepresence, and time distortion were partially consistent with the findings from Novak et al.’s (2000) study. However, contrary to the rejected hypotheses, Novak et al. (2000) found that focused attention had a direct positive effect on the flow experience and interactive speed also could predict focused attention, telepresence, and time distortion in the computer-mediated environment, such as Internet surfing.

The relationship between the playfulness of a(n) tool/object/website and users’ flow experience has been studied in different fields (e.g., Agarwal & Karahanna, 2000; Csikszentmihalyi, 1975a; Webster et al., 1993). The last hypothesis (Hypothesis 8) in the model was supported, in which the playfulness of a hotel booking website was found to have a causal relationship with the customer’s flow experience during visits to the hotel booking website. This finding indicated that interesting features or information (e.g., popup games or quizzes) offered by online hotel booking websites would make customers enjoy their time while visiting the websites, and eventually lead them to the flow experience.

REFERENCES


WHY DO THEY USE SOCIAL MEDIA TO ORGANIZE VACATION TRIP? EXPLORE THE EFFECT OF ATTITUDE, BENEFIT AND INCENTIVE ON TOURISTS’ INTENTION OF USING SOCIAL MEDIA

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INTRODUCTION

In the past decade, we have witnessed a huge growth of social media which was born through the spread of social network connections and is called “user-generated content”. Social media is used as a communication tool, such as Twitter, mobile short text messages, shared photos, podcasts, audio and video streams, blogs, wikis, discussion groups, virtual reality game environments, and social networking sites like Facebook and MySpace to connect them to the world and the people they care about (Hansen et al., 2011, pp.11). Besides those personal practices, more and more business companies realize the increasing important role that social media plays in building and keep a long-term relationship with their customers. Thus companies create their own social communities, like Facebook, Blog and Twitter to communicate with customers, instead of traditional customer relationship management which was born by information technology (Baird & Parasnis, 2011).

Tourism industry is believed as one of industries that customers widely use social media to share photos, video and experiences to certain destinations. Besides that, travel agencies also use social media to attract customers and fasten the relationship between them. The practice of social media in tourism industry has been named as Travel 2.0 (Adam, Cobos, & Liu, 2007).

This study aims to explore why tourists tend to use and rely on social media to organize their vacation trip. Differentiate with past studies, the present study investigate this issue from two aspects --- social media marketing activities (B to C) and tourists themselves (C to C). According to Parra-Lopez et al. (2011), some of the reasons explaining tourists to use social media to organize trip can be suggested as “benefit” and “incentives”. Moreover, Akar and Topcu (2011) also emphasize the essential role of customers’ attitude towards social media marketing, in other words, whether customers treat companies’ social media marketing activities positively. If tourists positive accept travel agencies’ social media marketing activities, they will use the information provided by travel agencies to organize their vacation trip. Thus the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1a: Tourists’ attitude towards social media marketing activities positively and significantly affect their intention of using social media to organize vacation trip.

H1b: Tourists’ perceived benefit of using social media positively and significantly affect their intention of using social media to organize vacation trip.

H1c: Tourists’ incentive of using social media positively and significantly affect their intention of using social media to organize vacation trip.

From the perspective of business to customer, it cannot be denied the strong effect of social media marketing activities on customers’ purchase decision making process and final decision. In this aspect, it is supposed that tourists who have positive attitude to travel agencies’ social media marketing activities tend to perceive benefit and gain incentive to use social media. In line with the theoretical background, we propose the two hypotheses as this follow.

H2a: Tourists’ attitude towards social media marketing activities positively and significantly affect their perceived benefit of using social media in the term of tourism.

H2b: Tourists’ attitude towards social media marketing activities positively and significantly af-
fect their incentive of using social media in the term of tourism.

If tourists perceive enough benefits of using social media, they will be stimulated and encouraged to practice more social media to share, search and provide information about their trip. This background let us induce the following hypothesis.

H3: Tourists’ perceived benefit of using social media positively and significantly affect their incentive of using social media in the term of tourism.

Notes:
“Attitudes” means tourists’ attitude towards travel agencies’ social media marketing activities; “Benefits” means tourists’ perceived benefit of using social media; “Incentive” means tourists’ motivation of using social media; “Intention” means whether tourists would like to use social media to organize their trip.

![Figure 1. Conceptual Model](image)

**METHOD**

This study involves items which have been used in past research. All items were developed based on the 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. This study employed pervious studies’ items to evaluate different variables. In detail, the items used to evaluate “attitude towards social media marketing activities” are cited from Akar and Topqu (2011); the items used to evaluate “benefit” are employed from Wang and Fesenmaier (2004), Goldsmith and Horowitz (2006), Hagel and Armstrong (1997) and Jeong (2008); the items used to evaluate “incentive” are practiced from Yoo and Gretzel (2008), Batson et al. (2002), Dahlen (2002), Wasko and Faraj (2005), Chung et al. (2008), Torkzadeh and Lee (2003) and Chen (2006); the items used to evaluate “incentive” are cited from Wang and Fesenmaier (2004). Because of the limited space, the survey instrument practiced in this study will be showed on presentation.

The empirical data for this study was collected by an online survey conducted by one of the biggest research companies in Japan from March 13th to March 16th, 2015. A screening test was conducted to select suitable respondents with experience of using social media to organize their vacation and had accessed or used travel agencies’ social media, such as Facebook, Blog, and Twitter. Finally, due to the limited research budget, 622 valid samples were collected to be used in analyzing the conceptual model.

**FINDINGS**

Covariance structure analysis is employed to analyze the inter-relationship between “attitudes”, “benefits”, “incentives” and “intention”. This study composed items which are included in each factor by seeking the average of these items instead of conducting a second factor analysis. In other words, this study changed latent variables into observed variables in order to increase reliability. The results of data analysis are shown below (see Figure 2 and Table 1).
Table 2. The results of data analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1a: Attitude → Intention .11 (.010)</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1b: Benefits → Intention .18 (.002)</td>
<td>Reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1c: Incentive → Intention .68***</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a: Attitude → Benefits .49***</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b: Attitude → Incentives .37***</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: Benefits → Incentives .56***</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPLICATIONS

This study examines the factors influencing tourists’ intention of using social media to organize their vacation trip. Based on the results of data analysis, it has been shown that incentives bring the strongest effect on social media using intention. Managers should realize that whether tourists use social media to organize vacation trip is greatly dependent on the stimulation formed within themselves instead of the things around them like social media marketing activities and perceived benefits. However, it does not mean that the two variables should be neglected. An effective social media marketing activity, such as communicating customers through Facebook, will increase tourists’ perceived benefits (.49), and then the customers with high perceived benefits tend to have incentives to use social media (.56). Thus, conducting effective social media marketing is also essential task for travel agencies, although it cannot connect to intention of using social media directly.

REFERENCES


EFFECTS OF SOCIAL INFLUENCE ON CUSTOMERS’ MOTIVATIONS AND THEIR BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS: IN BED AND BREAKFAST VIRTUAL ENVIRONMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Despite increased attention to social interactions in online environments, the impact of online social influence on users’ motivations for purchasing from a lodging website has been under-researched, especially in the b&b context. Since an enriching customer experience is one of the core values of a b&b operation, b&bs will sustain their competitive advantages if they incorporate customer-focused experiential attributes in the online environment (Oh et al., 2007). Hence, this study attempts to examine effects of online social influence on relationships among customers’ motivations to enhance their behavioral intentions adopting flow theory. Studies confirmed that applying the flow concept to understand customer experiences in service environments is promising, but still underdeveloped (Inversini and Masjero, 2014; Nusair and Parsa, 2011), especially for tourism and hospitality settings (Gao and Bai, 2014).

More specifically, the purpose of this study is twofold. First, by adopting flow theory, this study explores the effects of customers’ extrinsic and intrinsic motivations on their flow experience and establishing customer trust, and, in turn, on their behavioral intentions with a b&b online environment. Next, it examines the moderating role of virtual social influence on relationships among customers’ motivations, their psychological experiences, and their behavioral intentions in the context of a b&b digital environment.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Hedonic and utilitarian motivations

Utilitarian (extrinsic) motivation is defined as rational and goal-oriented (Batra and Ahtola, 1991; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982). On the other hand, hedonic (intrinsic) motivation focuses on the search of emotions, such as happiness and enjoyment experienced during the purchase procedure (Davis, Bagozzi, and Warshaw. 1992). The utilitarian aspect focuses on usefulness, value, and wisdom of the behavior from the customer’s perspective and its perspective focuses on the benefits associated with the efficiency in the process of purchase. The mission to purchase, efficiency, and completeness of the purchasing process triggers utilitarian motivation (Babin, William, and Griffin. 1994; Holbrook, 1994). On the contrary, the hedonic aspect relates to experienced or anticipated pleasure from the behavior and results from esthetic/emotional feelings, such as love, joy, boredom, like, or dislike (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Hedonic-oriented customers tend to seek enjoyment of the process and receive satisfaction from the experience and emotion (Mikalef, Giannakos, and Pateli, 2013).

Flow experience

Online customers typically seek both utilitarian-ease of use, price, and service offering-and hedonic-visualy appealing website designs or enjoyable experiences when they shop online (Bilgihan et al., 2015). Utilitarian and hedonic elements of a website can establish a flow experience (Senecal, Gharbi, and Tunis, 2002). To enhance the
customer’s experience online, the drivers for flow need to be understood (McGinnis, Gentry, and Gao, 2008). Studies found hedonic and utilitarian elements are related to the flow experience (Bridges and Florsheim, 2008; Senecal and Gharbi, 2002). Therefore, it is hypothesized:

H1: Customer’s hedonic motivation positively influences their flow experiences on a b&b website.

H2: Customer’s utilitarian motivation positively influences their flow experiences on a b&b website.

Emotional responses

Researchers suggest people’s feelings or emotions determine what they do and how they do it (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). According to the M-R model (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974), emotional responses can result in two opposite actions-approach or avoidance behaviors. Approach behaviors include all positive behaviors that might be directed at a particular place, such as desire to stay, explore work, and affiliate (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974); on the other hand, avoidance behaviors are just opposite from the approach behaviors. Thus, it is hypothesized:

H3: Customers’ hedonic motivation positively influence their emotional responses on a b&b website.

H4: Customers’ utilitarian motivation positively influence their emotional responses on a b&b website.

H5: Customers’ flow experience positively affect emotional responses on a b&b website.

Customers’ behavioral intentions

By experiencing positive emotions, an individual automatically feels arousal that leads to cognitive broadening where the individual’s attention, thoughts, and behavior repertoires are expanded (Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, and Larkin, 2003). Findings from the study of loyalty enhancement and repeat business indicate e-marketers should constantly provide a compelling online customer experience, such as flow, to build customer behavioral intentions (repeated purchase or loyalty) in an online context (Rose, Clark, Smouel, and Hair, 2012). Hence, it is hypothesized:

H6: Customer’s flow experiences positively affect their behavioral intention on a b&b website.

H7: Customers’ emotional response positively affects their behavioral intention on a b&b website.

Online social influence (e-subjective norm)

Social facilitation theory refers to the idea the mere presence of other customers eliciting the monitoring of other social behaviors (Zajonc, 1965) also supports the notion of the subjective norm. In other words, awareness of the social aspect—mere presence or absence of spectators—will affect human behaviors of other customers (Platania and Moran, 2001; Zajonc, 1965). This interprets as not only the mere presence of customers is an important component of the service environment, but also what others might have said or suggested is likely to influence the behaviors of existing and potential customers in the service environment. It may be the one important reason that most companies’ websites provide the function for customers to post reviews or comments. Therefore, this study proposes the moderating role of social presence as e-subjective norm in the relationship among customers’ motivations, flow experience, emotional responses, and their behavioral intentions, positing the following hypotheses:

H8: Social influence moderates the relationships between customer’s hedonic motivations and their flow experiences in a b&b’s virtual environment.

H9: Social influence moderates the relationships between customer’s utilitarian motivations and their flow experiences in a b&b’s virtual environment.

H10: Social influence moderates the relationships between customer’s hedonic motivations and their emotional responses in a b&b’s virtual environment.

H11: Social influence moderates the relationships between customer’s utilitarian motivations and their emotional responses in a b&b’s virtual environment.

H12: Social influence moderates the relationships between the customer’s flow experiences and their behavioral intentions in a b&b’s virtual environment.

H13: Social influence moderates the relationships between customers’ emotional response and their behavioral intentions in a b&b’s virtual environment.
METHODOLOGY

Using an online self-administered survey, a marketing research company was utilized for use of its online panel as participants. A total of 302 usable surveys were collected. All items are measured with a 5-point Likert scale, 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree.

To investigate the effects of exogenous variables on endogenous variables, the two-step approach was utilized. First, using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), convergent and discriminant validities were examined. Then, the structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis was conducted to assess relationships proposed in the study framework.

CONCLUSIONS

Discussion

Having the M-R, the flow theory and the social facilitation theory as the underpinning theoretical foundations, this study investigated the causal relationships among hedonic and utilitarian motivational e-servicescape stimuli, flow experience, emotional responses, and customers’ behavioral intentions. Also, this study attempted to examine the moderation effects of a b&b’s online social influence on relationships among customers’ motivations and their consequences. Results from data analyses indicated both hedonic and utilitarian motivations positively affect flow experience and emotional responses, flow experience influences emotional responses and behavioral intention, and emotional responses affect customers’ behavioral intentions. Therefore, all hypotheses from 1 through 7 were supported. Since this study adopted the flow experience as a core variable in the conceptual framework, it is not surprising to see the flow experience variable explained 80 percent of the variance, with emotional responses explained 64 percent and customer behavioral intention 59 percent, respectively.

A series of chi-squared tests identify moderation effects with three paths: (1) from hedonic motivation to the flow experience (H8), (2) from the flow experience to customers’ behavioral intentions (H12), and (3) from emotional responses to customers’ behavioral intentions (H13). Therefore, customers tend to be attracted by a b&b website that reflects a personalized services and previous and existing guests’ reviews and comments. Social presence of a b&b website appears to mitigate the lack of interpersonal interaction in the virtual environment (Keeling, Keeling, and McGoldrick, 2013).

Implications

Findings suggest both customers’ hedonic and utilitarian motivations drive the flow experience that leads to emotional responses, and, in turn, customer behavioral intentions, such as return visit or purchase intention from a b&b website. Results imply the higher the social influence, the stronger the relationship between hedonic motivation and flow experience; the higher the social influence, the stronger the relationship between flow experience and customers’ behavioral intentions; and the higher the social influence, the stronger the relationship between emotional responses and customers’ behavioral intentions.

In addition to theoretical implications, this study provides management of lodging companies with helpful suggestions to ensure its website in social presence to better attract interactions with prospective and existing customers. Engaging with online peer customers via websites can intrigue prospective customers’ extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, which can arouse their flow experiences and emotional responses. This will eventually persuade customers to book online. Online subjective norm is considered influential to prospective customers as this factor influence their online purchase decisions. Management of lodging companies should initiate more efforts towards fulfilling customers’ motivations to develop a persuasive lodging website. Online sharing connections among previous and prospective customers will increase the feeling of being involved with the audience and stimulate their motivations to visit a b&b website and, ultimately, urge customers to book online to stay with a b&b facility.

Limitations and future studies

This study adopted the cross-sectional method rather than a longitudinal method, which is more appropriate to observe the evolvement of the customer behavioral intention on a b&b website. Using a survey format with the sample population, experienced with b&b accommodations, still has
some reservations to generalize its findings. There should be additional variables included in the study framework, such as customer satisfaction between emotional responses and customer’s behavioral intentions.

REFERENCES


WORKING ENGLISH IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN JAPAN: FROM AN ELF PERSPECTIVE

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Yukinori Watanabe
Sagami Women’s University

INTRODUCTION

Foreign visitors to Japan recognize language as the second-largest travel barrier (The Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2009). In response to several surveys with similar results, the Japanese government, both national and local, has been spending billions of yen to multilingualize signs and services in order to overcome language barriers (Japan Tourism Agency, 2010). To further promote this multilingualism policy, the Japanese Tourism Agency (JTA) issued “The Guidelines for the Improvement and Strengthening of Multilingual Guidance” as a part of a program called “The Action Program toward the Realization of Japan as a Tourism-Oriented Country” (Japan Tourism Agency, 2014). However, with a surge of foreign tourists from various linguistic areas such as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and European countries, implementing strict multilingual policies seems no longer feasible. Therefore, English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) has gained increasing attention, despite the fact that nearly 50% of foreign visitors are from Chinese-speaking countries and 25% from Korea (Japan Tourism Agency, 2015). The tourism business industry is inclined to further prioritize English. They see having employees’ acquiring communicative competence in English as an urgent issue (Weekly Diamond, 2014). In Japan, it is American English that has been predominantly taught in ESL education classes.

To understand their strong inclination for acquiring American English as ELF, Braj Kachru’s model of World Englishes (WE) is useful. He captured the diffusion of English in a model of three concentric circles of the spread of the language: the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1992). The Inner Circle refers to the traditional bases of English, dominated by the mother-tongue varieties. The varieties of English used here (UK, US, etc.) are said to be “norm providing.” The Outer Circle consists of the earlier phases of the spread of English in non-native settings, where the language plays an important second language role in multilingual settings (Rajadurai, 2005). The English used in the Outer Circle is considered as “norm-developing.” The Expanding Circle refers to the territories where English is taught as a “foreign” language as the most useful vehicle of international communication. The English used in the Expanding Circle is considered “norm-dependent” because it relies on the standards set by native speakers in the Inner Circle. The “norm-dependence” on American English in Japanese tourism business communication is therefore justified. However, this three-circle model cannot account for the growing use of ELF among non-native English speakers (Mollin, 2006; Jenkins, 2007). Given the fact that 82% of the population of 1.34 million inbound tourists belongs to the Expanding Circle (11 million) while the Inner Circle constitutes 12% (1.6 million) and tourists from the Outer Circle represent 6% (0.75 million), it is possible to argue that the ELF communicative skills required in the specific context of tourism in Japan could be quite different from Inner Circle norms. Nonetheless, there has been no large-scale survey to determine the characteristics of ELF communication taking place in actual tourism settings. This study attempts an exploratory analysis of linguistic work in the tourism industry to offer a starting point for the discussion.
METHOD

This qualitative study is an initial attempt or a preliminary study of a larger research project (2016–2018) to develop a new English training course for students in Japan’s hospitality industry. The information used in this study included interviews and non-participative observations. The interview study consisted of five in-depth interviews. Interview participants were all women who majored in English at the researchers’ institution and presently work as receptionists at various hotels in or near Tokyo, who agreed to talk about their experience of using foreign language at work. The observation study consisted of multiple visits to hotels in and around the Tokyo area to interview participants at work. The interviews were transcribed for analysis and the narratives were coded and categorized according to information gathered about their work experiences and included 1) study abroad experience, 2) experience in linguistic work, 3) dealing with problematic situations, and 4) how they evaluated the experiences. The interview transcriptions and field notes were examined to identify underlying common themes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Participants</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years on the job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience abroad</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hotel rating</td>
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<tr>
<td>Business affiliation</td>
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FINDINGS

Language Attitudes toward English

All participants regarded English as the only foreign language required to carry out their duty, which appears to reflect their employers’ approaches to language policies. It is notable, however, that each hotel has its own degree of estimation of their clients’ anticipation of English language availability, which varies depending on the hotel rating. Hotels with higher ratings anticipate their customers will have a higher expectation of English as the common language in the facilities. Those hotels expect little demand for Chinese or Korean language services, although native Chinese and Korean speakers form a large part of foreign visitors. Larger, foreign-affiliated hotels seem to expect that their valued regular clients prefer to receive uniform quality in language services, which may lead to less awareness of the varieties of World Englishes. On the other hand, hotels with budget facilities presume their customers do not expect much accommodation in spoken English. Some hotels in this category employ native Chinese and/or Korean speaking staff to assign jobs involving these languagess for these guests, utilizing a presumably abundant native-speaking workforce that there is a population of people living(Ministry of Justice, 2015).assigns Hence, Japanese staff feel English has remained the only language that is valuable to learn for their work.

English training in the workplace

Some business operators offer in-house English instruction given by native English-speaking instructors, whereas others simply provide teach-yourself learning materials or educational allowances that cover exam fees. Regardless of what types of language learning resources are made available, they are all aimed at being able to listen, comprehend, and speak standard American English, based on the current English usage of native English speakers. This is also a common principle for traditional ESL education and exams for English proficiency, such as the Tourism English Proficiency Test (TOEIC), that are . None of these resources have yet to take into consideration a viewpoint of World Englishes. Still, the English encounter at work is often quite different from what is traditionally being taught because they are mostly engaged in conversations with people who speak ELF from territories of the Expanding Circle. fromthe that the hasionmy
Although some of the participants expressed difficulties understanding strong foreign accents or peculiar usages of English, there are no informative resources available for them to refer to. These variations in English sound “strange” and “unfamiliar” to them. They regard these variations not as learning targets but as something they somehow need to get used to.

DISCUSSION

It is of interest to indicate that those who feel perfectly comfortable communicating with non-native ELF users mentioned their experiences of spending classroom hours with ELF users from other countries. They spent at least one year in an English school in Canada, where they were ELF users, exposed daily to non-native variations of English, mainly Chinese/Korean/Arabic English, in the classroom. Here we could identify secondary or hidden benefits from studying abroad as students enjoyed not only the opportunity to use English in authentic surroundings and to appreciate intercultural communication but also the opportunity to improve their tolerance toward non-native English variations far different from Inner Circle norms. The interview analysis revealed this secondary benefit has turned out to be equally valuable in their places of employment. In terms of formulating practical language training, increasing exposure to such variations in English in the form of listening material could truly be of great benefit to current and future hotel employees.

CONCLUSION

This analysis has confirmed the importance of ELF being widely shared among hotel employees as well as hotel business operators. However, their goals to create better language environments for inbound tourists are not likely to be achieved unless they foster more awareness of English variations spoken by non-native speakers. This is not to deny following Inner Circle norms as the target language but to suggest the necessity to broaden values to include diversity in teaching English. One means to enhance the effectiveness of teaching English is to create new situation-based learning materials that include such English variations. While it is neither possible nor practical to cover all of the variations, these interviews indicated that learning English variations spoken by native Thai speakers would be particularly beneficial. There has been a recent surge of Thai tourists (657 thousand in 2014) to Japan, and the variations of Thai English are relatively unknown. This particular phase of English variation learning will be explored in further research.

Keywords:
hotel industry of Japan, employee training, language education, English as a Lingua Franca, World Englishes

REFERENCES


THE IMPACT OF THE HIGH-SPEED TRAIN ON REGIONAL TOURISM ECONOMIES: EVIDENCE FROM CHINA

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Employing panel data of 123 cities over 2007-2013 period in China, this study investigates how high-speed trains relate to a regional tourism economy. This study examines how the impact of high-speed trains becomes different for a group of regions which has the different location quotient (LQ) and tourism resource quotient (RQ). The results demonstrate that the impact magnitude of high-speed train depends on the location condition and tourism resource condition of a region. This study sheds a new light on the relationship between tourism transportation infrastructure and regional tourism. Based on the results, some implications are derived.

Keywords:
high-speed train; China; regional tourism economy; panel data model.

INTRODUCTION

Transportation has been recognized as a critical component of regional tourism system (Leiper, 1990; Prideaux, 2000). Many researches demonstrate that the development of transportation contribute significantly to a regional tourism economy (Masson & Petiot, 2009; Wang et al., 2012).

According to the ambitious plan of transportation at the national level, China began to thoroughly update its train system nationwide since 2007. From 2007 to 2013, approximately 1200 D-trains (the high-speed trains using D letter before their train number) have been gone into service, whose speed is about 200 km/h. During the same time period, about 700 G-trains (the high-speed trains using G before their train number) also have been in operation, which are faster than D-trains with a speed about 250 -350km/h.

The large-scale development of high speed trains in China in the last decade is supposed to improve the accessibility of a region, facilitate the travel of tourists and provide an important opportunity for regional tourism economy. However, there are few empirical studies to demonstrate how the high-speed trains matter to a regional tourism economy, scant researches as Chen & Haynes (2012) and Yan et al (2014) do are limited in terms of data base and estimation techniques. As a result, the policies related to regional transportation development lack the support of empirical evidence, which motivates this study.

RESEARCH METHOD

With a purpose to bridge the research gap, this study attempts to use systematic data to estimate how the high-speed train is related to a regional tourism economy. Specifically, this study considers cities (totally 123 cities) situated on and near Beijing-Guangzhou line and Beijing-Shanghai line as the research samples. It is widely recognized that Beijing-Guangzhou line and Beijing-Shanghai line represent well to the development of high-speed trains in China. A panel data covering 2007-2013 are collected.

Firstly, this study uses the data from total samples to estimate the following equation:

\[
\ln REVENUE_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D\text{-}GD + \beta_2 \ln ATT_{it} + \beta_3 \ln HOTEL_{it} + \beta_4 \ln GDP_{it} + \beta_5 \ln POP_{it} + \beta_6 \ln FDI_{it} + \mu_i + \epsilon_{it}
\]

(1)

In equation (1), the explained variable is the logarithm form of REVENUE, representing annual tourism revenue of a city; D-GD is the explanatory variable, a dummy variable to denote whether the high-speed trains go from/across/to a city or not.
For controlling other factors which are supposed to impact a regional tourism economy, a set of controlled variables are used. ATT is the number of well-known attractions, which reflects city’s tourism resource condition. HOTEL is the number of the starred hotel of a city, representing development level of service industry in a city. GDPP, the Gross Domestic Product per capita, is used to control the ability a city mobilize economic resource to attract tourist. FDI, foreign direct investment, is used to measure the degree of internationalization of a city, which is supposed to relate to the tourism revenue through impacting the inbound tourism. The commonly used techniques for panel data model will be considered.

The parameter $\beta_1$ is the focus of this study.

Secondly, this study divides samples into four sub-samples as figure1 shows. In figure1, LQ (location quotient), as a comprehensive index, is calculated to reflect the advantage a city has in terms of transportation convenience; and RQ (tourism resource quotient) is calculated to reflect the advantage of tourism resources a city has. Then, a city is classified into Group1, Group2, Group3 or Group4 according to its value of LQ and RQ, compared with the average level of LQ and RQ of the whole sample cities. Then using the data of four sub-samples, this study re-estimates equation (1) to exam whether the impact of the high-speed trains differs in different sub-samples.

The comparison of $\beta_1$ of group1, group2, group3 and group4, the cities in Group1 (the low level of LQ and high level of RQ) gain the most significant benefits from the running of high-speed trains; the cities in Group4 get the second-most significant benefit; and cities in Group2 and Group3 get the minimum benefits. This result implies that the contribution magnitude of high-speed trains varies on the location condition and tourism resource condition of a region.

IMPLICATIONS

This study makes a contribution in systematically quantifying the impacts of high-speed trains on a regional tourism economy. Based on this study, a set of implications can be derived, such as adjusting the spatial layout of regional tourism industry, building the transportation lines linking the train stations and regional tourism attractions, developing tourism products to meet the particular tourism demand of tourists who choose high-speed trains as their means to travel, and precision marketing face to the tourists visiting by high-speed trains. These suggestions are particularly relevant for a region to prompt its tourism economy by taking full advantage of the running of high-speed rail.
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MODELING DRIVERS OF SOCIAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY OF TAIWANESE TOUR OPERATORS IN REDUCING GHG EMISSIONS

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INTRODUCTION

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (Scott 2010) have recognized tourism activities as contributing to climate change by having increased greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions at the turn of the 21st century. Therefore, tourism scholars (such as Scott 2011; Weaver 2011) have called for research into sustainable management in response to climate change, and particularly the establishment of frameworks for mitigating it (Buckley 2012). Corporate social responsibility (CSR) or corporate social and environmental responsibility (CSER) is regarded as central to tour operators’ moves toward climatically sustainable tourism (Coles et al. 2013; Wells et al. 2015). The UNEP developed “Climate Change Adaptation and Mitigation in the Tourism Sector: Frameworks, Tools, and Practices” to promote CSR concepts. To reduce the carbon footprint that is associated with tourism activities (Simpson et al. 2008; The International Ecotourism Society 2010; UNWTO-UNEP-WMO 2008), tour operators are called to take a critical role in designing, organizing, and supplying low-emission tour services and to support campaigns to reduce emissions at destinations. In Taiwan, carbon dioxide emissions per person in Taiwan in 2006 were three times the global average (Chiang 2010). To reduce GHG emissions, Taiwan’s Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has incorporated “Implementation Guidelines” into the national policy for carbon neutrality. To achieve the goal, CSR or CSER actions have been promoted to lead corporates’ going green since the last decade.

Awareness and implementation of CSR or CSER vary markedly among subsectors of the tourism industry (Coles et al. 2013), and geographical disparities in relevant research are evident (Baughn et al. 2007). Some sectors, such as hospitality (Ayuso 2006; Bohdanowicz and Zientara 2008; Bohdanowicz and Zientara 2012; de Grosbois 2012; Holcomb et al. 2007; McGehee et al. 2009; Smith and Ong 2015) and airlines (Cowper-Smith and de Grosbois 2011; Lee et al. 2013; Lynes and Andrachuk 2008) have been widely studied to determine their CSR or CSER performance. However, others have been relatively neglected, save for a few scattered academic investigations, such as those of Sheldon and Park (2011), who focused on the general tourism industry, Mair and Jago (2010), who focused on the events business, Whitfield and Dioko (2012), who focused on the conference industry, Wells et al. (2015), who focused on heritage tourism, and Sheldon and Park (2011) and Dodds and Kuehnle (2010), who focused on tour operators. Little research into the CSER of tour operators that organize and manage tourism resources to supply tour services, and therefore play the most critical role in ensuring the sustainability of tourism, has been carried out. Additionally, academic works are concentrated in some countries where CSR or CSER is traditionally emphasized - mostly in Europe and North America; however, Asian countries that are experiencing fast growth in tourism and embracing CSER strategies in tourism practices have attracted relatively few attentions.

Based on the models conceptualized by Lynes and Andrachuk (2008) and Mair and Jago (2010) for the drivers of CSR or CSER initiatives in the tourism sector, this research explores the association
between tour operators’ CSER actions and the determinants. Particularly, CSER practices to reduce GHG emissions are targeted in the research. It aims to fill large research gaps by elucidating the extent of Taiwanese tour operators’ performance of CSER actions and identifying the factors that significantly drive those actions. The findings will be practically beneficial to the tourism industry in how to effectively encourage operator’s low-emission initiatives and provide important references for policy-making associated with carbon neutrality.

**METHOD**

Figure 1 displays the research model with six major constructs. Moreover, Morrison (1996) defined tour operators as companies that design, organize, package, market, and operate holiday leisure programs or tours. In Taiwan, travel agencies undertake these tasks and provide other tourism-related services. The three categories of travel agencies, defined by Taiwan’s tourism laws are, consolidated, class A, and class B. In 2014, 83% of agencies were in class A. According to statistical data that were published by the Tourism Bureau, 1,724 (55%) of the 3,153 Taiwanese travel agencies were located in Northern Taiwan in March, 2014, of which 73% were in Taipei City, 20% were in New Taipei City or Touyan City, and only 7% were in other counties. Managers of travel agencies in Northern Taiwan were investigated. Of the 552 completed surveys, 456 were identified as coming from tour operators, whose managers claimed to organize and operate their own tours in response to a simple survey question about their company’s operations.

Three dimensions of CSER practices to reduce GHG emissions were identified, and 16 items were developed. Respondents were asked to disclose the extent to which they performed CSER activities by selecting from three degrees of implementation: 1. no plan to implement in the near future, 2. plan to implement soon, and 3. already implemented. Total 26 items in five determinants: organizational and external factors, motivations, barriers, and catalysts are established based on the previous research. A panel of eight experts from travel agencies and professors of sustainable tourism were invited to review the constructs and survey questions that were developed herein based on literature. The suggestions of the experts were incorporated into the final survey by adding or removing questions, using reader-friendly wording, and ordering the question items, in order to improve content and construct validity.

There were five hypotheses built upon the research model as below

H1: Organizational factors significantly affect the CSER practices of tour operators that are intended to reduce GHG emissions.

H2: External factors significantly affect the CSER practices of tour operators that are intended to reduce GHG emissions.

H3: Motivations significantly affect the CSER practices of tour operators that are intended to reduce GHG emissions.

H4: Barriers significantly affect the CSER practices of tour operators that are intended to reduce GHG emissions.

H5: Catalysts significantly affect the CSER practices of tour operators that are intended to reduce GHG emissions.

**FINDINGS**

A total of six constructs was analyzed using CFA. The reliability of the six constructs was evaluated, and Cronbach’s alpha values of these constructs ranged from .69 to .90, indicating good or adequate internal consistency (Kline 2005). All variables except for “business size” had significant factor loadings (P<.001) (Table 1). After “business size” (Org5) was removed from the model, the goodness-of-fit indices revealed a good model fit (Bollen 1989; Hu and Bentler 1998) with (1) Chi-square=418.95, Df=120, p=.000, (2) RMSEA=.07, (3) NFI=.90, (4) CFI=.93 (Table 1). All average variances extracted (AVE) for the six constructs exceeded the threshold of .5 (Fornell and Larcker 1981). All factor loadings were significant. The convergent validity of the measurement model were demonstrated (Hair et al. 2009). Finally, the estimated correlations between the six constructs were not very high (e.g., .85), and the AVEs exceeded the corresponding squared inter-construct correlation estimates (SIC) (Fornell and Larcker 1981), revealing that all items or indicators had more in common with the construct that was based on them than with any other construct Discriminant
validity was established (Hair et al. 2009).

An empirical structural equation model was developed to test the hypotheses that were proposed herein. The results yielded Chi-square=557.32, DF=124. However, “the model chi-square is also affected by sample size... If the sample size is large, ... the value of the model’s chi-square may lead to rejection of the model...” (Hair et al. 2009, 136). Several indices, such as CFI=.89, NFI=.87, and RMSEA=.08, indicated a good to fair model fit (Hu and Bentler 1998; Kline 2005). This model could explained 44%, 34%, and 50% of the variances of the CSER practices, organizational factors, and external factors, respectively.

Table 2 presents the parameter estimates and the results of significance tests of all hypotheses. The effects of the organizational factors and external factors on CSER practices were both positive and significant (β=.47, t=7.22, and β=.27, t=2.98), supporting H1 and H2. However, H3, H4, and H5 were not supported. To elucidate further how organizational factors and external factors mediated the effects of motivations, barriers, and catalysts on CSER practices, a bootstrapping analysis was conducted. Three drivers: motivations, barriers, and catalysts had significant indirect effects of various magnitudes (β=.31, -.07, .25, respectively) on CSER practices (Table 2).

**IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION**

Organizational factors (managerial attitudes and awareness) and external factors (culture and political environment) are the direct predictors of tour operators’ low-emission CSER actions, consistent with the claims of Lynes and Andrabchuk (2008) and Mair and Jago (2010), as well as other researchers, such as Bohdanowicz and Zientara (2008), Bramwell and Lane (2000), Dodds and Kuehnel (2010), Lynn and Dredge (2006), and Marshall et al. (2005). Mair and Jago (2010) argued that a company manager’s environmental values not only represent a background for corporate greening, but also drive the commitments of a green enterprise. Positive attitudes of a firm’s leaders effectively guide the implementation of CSER initiatives, as suggested by the “internal leadership” function that Lynes and Andrabchuk (2008) identified. This research found that managerial attitudes and awareness are the most powerful predictor of CSER actions, demonstrating that managers should play the key role in environmental campaigns that target climatic sustainability. Furthermore, external pressure from consumers, the general public, and governments directly affect the responsible actions of tour operators, but less strongly than organizational factors. This finding is consistent with the assertion of Lynes and Andrabchuk (2008) about the direct effect of culture on CSER commitments. Governmental policies incorporate societal expectations on corporate’s contribution to the community, with which a culture of corporate responsibility forms.

This research also elucidates that both organizational and external factors mediate the effects of motivations, barriers, and catalysts on CSER actions to reduce emissions. Motivations, strongly emphasized by both mainstream CSR research and some recent tourism studies regarding CSR practices (Cowper-Smith and de Grosbois, 2011; Dodds and Kuehnel, 2010; McGeehe et al., 2009; Mair and Jago, 2010; Sheldon and Park, 2011) are insignificant as direct predictors of tour operators’ CSER actions. However, the total effect of motivations on CSER actions is second only to that of organizational factors. Similarly, Mair and Jago (2010) noted that event businesses regarded company image and improved competitiveness as the second most powerful drivers of corporate greening, followed by eco-campaigns initiated by the managerial level of a firm. This study also found that the indirect effects of motivations on CSER actions are mostly mediated by organizational factors (β=.25), and slightly by external factors (β=.06). It shows that managerial attitudes towards CSER are significantly improved when tour operators come to perceive CSER as contributing to the business, social welfare, and environmental conservation, leading to a commitment to responsible actions. In addition, the same perception will significantly influence how tour operators face and manage social pressures and governments’ ordinances relevant to CSER, directing to their greater involvement in CSER actions.

**REFERENCES**

Ayuso, S. (2006). Adoption of voluntary environmental tools for sustainable tourism: analyzing the


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![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1.** Hypothesized conceptual model of CSER practices of tour operators, adapted from Bansal and Roth (2000), Lynes and Andrachuk (2008), and Mair and Jago (2010)
Table 1. Results of CFA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Standardized factor loading</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CSER performances on reducing GHG emissions (Cronbach’s alpha=.69, AVE=.50)</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>10.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSE1: Business management</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSE2: Supply chains</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>12.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSE3: Destination management</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational factors (Cronbach’s alpha=.74, AVE=.50 after delete Org5)</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>14.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org1: Intentions to implement CSER practices</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>20.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org2: Ease of implementation of CSER practices with the current operation system of my enterprise</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org3: Ease of implementation of CSER practices for my enterprise with the available techniques</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>6.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org5: Business size</td>
<td>.04*</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External factors (Cronbach’s alpha=.71, AVE=.56)</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ext2: Government policy</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>12.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivations (Cronbach’s alpha=.80, AVE=.64)</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>13.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mot1: Economic and political dimension</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mot2: Social dimension</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>20.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers (Cronbach’s alpha=.90, AVE=.75)</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>24.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bar2: Skill requirements</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bar3: Financial demands</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>22.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalysts (Cronbach’s alpha=.86, AVE=.68)</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>17.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cat2: Media reports about environmental salience</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>20.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cat3: Media reports about social issues at destinations</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
1. *denotes insignificant factor loading while all other factor loadings are significant (P<.001)
2. SE and t-Value are not shown (NA) when the parameters of each construct are fixed at 1.0 for identification
3. Goodness-of-fit before deletion of Org5: (1) Chi-square=443.49, DF=137, p=.000, (2) RMSEA=.07, (3) NFI=.90, (4) CFI=.93
4. Goodness-of-fit after deletion of Org5: (1) Chi-square=418.95, DF=120, p=.000, (2) RMSEA=.07, (3) NFI=.90, (4) CFI=.93

Table 2. Hypothesis test and effects between parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test result</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Direct effect+</th>
<th>Indirect effect+</th>
<th>Total effect+</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1 Organizational factors→CSER</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>.47***</td>
<td>7.22</td>
<td>.47***</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>.47***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 External factors→CSER</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>.27***</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.27***</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>.27***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 Motivations→CSER</td>
<td>Not support</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.44**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivations→organizational F→CSER</td>
<td>Mot.→Org. .53***</td>
<td>.53*.47=.2491</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivations→external F→CSER</td>
<td>Mot.→Ext. .24***</td>
<td>.24*.27=.0648</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 Barriers→CSER</td>
<td>Not support</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-1.68</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.07**</td>
<td>-.16**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers→organizational F→CSER</td>
<td>Bar.→Org. -.19***</td>
<td>-.19*.47=.0893</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Barriers→external F→CSER</td>
<td>Bar.→Ext. .09</td>
<td>.09*.27=.0243</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5 Catalysts→CSER</td>
<td>Not support</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.55</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.25***</td>
<td>.20***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalysts→organizational F→CSER</td>
<td>Cat.→Org. .15***</td>
<td>.15*.47=.0705</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catalysts→external F→CSER</td>
<td>Cat.→Ext. .66***</td>
<td>.66*.27=.1782</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
1. The test result supports the hypothesis when the estimate is significant at p<0.05.
2. + denotes the standardized effect.
3. NA denotes no effect between both variables.
4. ** denotes significant at P<0.05, *** denotes significant at P<0.01
CORPORATE GIVING DECISION OF HOSPITALITY FIRMS IN A DUOPOLISTIC COMPETITION MODEL

Ming-Hsiang Chen  
Washington State University  
Chien-Pang Lin  
Chang Jung Christian University

INTRODUCTION

Corporate giving is the discretionary act of corporations donating a portion of their profits or resources to a wide variety of non-profit organizations. Why do corporations give to charity? In response to this interesting question, research studies have used value enhancement theory and agency cost theory to examine the behavior of a corporation’s corporate giving (Brammer and Millington, 2005; Brown et al., 2006; Chen and Lin, 2015; Navarro, 1988; Wang et al., 2008).

According to value enhancement theory, corporate giving is a type of business expense that creates value for shareholders (Wang et al., 2008) because corporate giving could enhance a firm’s positive image and reputation, which improves customer loyalty (Lev et al., 2010) and employee morale (Navarro, 1988). Alternatively, agency cost theory proposes that managerial insiders could enhance their personal image and reputation through corporate giving, but at the expense of shareholders (Brammer and Millington, 2005). Therefore, corporate giving acts as an agency cost because it fulfills the managerial insiders’ taste for “doing good” while shareholders suffer an opportunity cost (Brown et al., 2006).

In the hospitality research literature, Chen and Lin (2015) investigated the motives of corporate giving of hospitality firms in Taiwan based on the value enhancement and agency cost theories. They found that corporate giving, on the one hand, was related to value enhancement factors, such as profitability and labor intensity. On the other hand, corporate giving was also associated with agency cost variables, including board size and the ratio of independent directors to total directors.

Note that when examining the behavior of a corporation’s corporate giving, Chen and Lin (2015) focused only on a firm’s giving decision making without consideration of the corporate giving decision made by its rival. Moreover, the market environment in which firms operate can affect their corporate giving decision. Johnson (1966) argued that neither highly competitive nor highly monopolized industries will engage in high levels of corporate giving because firms in highly competitive industries lacked the means to give whereas monopolistic firms had little or no incentive for giving.

Given above illustration, this study makes an important contribution by explaining whether a hospitality firm should engage in corporate giving if its rival gives to charity in a duopolistic competition model with rational profit-maximizing hospitality firms. As Debbage (1990) noted, market power is concentrated in the hands of a few suppliers in tourism industries, such as airlines and hotels. Medlik (2012) argued that imperfect competition exists for travel, tourism and hospitality products. Enz (2009) also stated that tourism industries, including airlines, casinos, cruise and theme parks are often characterized by a few very large firms and hence can be classified as an oligopoly.

The duopolistic competition model proposed here has two main assumptions. First, according to value enhancement theory, the model assumes that a hospitality firm with corporate giving enhances a firm’s socially responsible image and may or may not differentiate itself from a hospitality firm without corporate giving to the target consumer and reaped the benefits of consumer loyalty (Lev et al., 2010), which can increase demand for hospitality firm’s services. Second, in line with agency cost theory, the model assumes that engaging in corporate giving incurs cost. The total cost of corporate giving includes direct giving expenses, human resource and administrative cost, and agency cost of managerial misconduct (Wang et al., 2008).
Porter and Kramer (2002) indicated that firms may use corporate giving as corporate competitiveness to benefit their business objectives in the market. In market competition, a hospitality firm’s giving decision could be related to the corporate giving decision made by its rival. To make an appropriate giving decision, rational hospitality firm may have to consider its rival’s corporate giving decision. However, the interaction between competing hospitality firms on corporate giving has not been explored. This is the first study to examine this issue. Specifically, the duopolistic competition model can demonstrate whether a hospitality firm should react to its rival’s corporate giving decision.

The study proceeds as follows. Section 2 presents a duopolistic competition model with no TF giving to charity. Section 3 describes a duopolistic competition model with only one TF giving to charity. Section 4 discusses equilibrium market outcomes. Section 5 concludes the study.

A DUOPOLISTIC COMPETITION MODEL: NO HOSPITALITY FIRM GIVES TO CHARITY

Demand and Cost Functions

Assume that two competing hospitality firms produce and sell a homogenous service (or product) and neither of them gives to charity (the NN case).

Let \( Q_{i}^{NN} \) denote the quantity of the competing good produced by hospitality firm \( i \) (\( i = 1, 2 \)). \( Q_{i}^{NN} > 0 \) because both hospitality firms under duopolistic competition enjoy abnormal profits in the long run.

Therefore, the quantity of market demand \( Q^{NN} = Q_{1}^{NN} + Q_{2}^{NN} > 0 \). The (inverse) market demand for the duopolistic good is given as:

\[ P^{NN} = \alpha - Q^{NN}, \]

where \( P^{NN} \) is the positive market price and \( \alpha \) is a positive parameter of market demand (\( \alpha > 0 \)).

Both competing hospitality firms are also

\[ C_{i}^{NN} = mQ_{i}^{NN}, \]

where \( m \) denotes a constant unit marginal cost (\( m > 0 \)). Accordingly, the profit function for

\[ \pi_{i}^{NN} = P^{NN}Q_{i}^{NN} - mQ_{i}^{NN} = (\alpha - Q^{NN} - m)Q_{i}^{NN} > 0. \]

Since both competing hospitality firms make abnormal profits in the long run, \( \pi_{i}^{NN} = (\alpha - Q^{NN} - m)Q_{i}^{NN} > 0 \).

Equilibrium Market Outcomes

To solve for the equilibrium market outcomes of both duopolistic hospitality firms, we take the first-order derivative of the profit function with respect to output and derive the optimal output level and the corresponding sales revenue and profits for

\[ Q_{i}^{NN} = 0, \]

\[ Q_{i}^{NN} = (\alpha - m)/3, \]

\[ SR_{i}^{NN} = (\alpha - m)(\alpha + 2m)/9, \]

\[ \pi_{i}^{NN} = (\alpha - m)^2 /9 > 0, \]

where \( Q_{i}^{NN} = 0 \) because neither hospitality firm gives to charity, \( SR_{i}^{NN} \) represents the sales revenue for each hospitality firm, and \( \alpha - m > 0 \) because the hospitality firms under duopolistic competition. Each of the two hospitality firms simultaneously sets its optimal output level that maximizes its own profit in Eq. (3). The equilibrium market outcomes are given as:

\[ Q_{i}^{NN} > 0. \]

These equilibrium outcomes serve as the benchmark for evaluating and comparing with those of the situation in which only one hospitality firm gives to charity.
A DUOPOLISTIC COMPETITION MODEL: ONLY ONE HOSPITALITY FIRM GIVES TO CHARITY

Demand and Cost Functions

Assume that only one hospitality firm gives to charity (the NG case) and let $Q_{s}^{NG}$ and $Q_{n}^{NG}$ denote the quantity of the competing good produced by hospitality firm with and without corporate giving respectively. The quantity of market demand $Q_{s}^{NG} = Q_{n}^{NG} + Q_{g}^{NG} > 0$ since both hospitality firms under duopolistic competition enjoy abnormal profits in the long run. Corporate giving produces a socially responsible image, which enhances the competitive advantages of brand differentiation and customer loyalty (Lev et al., 2010), and thus may induce customers to increase their demand for the firm’s products or services (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003).

Therefore, when a hospitality firm gives to charity, its market demand is assumed to increase by $βG$, where $G$ is hospitality firm’s direct giving spending and the parameter $β$ reflects the degree of increased demand for hospitality firm’s services because of the competitive advantage of brand differentiation and customer loyalty induced by corporate giving (the competitive advantage of corporate giving hereafter) and $β ≥ 0$. This denotes that the increase in market demand is proportional to the size of hospitality firm’s $G (G ≥ 0)$. The market demand for hospitality firm’s good increases as the competitive advantage of corporate giving ($β$) rises. As only one duopolistic hospitality firm gives to charity, the inverse market demand function of the hospitality firm with corporate giving ($P_{s}^{NG}$) is:

$$P_{s}^{NG} = α + βG - Q_{s}^{NG}.$$  

Engaging in corporate giving also incurs cost. The cost includes direct giving expenses, human resource and administrative cost, and agency cost of managerial misconduct. McWilliams and Siegel (2001) stated that the costs of human resource and administration may not increase linearly because economies of scale and learning affect the management of giving practices. Wang et al. (2008) indicated that the agency cost of managerial misconduct resulting from the giving conflicts between the directors and managers participating in corporate giving and shareholders is supposed to be minimal at low levels of corporate giving, but likely to become more significant as corporate giving increases.

Accordingly, the cost of corporate giving is assumed to take a quadratic form $κG^2/2$, where $G$ is the direct cost of corporate giving, and $κ$ ($κ > 0$) denotes the induced cost of giving practices, including human resource and administrative cost and agency cost of managerial misconduct. Hence, the total cost function of hospitality firm giving to charity ($C_{s}^{NG}$) is:

$$C_{s}^{NG} = mQ_{s}^{NG} + κG^2/2.$$  

Two profit functions are given as:

$$π_{s}^{NG} = P_{s}^{NG}Q_{s}^{NG} - mQ_{s}^{NG} = (α - Q_{s}^{NG} - m)Q_{s}^{NG},$$

$$π_{g}^{NG} = P_{g}^{NG}Q_{g}^{NG} - mQ_{g}^{NG} - κG^2/2 = (α + βG - Q_{g}^{NG} - m)Q_{g}^{NG} - κG^2/2,$$

where $π_{s}^{NG}$ and $π_{g}^{NG}$ are the profits of hospitality firm with and without corporate giving, respectively.

Equilibrium Market Outcomes

The hospitality firm that does not engage in corporate giving sets an optimal level of output

$$G_{s}^{NG} = 0,$$

$$Q_{s}^{NG} = (α - m)(3κ - 4β^2)/(9κ - 8β^2),$$

maximizing its profits in Eq. (7a) while its rival with corporate giving simultaneously sets an optimal output level and an optimal amount of corporate giving to maximize its profits in Eq. (7b). Thus, the market equilibrium outcomes of the hospitality firm without corporate giving are as follows:

$$Q_{n}^{NG} = (α - m)(3κ - 4β^2)/(9κ - 8β^2),$$

$$Q_{g}^{NG} = (α + βG - Q_{g}^{NG} - m)Q_{g}^{NG} - κG^2/2,$$

$$P_{g}^{NG} = α + βG - Q_{g}^{NG}.$$
\[ SR_n^{NG} = (3\kappa - 4\beta^2)(\alpha - m)' \left( 2m(3\kappa - 2\beta^2) + \alpha(3\kappa - 4\beta^2) \right) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2, \]
\[ \pi_n^{NG} = (\alpha - m)^2 \left( 3\kappa - 4\beta^2 \right) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 > 0, \]

where \( G_n^{NG} = 0 \) denotes the hospitality firm does not engage in corporate giving and \( SR_n^{NG} \) represents its sales revenue. Given that hospitality firm operating in duopolistic competition can enjoy abnormal profit in the long run (\( \pi_n^{NG} > 0 \)), its optimal output level \( Q_n^{NG} \) is greater than zero, i.e.
\[ G_s^{NG} = 4\beta(\alpha - m)/(9\kappa - 8\beta^2), \]
\[ Q_s^{NG} = 3\kappa(\alpha - m)/(9\kappa - 8\beta^2), \]
\[ SR_s^{NG} = 3\kappa(\alpha - m)(2m(3\kappa - 4\beta^2) + 3\alpha \kappa)/(9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2, \]
\[ \pi_s^{NG} = \kappa(\alpha - m)^2/(9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 > 0, \]

where \( G_s^{NG} \) is the optimal giving spending and \( SR_s^{NG} \) represents the sales revenue for the hospitality firm with corporate giving. Because hospitality firms operating in duopolistic competition can enjoy abnormal profitability in the long run, \( \pi_n^{NG} = \kappa(\alpha - m)^2/(9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 \) is greater than zero. This implies that \( 9\kappa - 8\beta^2 > 0 \). Eqs. (9a), (9b), (9c) and (9d) are hence also positive.

**DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

In this section, the study discusses several important results and implications derived from the duopolistic competition model. First, Eqs. (8a)-(8d) reveal that when only one of the two competing hospitality firms gives to charity, the equilibrium market outcomes of hospitality firm without corporate giving are related to two factors of its rival’s corporate giving, the competitive advantage of corporate giving (\( \beta \)) and the induced cost of giving practices (\( \kappa \)).

To see the link between the donor’s giving practices and its rival’s equilibrium market outcomes, we can take the partial derivatives of \( Q_n^{NG} \), \( SR_n^{NG} \) and \( \pi_n^{NG} \) with respect to \( \beta \) and \( \kappa \):

\[ \partial Q_n^{NG} / \partial \beta = -24\beta \kappa(\alpha - m) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 \leq 0, \]
\[ \partial Q_n^{NG} / \partial \kappa = 12\beta^2(\alpha - m) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 \geq 0, \]
\[ \partial SR_n^{NG} / \partial \beta = -24\beta \kappa(\alpha - m) (2\alpha(3\kappa - 4\beta^2) + 3m \kappa) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^3 \leq 0, \]
\[ \partial SR_n^{NG} / \partial \kappa = 12\beta^2(\alpha - m) (2\alpha(3\kappa - 4\beta^2) + 3m \kappa) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^3 \geq 0, \]
\[ \partial \pi_n^{NG} / \partial \beta = -48\beta \kappa(\alpha - m)(3\kappa - 4\beta^2) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^3 \leq 0, \]
\[ \partial \pi_n^{NG} / \partial \kappa = 24\beta^2(\alpha - m)(3\kappa - 4\beta^2) / (9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^3 \geq 0, \]

where \( \partial \) represents the partial derivative. The results shown in Eqs. (10a)-(10f) reveal that the equilibrium level of market demand, sales revenue and profit of a hospitality firm without engaging in corporate giving is negatively related to its rival’s competitive advantage of corporate giving (\( \beta \)) and positively associated with the donor’s induced cost of giving practices (\( \kappa \)).

Second, if \( \beta > 0 \), we can demonstrate the
effects of the donor’s corporate giving on the market outcomes of its rival without corporate giving under
duopolistic competition by showing the following computations:

\[
Q_i^{NG} - Q_i^{NN} = -4\beta^2 (\alpha - m)/3(9\kappa - 8\beta^2) < 0
\]
\[
SR_i^{NG} - SR_i^{NN} = 4\beta^2 (\alpha - m)(2\alpha(9\kappa - 10\beta^2) + m(9\kappa - 4\beta^2))/9(9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 < 0
\]
\[
\pi_i^{NG} - \pi_i^{NN} = -8\beta^2 (\alpha - m)^2(9\kappa - 10\beta^2)/9(9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 < 0
\]

The negative signs of Eqs. (11a)-(11c) suggest that if corporate giving generates a competitive advantage of brand differentiation and customer loyalty, hospitality firm’s giving practices will deteriorate the market demand, sales revenue and profit of its rival without corporate giving. Since the donor’s corporate giving has significantly negative effects on its rival without corporate giving, the hospitality firm that does not give to charity thus has an incentive to engage in corporate
giving to protect its firm performance.

Another important result is that the competitive advantage of corporate giving is a critical determinant of whether or not a hospitality firm should give to charity. As shown in Eqs. (12a)-(12c), corporate giving donated by a hospitality firm may have no effect on its rival’s performance in terms of market demand, sales revenue and profit if corporate giving induces no competitive advantage \((\beta = 0)\):

\[
Q_i^{NG} - Q_i^{NN} = -4\beta^2 (\alpha - m)/3(9\kappa - 8\beta^2) = 0
\]
\[
SR_i^{NG} - SR_i^{NN} = 4\beta^2 (\alpha - m)(2\alpha(9\kappa - 10\beta^2) + m(9\kappa - 4\beta^2))/9(9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 = 0
\]
\[
\pi_i^{NG} - \pi_i^{NN} = -8\beta^2 (\alpha - m)^2(9\kappa - 10\beta^2)/9(9\kappa - 8\beta^2)^2 = 0
\]

The results imply that corporate giving may not generate any reward for the donor if corporate giving induces no competitive advantage. In other words, as the competitive advantage of its rival’s corporate giving \((\beta)\) approaches zero, the hospitality firm that does not give to charity has no need or incentive to engage in corporate giving.

Therefore, the equilibrium outcomes become the situation in which neither HOSPITALITY FIRMS gives to charity:

\[
\lim_{\beta \to 0} Q_i^{NN} = \lim_{\beta \to 0} Q_i^{NG} = 0 = Q_i^{NN},
\]
\[
\lim_{\beta \to 0} (\alpha - m)/3 = Q_i^{NN},
\]
\[
\lim_{\beta \to 0} (\alpha - m)(\alpha + 2m)/9 = SR_i^{NN},
\]
\[
\lim_{\beta \to 0} (\alpha - m)^2/9 = \pi_i^{NN}.
\]

CONCLUSION

Previous hospitality study has focused only on a firm’s corporate philanthropy (CP) decision making without taking its rival’s CP decision into consideration. This study uses a duopolistic competition model to examine whether a rational profit-maximizing hospitality firm should react to its rival’s corporate giving decision. The results derived from the model offer several insights into the corporate giving behavior between two competing hospitality firms.

First, performance of hospitality firm without corporate giving is negatively associated with the competitive advantage \((\beta)\) of its rival’s corporate giving, and positively related to the induced cost of its rival’s giving practices \((\kappa)\) when only one of the two competing hospitality firms engages in corporate giving. In other words, the donor’s competitive advantage of corporate giving has a negative impact on its rival’s firm performance, and an increase in induced cost of donor’s giving practices benefits its rival’s firm performance.
Second, if only one of the two competing hospitality firms gives to charity and corporate giving generates market competitiveness, the donor’s giving practices will deteriorate its rival’s performance in terms of market demand, sales revenue and profits. Therefore, the other hospitality firm that does not give to charity should engage in corporate giving to protect its performance.

Third, the hospitality firm would give to charity only if corporate giving could induce a competitive advantage of brand differentiation and customer loyalty to increase market demand for its services. Otherwise, both hospitality firms under duopolistic competition have no incentive to engage in corporate giving. This also highlights the importance of the competitive advantage of corporate giving. Consequently, an appropriate and accurate measure of the competitive advantage of corporate giving can be a key factor in effective corporate giving decision making.

REFERENCES


THE IMPACTS OF HOTELS’ CSR MARKETING ON CONSUMERS’ RESPONSES AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

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INTRODUCTION

Most global hotel chains present to the public their corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities including green practices across media. As one of the most prevalent CSR marketing practices (e.g., employee relations, community relations, protection of the environment, and diversity), green advertising aims to present firms’ environmental messages and practices via media to project a green image to consumers (Taylor, 2015). Marketing researchers have conducted numerous studies to address the effect of green advertising on consumer attitude and behavior focusing on cognitive factors (e.g., consumers’ environmental knowledge) and affective factors (e.g., emotional benefits) (Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibáñez, 2008; Mostafa, 2007).

The advertising literature has tested the roles of ad claim and image types in influencing consumers’ ad receptivity. In particular, cause-related marketing includes two implied meanings (motives) of the messages: firm-interested and public-interested messages. This motive type influences how consumers respond to marketing messages (e.g., Nan & Heo, 2007).

In addition, ad image types were found to influence consumer responses. For example, a soft sell appeal that focuses on emotional attributes and a hard sell appeal that focuses on informational and factual attributes generate different effects on consumer responses (Chu, Gerstner, & Hess, 1995; Snyder & DeBono, 1985). Despite the pivotal roles of ad claim and image type in generating consumers’ responses, these roles have not been examined in CSR advertising. To fill this void, this research investigates how ad claim and image type can differentiate consumer responses toward hotels’ green advertising.

According to attribution theory, individuals infer and interpret others’ motives, which can influence their consequential attitudes and behavioral intentions (Kelley, 1967). When consumers read firms’ marketing messages, they try to find the underlying causes of the firms’ marketing activities (Chang & Liu, 2012). Previous studies have found that individuals show more positive feelings in relation to living if they believe that their charitable or pro-environmental behaviors can contribute to environmental protection (Videras & Owen, 2006). Therefore, consumers who perceive an ad as implying a public-interested motive are likely to have stronger affective attitudes than when they perceive a firm-interested motive. On the other hand, ad recipients may perceive a firm-interested claim as realistic and informative that can lead to positive cognitive responses because the claim implies consumers’ expected benefits (e.g., monetary benefits) when they visit the hotel. Therefore, it is hypothesized:

H1a: An ad with a public-interested claim will lead to more positive affective attitude than an ad with a firm-interested claim.

H1b: An ad with a firm-interested claim will lead to more positive cognitive attitude than an ad with a public-interested claim.

Evidence shows that an emotional ad image can elicit more positive affective responses than a rational ad image. For instance, Mattila (1999) demonstrated that an emotional ad cue can generate a more positive feeling toward the hotel brand than a rational ad cue presenting price information. On the other hand, a hard-sell ad image implies factual
information, such as price, certifications, and verifiable documents for service (Lwin, Phau, Huang, & Lim, 2014). This image tends to be viewed as informative, leading to cognitive ad responses.

In addition, individuals are likely to have more positive behavioral intentions such as word-of-mouth (WOM) intention and visit intention when the ads imply a public-interested message rather than a firm-interested motive. Because they perceive public-interested messages as altruistic promoting consumers’ social benefits, while they perceive firm-interested messages as egoistic promoting their own profits, they are more likely to visit socially-responsible hotels (e.g., Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013). Thus, the following is hypothesized:

H2a: An ad with a soft-sell ad image will lead to more positive affective attitude than an ad with a hard-sell ad image.
H2b: An ad with a hard-sell ad image will lead to more positive cognitive attitude than an ad with a soft-sell ad image.
H3: An ad with a public-interested claim will lead to more positive behavioral intentions (i.e., WOM intention and visit intention) than an ad with a firm-interested claim.

METHOD

Based on reviewing actual green ad claims from hotels, researchers generated fictitious ad claims. As for ad image, 20 possible images for soft-sell and hard-sell images were collected from online resources. Then, the eight (four soft-sell and four hard-sell images) most appropriate images were selected by seven graduate students majoring in hospitality and tourism management. A jury evaluated the eight soft- and hard-sell images, and then four images as the most appropriate images for soft- and hard-sell appeal were selected. As a result, four different versions of the experimental ads were created as fictitious green ads. In order to test the hypotheses, the main test was designed as a 2 (ad claim: public-interested vs. firm-interested claim) × 2 (ad image: soft-sell vs. hard-sell image) between-subject factorial design study.

From a market research company, a total of 753 consumer panels were collected; however, 42 respondents were excluded in the main survey due to incomplete answers and univariate outliers, yielding a total of 711 usable responses. Ad attitudes consisted of two attitude dimensions: affective (e.g., “This green ad is appealing”) (Petrosius & Crocker, 1989) and cognitive (e.g., “This green ad is informative”) (Homer, 1995). As for behavioral intentions, WOM intention (e.g., “I am likely to recommend this hotel to a friend or colleague”) (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996) and visit intention (e.g., “I plan to stay at this hotel when traveling”) (Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010) were measured.

FINDINGS

After a manipulation check of the ad stimuli and checking reliabilities of the dependent variables, MANOVA analysis showed significant main effects of ad claim (public-interested vs. firm-interested claim) and ad image (soft-sell vs. hard-sell image). Main effects of ad claim (Wilks’ λ: F(4, 704) = 4.16, p = .002) and ad image (Wilks’ λ: F(4, 704) = 13.85, p = .000) were found, while an interaction effect of ad claim and ad image was not found (Wilks’ λ: F(4, 704) = 1.43, p = .223). Based on significant main effects from MANOVA analysis, ANOVA analyses were conducted to test differences for each dependent variable.

The result shows that ad claim has a significant main effect on consumers’ cognitive ad response (F(1, 707) = 6.46, p = .011). However, the main effects of ad claim on affective ad response (F(1, 707) = 0.09, p = .763) and behavioral intentions were not significant (WOM: F(1, 707) = 0.13, p = .720; visit intention: F(1, 707) = 0.54, p = .464). The result shows that firm-interested claim triggers higher cognitive ad response than public-interested claim (M = 5.16 vs. 4.92), regardless of ad image (soft-sell or hard-sell image) (see Figure 1). Differences in cognitive ad response between public- and firm-interested claims were significant (t(709) = −2.59, p = .01). Therefore, hypothesis 1 was partially supported.

On the other hand, ad image had a significant main effect on consumers’ affective ad response (F(1, 707) = 15.07, p = .000). The main effects of ad image on cognitive ad response (F(1, 707)
= 2.65, p = .104) and behavioral intentions were not found (WOM: F(1, 707) = 0.14, p = .714; visit intention: F(1, 707) = 0.04, p = .844). Soft-sell ad image exerted higher affective ad response than hard-sell image (M = 5.14 vs. 4.77), regardless of ad claim type (public-interested or firm-interested claim) (see Figure 1). Differences in affective ad response between soft- and hard-sell images were significant (t(709) = 3.92, p = .00). Thus, hypothesis 2 was partially supported. In addition, the result indicates that ad claim had no significant main and interaction effects on behavioral intentions, not supporting hypothesis 3.-12.

![Figure 1. Affective (Left) and Cognitive (Right) Ad Responses](image)

## Conclusion

A number of marketing as well as hospitality researchers have applied the attribution theory to explain causes and consequential effects of consumer behaviors. Based on the attribution theory, this study finds that a firm-interested claim can exert more positive cognitive ad response than a public-interested claim can. Moreover, although soft-sell and hard-sell ad types have been used by numerous marketing researchers, they have not been integrated into the hospitality discipline.

The current study finds that soft-sell ad image was more effective in evoking consumers’ affective ad response than hard-sell ad image was. Indeed, the findings on the significant main effects of the two ad types on consumers’ affective and cognitive ad attitudes demonstrate the important roles of the ad claim and the ad image types in generating positive ad responses. As a result, if the hotel marketers want to elicit audiences’ cognitive attitudes, they should develop ad claims containing firm-oriented terms (e.g. strategy, business, and hotel,) rather than including public-oriented terms (e.g., communities, help, caring, and responsible). Meanwhile, the Ritz-Carlton used images emphasizing friendliness and collaboration between people and communities, and the soft-sell images may be effective in eliciting ad audiences’ affective ad attitudes.

However, this study did not examine how affective/cognitive ad attitudes which are derived from ad claim and image types can differentiate recipients’ behavioral intentions. In this regards, future studies can examine the hierarchical relationships among ad elements, consumers’ ad attitudes, and behavioral intentions.

## References


IMPROVING SUSTAINABLE INNOVATION IN TOURISM INDUSTRY: THE PERSPECTIVE OF INNOVATION DIFFUSION

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INTRODUCTION

In comparison of the typical household, tourism industry consume a significant amount of natural resources (Deng, 2003; Hsieh, 2012; Jones, Hillier, & Comfort, 2014). According to the American Hotel and Lodging Association shows that on average 209 gallons of water are consumed per day per room in U.S. hotels (Brodsky, 2005). Thus, sustainable become a critical issue in the tourism industry (Gracia-de-Renteria, & Salvador, 2013; Kasim, Gursoy, Okumus, & Wong, 2014).

Diffusion of innovations theory (DIT) proposed by Rogers’ (2003) is a leading model for understanding the adoption of sustainability innovations. DIT defines an innovation as an “idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption” (Rogers, 2003, p. 7) and is highly predictive of the adoption of new innovations by individuals and organizations. Because sustainability is spreading throughout numerous industries (Easty &Winston, 2009), DIT offers a highly appropriate approach for examining the adoption of sustainable innovation in tourism industry.

However, empirically little is known about how different innovation diffusion facilitate the implementation of sustainable innovation and about how these factors favor sustainability performance. This is especially relevant in the tourism industry, were few papers have explored the role of innovation diffusion between the organization resource and sustainable performance. In addition, tourism industry is extremely intense in terms of energy and water consumption, utilization of paper, plastics and chemicals, and biodiversity affectation (Erdogan & Baris, 2007; Trung & Kumar, 2005). Therefore, organization must be find an effective way to improve their environmental performance (Alvarez, de Burgos, & Cespedes, 2001).

To echo the gap in the literature, the study firstly demonstrated the mediation of organizational resource between organization environment and corporate social responsibility (CSR). Further, we investigated the different innovation diffusion factors between the organization resource and CSR. In this way, we could compared which innovation diffusion factors would benefit to sustainable innovation within the tourism industry.

There are some contributions in our research. Firstly, we combined sustainability and innovation diffusion theory in our framework. Secondly, we demonstrated mediation role of organization resource and different innovation diffusion effect in our model.

Proposed research hypothesis and framework

H1: Organizational resources mediated between organizational environment and corporate social responsibility.

H2: Relative advantage will moderate the positive relationship between organizational resources
and corporate social responsibility, such that the relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility will be stronger when the relative advantage is high.

H3: Compatibility will moderate the positive relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility, such that the relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility will be stronger when the compatibility is high.

H4: Simplicity will moderate the positive relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility, such that the relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility will be stronger when the simplicity is high.

H5: Trialability will moderate the positive relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility, such that the relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility will be stronger when the trialability is high.

H6: Observation will moderate the positive relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility, such that the relationship between organizational resources and corporate social responsibility will be stronger when the Observation is high.

**Figure 1. Conceptual framework**

**METHOD**

This study gathered data from full time employee in tourism industry included five-star hotels and tour operators in Taiwan from September 2015 to December 2015. First, e-mails that explained the research were sent out to several HR managers in international hotels and travel agencies then phone calls were made to those who e-mailed to express their interest by in participating in the research. Of the 656 surveys that were distributed through CEOs or managers, 643 usable surveys were collected. The response rates were 98%.

**RESULTS**
From the figure 2, we can find that from hypothesis 1 is support. Furthermore, we performed Sobel test to confirm our mediation effect and found the indirect effect from organizational environmental to CSR via organizational resource (indirect effect = .17, p<.05).

To examine the moderation hypotheses (H2 to H6), we adopted regression analyses and bootstrapping (Edwards and Lambert, 2007). All interaction variables were mean centered to minimize multicollinearity (Aiken and West, 1991). H2 predicted that a relative advantage moderates the relationship between organizational resource and CSR. The interaction between organizational resource and CSR was not significantly related to relative advantage (β=.00, p > .05, [-.02 ,.04]). H3 predicted that the compatibility moderates the relationship between organizational resource and CSR. The interaction between organizational resource and compatibility was positively related to CSR (β=.08, p < .05) [-.13 ,-.03], thus supporting H3. H4 predicted that the simplicity moderates the relationship between organizational resource and CSR. The interaction between organizational resource and simplicity was positively related to CSR (β=.06, p < .05) [-.11 ,-.01], thus supporting H4. H5 predicted that the trialability moderates the relationship between organizational resource and CSR. The interaction between organizational resource and trialability was positively related to CSR (β=.05, p < .05) [-.10 ,-.01], thus supporting H5. H6 predicted that the observation moderates the relationship between organizational resource and CSR. The interaction between organizational resource and observation was not positively related to CSR (β= -.03, p > .05) [-.08 ,.00], thus not supporting H6.

CONCLUSIONS

This study examined the mediation role of environmental resource between organizational environment and CSR. As the results, organizational environment have an indirect on CSR via environmental resource. The finding implicated that when organization emphasize the concept of sustainable innovation and promote the incentive system related to sustainability then more resource would be invest. Finally, the CSR performance would be improved. Additionally, the current research further inves-
tigated the moderation role of innovation diffusion. The results showed that relative advantage, compatibility, simplicity, trialability could foster the relation between organizational resource and CSR but not observation. It’s indicated that innovation diffusion would benefit to organization while performing the sustainable innovation practice.

REFERENCES

CULTURAL REPRESENTATION THEORY IN CONSTRUCTING REPRESENTATIONS FOR U.S.A. IN CHINESE AND U.S. GUIDEBOOKS

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism as an experiential industry is different from other traditional industries in that its products are the intangible experiences that tourists may have for a tourism destination. Tourists cannot see the concrete products when they plan to purchase. Consequently, representation has become a critical vehicle to make tourism products familiar and known to tourism customers. In the representation process, the tourism destination and a unique travel experience are portrayed in rhetorical form. Scholars, nevertheless, have identified that such tourism representation process constructs a specific way of talking rather than reflecting on objective knowledge (Cohen, 1993; Echtner and Prasad, 2003). They argue that representation of tourism destinations is not value-free but subjected to certain socio-cultural systems (Buzinde, Santos and Smith, 2006; Wang and Morais, 2012). Therefore, it is critical to discover the concealed mechanisms underpinning representations framed by tourism marketing.

Representations, as a multi-faceted concept, have held a central position in tourism studies (e.g. Breitbart, 1997; Dann, 1996; Geertz, 1975; Hall, 1997; Hollinshead, 2000; Sternberg, 1997; Urry, 1990). However, the power of representations has not been fully recognized, because representations as an empirical object are embedded in multiple and complex social contexts, which require more investigation of the mechanism comprising the material components of tourism representation discourse (Hunter, 2008). In particular, the textual representations in tourist guidebooks turn to be a more complicated issue to deal with for researchers because guidebook texts as the malleable constructs are manipulated by various producers and promoters from different social and cultural backgrounds for a number of different types of customers with various socio-cultural characteristics. The complexity of textual representations in guidebooks has been a standing challenge for tourism studies. Thus it is necessary to take critical view of the mechanisms underpinning the textual representations of tourism destinations in guidebooks.

This study aims to expose the multifaceted and complex nature of tourism representation discourse. Building on cultural representation theory, which argues different socio-cultural group members use different cultural codes or linguistic descriptions as vehicles to communicate their meanings (Hall, 1997; Geertz, 1975), this study focuses on examining the textual representations for the U.S. tourism destinations in both Chinese and U.S. guidebooks. By examining the textual contents introducing the U.S. tourism destinations in the guidebooks written by Chinese travel writers and the guidebook written by the U.S. travel writers for Lonely Planet in Chinese version, the study aims to identify the dissonance of textual representations about the U.S. destinations to the potential Chinese tourists between Chinese and U.S. guidebooks and locate the underpinning culture codes employed by both sides in the representation process. Furthermore, going beyond the previous representations research predominantly gazing at how the West represents for the East, this study provides a view on how the East represents the West, as well as how the West represents itself. Moreover, with the rapid development of globalization and the burgeoning Chinese outbound tourism market, the findings in the present study may facilitate the development of more sophisticated tourism promotion strategies.
METHODOLOGY

The present study aims to examine how the Chinese and U.S. guidebooks on U.S.A. published in China represent the tourism destinations in the U.S.A. to Chinese tourists. Tourist guidebooks have been recognized by researchers as one of the most widely used media for traveling (Suzuki and Wakabayashi, 2005). Since tourist guidebooks aim to provide the accurate and reliable information about tourism destinations so as to improve their readership, they have been an important travel information source for tourists to know tourism destinations and understand the meaning of their travel (Fakaye and Crompton, 1991; Koshar, 1998). As Scott (1998) asserted that tourist guidebooks have been tourists’ “bibles” and “scripts” (Scott, 1998, p. 89). Furthermore, scholars have argued that guidebooks “… provide a framework for experiencing a place” (Lew, 1991; p. 126); they take on the role of a tour guide by assessing places and attractions for their quality, significance, and price (Bhattacharyyya, 1997); and by forming the images of places for the readers without their actually visiting a destination, they “… provide lenses for viewing the world” (McGregor, 2000, p. 47). Therefore, guidebooks on the U.S. destinations published in China provide an access to discover how travel writing used as a type of discourse legitimate the tourists’ projected travel experiences and construct the social reality based on the recognized socio-cultural codes.

To examine tourism representations in travel writing and explore the construction of social reality through linguistic description, content analysis, which is a technique examining written content (Newman, 2000), was utilized. The method is considered to be one of the most popular approaches in travel literature research and studies of textual representations (Lew, 1991; Quinlan, 2005). It was utilized to analyze the guidebooks data by examining the explicit themes (manifest content) and identifying the meaning in textual content (latent content) (Babbie, 2001). The analysis was started with reading the guidebooks in their entirety to identify the major themes of texts by locating the major classification schemes. The guidebook data were evaluated using a coding scheme based on characteristics of destinations mentioned in the guidebooks.

To identify any characteristics, the guidebook data were broken into units of information about each destination. Each sentence featuring unique traits of destinations was highlighted. After the major themes of texts were identified by locating the characteristics of destinations, the identified themes were compared between Chinese and U.S. guidebooks to locate all consistencies and discrepancies between these two data sources. Last, the meanings underpinning the revealed consistencies and discrepancies were interpreted and the cultural codes employed to encode such meanings were detected.

In this study, a purposive sampling (Noth, 1990) approach was adopted to collect a sample of texts representing the U.S. destinations from five newest guidebooks on U.S.A. published by Chinese publishers and the guidebook written by the U.S. travel writers for Lonely Planet in Chinese version. This non-random and non-probability sampling approach enables researchers to follow a theoretical framework in their data collection process and locate the data that are context specific and comprehensive (Balch, 1982; Gobo, 2008). As mentioned at the beginning of this section, both Chinese and U.S. guidebooks are primary tourism information sources for tourists. These information sources do not only provide reliable information about tourism destinations but also represent the official version of interpretation about the meanings of travel experiences. Therefore, such representations are constructed within specific socio-cultural contexts and those sources become the perfect study materials to identify the diverse socio-cultural contexts.

FINDINGS

After finishing collecting data from both Chinese and U.S. guidebooks, an inductive approach to content analysis was implemented to search for exhaustive, mutually exclusive and general categories of destinations representations in textual form without a prior hypothesis (Krippendorff, 2003). The analysis focuses on sorting and identifying the primary textual components based on the context of tourism so as to form the exhaustive, mutually exclusive and general categories. During this analysis process, a consensus approach was applied by analyzing the texts separately among several analysts and then the results were compared for consistency.
The content analysis of the guidebooks shows some commonalities shared by both Chinese and U.S. guidebooks in their representations of U.S. destinations. For instance, both sides select the same popular destinations in east and west coasts as their primary targets in representing the U.S. destinations. Moreover, the information about each destination shown in both sides falls into the same two categories which are annotated as tourist attractions and tourist products. Last, both sides serve as the information filters to manipulate tourists and their decisions on what destination sites to visit by including and omitting information. For example, the Chinese guidebooks avoid introducing some sensitive sites for Chinese, and while the destinations representing colonial period cannot be found in the U.S. side.

Besides locating the commonalities, the content analysis also reveals some differences in representing U.S. destinations between Chinese and U.S. guidebooks. First, the U.S. guidebook covers more destinations in the peripheral and rural areas besides those in the metropolitan areas, and while the Chinese guidebooks primarily focus on those in urban settings. Second, the U.S. guidebook builds its representations of destinations on the American cultural background, such as quoting American literati’s’ depictions of destinations and using American movies or TV shows to offer tourists a level of pre-familiarity with the destinations. On the contrary, Chinese side represents the destinations by employing the cultural icons with which Chinese readers are familiar. Last, both sides construct dissonant images based on their personal understanding of destinations. Such results indicate that both sides instinctively employ the signs with which they are culturally familiar in their process of constructing representation. However, due to the differences in the understanding about the meanings represented by the destinations between Chinese and U.S. travel writers, they employed different texts to demonstrate their personal versions of interpretation. And such findings demonstrate the significant role of socio-cultural contexts in constructing the representations of tourism destinations.

CONCLUSION

The present study aims to expose the complex nature of tourism representation discourse. Building on cultural representation theory, which argues different socio-cultural group members use different cultural codes as vehicles to communicate their meanings (Hall, 1997; Geertz, 1975), this study focuses on examining the textual representations for U.S tourism destinations in Chinese and U.S. guidebooks. The content analysis results indicate that both sides employ different cultural codes to represent the same sights and such finding demonstrates the significant role of socio-cultural contexts in constructing the representations of tourism destinations. Particularly, going beyond the previous representations research predominantly gazing at how the West represents for the East, this study provides a view on how the East represents the West, as well as how the West represents itself. Furthermore, with the rapid development of globalization and the burgeoning Chinese outbound tourism market, this study may facilitate the development of a more effective way to construct the images of tourism destinations for diverse cultural cohorts of people.

REFERENCES


VISITORS’ MOTIVES TO KANAS: DETERMINANTS AND IMPLICATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

This research project examines the satisfaction of visitors to the Kanas scenic area. The project has importance because the region is not only one being developed as part of the pro-poor tourism policies of the Chinese government, but it is close to the Silk Road development favoured by the Xi government while it is also one of the sites being monitored by the UNWTO Monitoring Observatory for Sustainable Tourism located at Sun Yat Sen University. One of the concerns is to sustain the culture of local Tuva and Kazakh minority peoples who have largely adhered to a pastoral life style. The numbers of tourists are climbing steadily, being over 560,000 in the 12 months prior to September 2015, an increase of 84% on the previous 12 months period (Xinhuanet, 2016).

METHOD

The questionnaire comprised the following sections. The first section asked questions about actual and planned length of stay in Kanas, and whether respondents had a history of previous trips to the region. The second section provided a list of reasons as to why people came to Kanas, and asked how important were these reasons for the respondents. A seven point scale was used where ‘7’ represented the highest score with a ‘0’ as a not pertinent item. These were used as proxies for the importance of the items as motives for visiting Kanas, and were based upon a literature that recorded landscapes, interest in culture, social interaction, a desire to see and acquire knowledge and indeed shopping as motives for travel. The third section of the questionnaire sought details about how the visitors evaluated their visit. Again a seven point scale was used with a non-response option being provided, and the items reflected those used in the motivation scale. A specific item was used to record the general level of satisfaction with the visit. The next section of the questionnaire dealt specifically with aspects of local culture associated with the Tuva and Kazakh communities of Kanas; in particular the former as it is their culture that is heavily promoted by the Xinjiang tourism promoters. The final section of the questionnaire sought basic socio-demographic data.

FINDINGS

The sample comprised 650 respondents, of 539 belonged to the Han people of China, and of the remainder all but three were drawn from China’s other minority groups other than 67 respondents who selected not to answer the question about ethnicity. Observation however indicated that of this the great majority were of Han ethnicity. This is thought to be consistent with the pattern of visitation to Kanas Scenic Area. Of the sample just over 50% had university qualifications and a further 24% had professional qualifications, figures consistent with many other surveys undertaken of Chinese tourists (Gu & Ryan 2008). Of the total a quarter came from other parts of Xinjiang Province, and 5% came from each of Beijing, Shanghai and Shandong Province, but most other parts of China were represented.

With reference to income respondents were asked to self-report on their total household income using a five-point scale from ‘significantly below average’ to ‘significantly above average’ – this ap-
proach being used in the belief that household income is a more important determinant than individual income as a facilitator of holiday making, and that relative income is more important than absolute data when people consider their incomes, especially in a developing economy such as China, and finally this classification is more likely to achieve a high response rate. Of the 650 respondents 620 answered the question. Of these 377 assessed themselves as having average household income, and 179 had above or significantly above average income. Of the total sample, 20% had made previous visits to Kanas.

Table One provides the descriptive statistics for the measures of motivation for visiting Kanas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for Visiting Kanas</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Skew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To see the natural scenery</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>1.460</td>
<td>-0.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is one of the &quot;must see&quot; places in China</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>1.618</td>
<td>-0.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn about different cultures</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>1.547</td>
<td>-0.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For fun/leisure</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>1.618</td>
<td>-0.542</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is simply a nice place to relax.</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>1.628</td>
<td>-0.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have a 'special' experience</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.762</td>
<td>-0.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I came here mainly for photography</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>1.655</td>
<td>-0.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am interested in the minority culture.</td>
<td>641</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>1.602</td>
<td>-0.593</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am interested in the minority culture.</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>1.685</td>
<td>-0.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To share things with friends and family</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.713</td>
<td>-0.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This place was recommended to me by friends.</td>
<td>633</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.718</td>
<td>-0.461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To try &quot;local food&quot;</td>
<td>639</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.642</td>
<td>-0.387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To go horse riding with local guides</td>
<td>633</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.753</td>
<td>-0.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be hosted by local people in their homes</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.742</td>
<td>-0.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To see the festivals and events</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.648</td>
<td>-0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To observe the costumes of local people.</td>
<td>632</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.689</td>
<td>-0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the standard of hotels</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.681</td>
<td>-0.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For shopping</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.724</td>
<td>0.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>576</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From a statistical viewpoint it can be noted that 576 respondents answered all of the items. Close examination showed that the pattern of non-response was small, and random in distribution, thereby permitting further analysis to be undertaken.

It can be noted that the most significant reasons for visiting Kanas related to its landscape and an interest in the local minority culture, both aspects readily promoted by tour operators and consistent with the image building of the region. Table Two provides a similar analysis of the evaluations of the Kanas region.

Again, from a statistical perspective it can be noted that the patterns of non-response are significantly higher when assessing the data, with only 358 answering all the questions. A number of factors help to explain this. For example 160 respondents were not travelling to Kanas to see family and friends. On the other hand for the most part more than 90% of the sample responded to the individual items. Nonetheless in any final paper this aspect of non-response will be taken into consideration in undertaking additional analysis.

The data clearly indicate through that the main motives for visiting Kanas are satisfied, as indicated by looking at the main sources of satisfaction shown in Table Two, despite the low score attributed to hotels.
Table 2. Evaluations of Kanas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Skew</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seeing the natural scenery</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>1.328</td>
<td>-1.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The opportunities for photography</td>
<td>612</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>1.525</td>
<td>-0.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being able to relax</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>1.438</td>
<td>-0.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanas as a &quot;must see&quot; places in China</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>1.531</td>
<td>-0.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This place lived up to the recommendation of my friends.</td>
<td>573</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.449</td>
<td>-0.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having fun/leisure</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.520</td>
<td>-0.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being with friends and family</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.525</td>
<td>-0.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning about different cultures</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.439</td>
<td>-0.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This place lived up to the recommendation of the travel agency</td>
<td>575</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.547</td>
<td>-0.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My interest in the minority culture was met.</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>1.401</td>
<td>-0.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having 'special' experiences</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>1.600</td>
<td>-0.478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The standard of hotels</td>
<td>593</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.537</td>
<td>-0.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>358</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the stepwise regression function in SPSS 22.0 after checking the data (the Durbin-Watson statistic equal 1.996, implying no issues of auto-correlation, which were confirmed by the normal distribution of residuals) it was found that satisfaction could be gauged by the formula

\[
\text{Satisfaction} = 0.81 \times \text{Relax} + 0.17 \times \text{Local food} + 0.16 \times \text{Scenery} + 0.13 \times \text{Kanas as must see} + 0.94 \times \text{Interest in culture}
\]

yielding a coefficient of determination of 0.44, that is 44% of the variance in satisfaction could be explained by these features.

CONCLUSION

It is hoped that a subsequent paper to be published will contain additional results that will aid the development of policies consistent with the pro-poor policies and the objectives of sustainability under the UNWTO Monitoring programme. That final paper will include a more sophisticated assessment of the role of minority cultures as an attraction, and an assessment of the findings for the development of future policies in the Kanas Scenic Area.
A STUDY OF STRUCTURAL CHANGES IN THE COLLABORATION OF STAKEHOLDERS IN THE PROCESS OF DEVELOPING COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM, AND THEIR CAUSES

Masahiro Kanno
Tatsuo Terasaki

Japan Travel Bureau Foundation

INTRODUCTION

In order for the measures used to promote tourism in a given destination to endure, they will need to be undertaken with the cooperation of a wider range of stakeholders. To that end, empirical research must be undertaken to reveal the causal factors in the cooperation process and the structural changes that result (Jamal and Getz, 1995).

In our study, we examined the structural changes in stakeholders' systems of collaboration in the development process of community-based tourism, revealing the causal factors at play in the transformation of stakeholders' awareness and willingness.

Various frameworks have been put forward in previous studies regarding the process and conditions of collaboration. First, in regards to the collaborative process, Aronstein (1969) has broken down the extent of citizen participation into eight steps, (1) Manipulation, (2) Therapy, (3) Informing, (4) Consultation, (5) Placation, (6) Partnership, (7) Delegated power, and (8) Citizen control, arranged as "A ladder of citizen participation".

Additionally, McCann (1983) listed three steps of solving a social problem, (1) Problem-setting, (2) Direction-setting, and (3) Structuring, a model which Selin and Chavez (1995) extended to encompass five steps, (1) Antecedents, (2) Problem-setting, (3) Direction-setting, (4) Structuring, and (5) Outcomes, positioning these as an "Evolutionary Model of Tourism Partnerships".

Okazaki (2008), appropriating the above models of Aronstein (1969) and Selin and Chavez (1995), conducted a case study examining cooperation in the Palawan province of the Philippines.

Mitchell et al. (2001) lay out a "Tourism Integration Framework" modeling the process of community integration occurring in tourism planning. According to their framework, the process can be separated into three stages, integration, planning, and impacts, and the integration stage is further expressed by three parameters, (1) community awareness, (2) community unity, and (3) power or control relationships.

Next, in regards to conditions, Gray (1989) listed (1) the stakeholders are independent, (2) solutions emerge by dealing constructively with differences, (3) joint ownership of decisions is involved, (4) the stakeholders assume collective responsibility for the ongoing direction of the domain, and (5) collaboration is an emergent process, as the five characteristic conditions of the cooperative process.

Jamal and Getz (1995) propose (1) recognition of a high degree of interdependence in planning and managing the domain, (2) recognition of individual and/or mutual benefits to be derived from the process, (3) a perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented, (4) encompassing key stakeholder groups, (5) a convener who initiates and facilitates community based tourism collaboration, and (6) vision, goals, objectives and self-regulation, as the six crucial issues in the cooperative process.

Aas et al. (2005) list (1) establishing channels of communication, (2) generating income for conservation, (3) involving the local community in decision-making, (4) involving the local community in tourism activities, and (5) the extent of stakeholder collaboration, as the five issues for creating cooperation.

Araujo and Bramwell (1999) have argued for the crucial role the participation of the commercial sector plays as a condition for creating more pragmatic and longer-lasting cooperation.

As indicated above, many studies have discussed the process and conditions of collaboration
in the development of community-based tourism. However, there are few studies that compare the structural changes of multiple areas in parallel.

**METHOD**

Our study looked at six areas on the Pacific coast in Japan's Tōhoku region: Hirono-town, Kuji-city, Yamada-town, Kesenuma-city (Karakuwa peninsula area), Shiogama-city (Uratо islands area), and Soma-city (Matsukawaura area).

Even before the earthquake, the Tōhoku region had been promoting nature experience tourism centered on the characteristic coastal landscape and the region's primary industries, agriculture, forestry, and fishing, but the Great East Japan earthquake that occurred on March 11, 2011 and the tsunami that followed caused catastrophic losses to life and property in the region.

Japan's Ministry of the Environment assessed the six areas listed above as models and took action to promote ecotourism with the goals of protecting their natural environment, revitalizing the regions by attracting tourists, strengthening areas that came through the experience of the earthquake to better withstand disasters, and helping to restore and support the agriculture, forestry, and fishing industries that had been so important to the region.

Specifically, lectures given by visiting lecturers, surveys made of the areas' resources, training meetings held for guide technique, visit to advanced areas in terms of community-based tourism or ecotourism to learn experiences and lessons, and trial tours were supported in an effort to create a framework whereby regions would eventually gain enough independence to plan and carry out their own ecotourism activities.

The kinds of actions carried out in each area in the 37 months from January, 2013, when our project began, though January, 2016, were as summarized in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Hirono</th>
<th>Kuji</th>
<th>Yamada</th>
<th>Kesenuma: Karakuwa peninsula</th>
<th>Shiogama: Urato islands</th>
<th>Soma: Matsukawaura</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Meeting</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecture</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site visit</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trial Tour</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Number of times

Our research method was the ethnographic method. Specifically the staff, including the writers, from the Japan Travel Bureau Foundation, on commission from the Ministry of the Environment, observed changes in the status of measures taken in the six areas which came about through the role played by this undertaking, and the efforts by external supporters to work towards ecotourism in these areas, evaluating (1) structural changes in the cooperation of stakeholders, and (2) transformation in the awareness and willingness of planners.

**Structural Changes in the Cooperation of Stakeholders**

We evaluated the status of involvement in each phase of the initiatives taken with regard to the various stakeholders who participate in the gradual accumulation of councils in the region dedicated to the promotion of ecotourism.

We divided the phases of initiatives into four periods, conveniently tied to the Japanese fiscal year. In other words, the first 3 months of the initial work (January through March, 2013) constituted phase I, the 12-month period from the 4th through 15th months (April 2013 through March 2014) constituted phase II, the 12-month period from the 16th through 27th months (April 2014 through March 2015) constituted phase III, and the 10-month period from the 28th through the 37th months (April 2015 through January 2016) constituted phase IV.

We used the model put forward by Arnstein (1969) in determining the level of stakeholder participation, dividing it into five levels: Actively participating, Participating, Passively participating, Not participating, No stakeholders (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Stakeholder Participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actively participating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passively participating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not participating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No stakeholders</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Classification | Situation
--- | ---
Actively participating | Actively participating, gathering internal stakeholders, encouraging external stakeholders
Participating | Voluntarily participating, carrying out positive proposals and activities
Passively participating | Participating in response to stakeholder encouragement, carrying out proposals and actions as directed
Not participating | Not responding to stakeholder encouragement, not taking part in stakeholder meetings, etc.
No stakeholders | No corresponding organizations or persons

**Causes of Transformation in the Awareness and Desires of Planners**

If phenomena like the following were observed, we would mark it as a transformation in the awareness and willingness of stakeholders towards cooperation, and identify its cause.

- Increased number of participants: part cipation of those who had not yet participated in meetings, etc., expansion of range or circle of cooperation
- Increased amount of voluntary action: active participation in meetings, etc., increase in positive views
- Increased frequency of meetings, etc.

**FINDINGS**

**Structural Changes in the Cooperation of Stakeholders**

Structural changes in stakeholder cooperation were observed in each phase. These changes were not limited to increases in participation with each successive phase, as decreases were observed as well (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area/Phase</th>
<th>Hiroko</th>
<th>Kujii</th>
<th>Yamada</th>
<th>Kesennuma: Karakuwa peninsula</th>
<th>Shiogama: Urato islands</th>
<th>Soma: Matsukawa udara</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Government (Administrator)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Government (Officer)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reconstruction Assistant</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Association (Administrator)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Association (Officer)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Industry (Lodge)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Industry (Restaurant)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Guide</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO, NPO, Special interest group</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer, Fisherman</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resident Leader</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resident</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: 4: Actively participating, 3: Participating, 2: Passively participating, 1: Not participating, -: No stakeholders

**Causes of Transformation in the Awareness and Desires of Planners**

The size of the effect and the phase in which it occurred were different for each region, but the efforts to conduct seminars with visiting lecturers, the observation of progress together with other participants, and the carrying out of trial tours can all be cited as causes of transformation in the awareness and willingness of stakeholders (Table 4).

Table 4. Causes of Transformation in the Awareness and Willingness of Stakeholders
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hirono</td>
<td>Visits to advanced areas fostered a specific image of stakeholders’ efforts</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The image of the guide that was the goal of the guided lectures was clarified</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participants gave direct feedback to plans for local tours</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kuji</td>
<td>Participants gave direct feedback for trial tours that were carried out</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visits to advanced areas fostered a specific image of stakeholders’ efforts</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yamada</td>
<td>The participation of an administration leader encouraged a trend towards participation in these initiatives</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One of the cooperating members revealed his intention of commercializing the effort, and a trend towards supporting that intention increased</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Two reconstruction support staff members took on coordination work in promoting these efforts after participating in the cooperative system</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The participation of an administration leader encouraged a trend towards participation in these initiatives</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kesennuma: Karakuwa peninsula</td>
<td>With the start of preparations for carrying out trial tours, participants in the cooperative effort begin to narrow the focus of their support</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visits to advanced areas fostered a specific image of stakeholders’ efforts</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shiogama: Urato islands</td>
<td>Resource surveys and the production of guidebooks about their output increase awareness of local tourist resources</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Visits to advanced areas fostered a specific image of stakeholders’ efforts</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The seminars conducted by visiting lecturers fostered a specific image of stakeholders’ efforts</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Specific ecotours began to be sold as products</td>
<td>IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soma: Matsukawaura</td>
<td>Visits to advanced areas fostered a specific image of stakeholders’ efforts</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The participation of an administration leader encouraged a trend towards participation in these initiatives</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPLICATIONS**

We found that in a system of cooperation, the administration plays a large role in gaining the trust of the region, and the improvement in the level of understanding of the administration's work and the extent to which the managerial level (leader, etc.) participates can cause significant changes in the transformation of the awareness and willingness of stakeholders. Additionally, the initiatives we listed, which were the causes of transformation in stakeholders' awareness and willingness, directed perceptions and the direction of specific initiatives, which agrees with Jamal and Getz (1995) when they indicate “a perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented”, and “a convener who initiates and facilitates community-based tourism collaboration”, as crucial issues in the cooperative process.

In particular, although the local administration can be “a driving force that leads cooperation” or “a supporter that aids cooperation”, stakeholders should be careful that they can also become “bystanders to cooperation” and, on those occasions where understanding of the goals and details of the work being done is insufficient, even “alienated from cooperation.”

Additionally, there was no single optimal solution for the structure of the councils that constitute the systems of promotion that could be applied to all of the regions, so because of the changes in the development of these initiatives, it was important that the initiatives be designed in response to the circumstances in a particular region in order to achieve the goal, that is, regional development through autonomous and self-motivated promotion of cooperation.

**REFERENCES**


COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM (CBT) IN BAGOLATAO, MINALABAC, CAMARINES SUR, PHILIPPINES: A CASE STUDY ON COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Mariel R. Estrella  
Marilissa J. Ampuan  
Mariners’ Polytechnic Colleges  
Arthur B. Estrella  
Central Bicol State University

INTRODUCTION

The sustainability of the tourism industry is heavily dependent on the participation of the locals. Local communities are integral to the local tourism agenda. This makes the nature of each destination complex (Muganda, 2013; Aref, et.al. 2010; Bushell and McCool, 2007; Jamal and Stronza, 2009; Tosun, 2006). The Mountain Institute (2000) describes broadly Community-based tourism as “a variety of activities that encourage and support a wide range of objectives in economic, social and development and conservation”. Scheyvens in 2002; and Brohman in 1996 emphasized that CBT is sustainable than conventional tourism. This is because CBT is small scale and the community has full participation.

The local context of CBT is emphasized in its descriptive elements: 1.) support and participation of the local people; 2.) economic benefit that accrues to the local people; 3.) protection of local people’s cultural identity and natural environment; 4.) local control of development and consensus-based decision-making (Pearce, 1992; Laws, 1995; Stabler, 1997, Phayakvichien, 2005; Blackstock, 2005). Essentially, CBT is dependent on the involvement of the locals, through their roles as employees or local entrepreneurs, and on the goodwill of residents with tourists (Laws, 1995; Dann, 1996; Taylor and Davis, 1997; Cole, 1997).

However, while CBT highlights the full participation of the locals to achieve community development, Pio (2011) and Sangkyun, Eerang, and Phandanouvong. (2014) identified the main constraints to the participation of locals. The locals need to unearth all barriers and explore possible solutions if they really want to develop the CBT.

Bagolatao is one of many communities in the Province of Camarines Sur that is endowed with nature’s amazing spectacles and bounty. Problems however exist. It is in this light that this CBT research was conducted. The researchers primarily described the community participation in CBT in Bagolatao, one of the more unique tourism destinations in Camarines Sur, Philippines. Specifically, it aimed 1.) to identify the reasons why tourist go to Bagolatao, and 2.) to identify the constraints and possible success factors in the local implementation of CBT.

METHOD

The study used descriptive research design to describe the community-based tourism in Bagolatao, Minalabac, Camarines Sur. It described the reasons of visits, constraints in CBT, and success factors in the implementation of CBT. The respondents of the study was composed of local residents, barangay and municipal officials, and key people in the DOT and DENR of Minalabac. Two Focus Group Discussions were conducted to gather primary data. One in the municipal and the other in the barangay level. Related materials such as books, manuals, and internet sources were also used as secondary data.

FINDINGS

Tourism Context

Tourism destinations include the beach, cave,
museum, apad-apad, fish sanctuary, and the coral reefs. In terms of products, coconuts (copra, buko juice), fish (fresh fish, dried fish) abound in the area. Tourism activities are fiesta (street parade, beauty contests, boat racing), religious activities such as fluvial procession and other holy week activities.

**Reasons of tourists’ visit**

On the reasons for the visit of tourists, results show the primary reason is for relaxation and pleasure. Tourists want to escape from the busy life in the city. Second was they want to see the various tourism destinations in Bagolatao. The third reason was they want to experience the simple life in the community.

**Constraints to Local Participation in CBT**

FGD sessions conducted in the municipal and barangay level reveal five constraints in the implementation of CBT. The first is the presence of the increasing number of informal settlers or squatters on the shoreline which affects the development of the tourism site. This is both a threat to the integrity of the environment and the safety and security of tourists. The second problem is poor participation of the locals in tourism activities. The third problem is the lack of waste disposal system. The poor support from the local government unit is the fourth problem. The fifth problem is related to the ownership of some tourism attractions.

These problems seem to constraint people participation in CBT. FGD sessions indicate that the level of participation of the locals is on the third level which is the Participation by Consulting. It is characterized by people participation that involves consultation with local people and taking into account people’s views. This level indicates a stage in CBT where local participation simply entails participation in consultative processes but not in directly addressing critical concerns in tourism development (Pretty in 1995 as cited by Aref, F. (2011) and Rocharungsat, P. (2005).

**Possible Success Factors**

The creation of an environment for local participation in CBT should entail an enabling conditions which the stakeholders have identified: (1) Strong support from the local, municipal, and provinicial government to develop the community-based tourism in Bagolatao, (2) Formulation and implementation of CBT Plan, and (3) Creation of public-private partnership. These conditions are not well developed in Bagolatao.

**Implications**

CBT in Bagolatao exists but it is not totally developed. Despite the unique and beautiful tourism resources, the locals do not have a clear idea of CBT and its positive impact to their community. At present, a few assume roles when tourists arrive. The few locals act as tour guide, some transport the guests, and others accommodate them in the resort. More than these worker roles, the study of Muganda, et.al. (2013) asserts that locals should be part in the decision-making process.

In general, the community-based tourism in Bagolatao is in its infancy stage – it still has to go through the process of development. This scenario needs a functional and enabling environment in initiating and mobilizing local participation. This has to start with the willingness of the locals to get involved in the development process until such time when they are empowered in implementing the community-based tourism.

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LOCAL RESIDENTS’ PERCEPTIONS ON ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM IN MT. PINATUBO

Tengfei (Chris) Xu
Chris Ryan
The University of Waikato Management School

INTRODUCTION

Ecotourism sometimes called as sustainable tourism and responsible tourism was reported to have been growing to 20%-34% per year since 1990s according to the International Ecotourism Society. In 2004, they have also indicated that ecotourism was growing three times faster than the tourism industry as a whole. Therefore, ecotourism has been proven to be a significant business investment.

The Philippines is believed to be a country rich of varied natural resources, therefore, making it a suitable ecotourism nation. It is rich with environmental features from its marine life to it terrestrial wildlife.

The eruption of Mt. Pinatubo on June 15, 1991 was considered to be a very unforgettable tragedy in the Philippine history. Its eruption resulted in the collapse of the volcano’s summit and formed a 2.5-kilometer caldera. At the middle of its caldera is a majestic blue lake that provides a breath-taking view to the tourists. Since then, both domestic and international explorers have been seen by the locals in their entry points such as Barangay Sta. Juliana in Capas, Tarlac.

The most common knowledge on the impacts of tourism is usually on the economic side, for tourism contributes a lot in terms of providing employment and taxes to the local economy. But tourism impacts go beyond the economic effects; it has also impacts on socio-cultural and the environment. This study aims to discuss the environmental impacts of ecotourism in Mt. Pinatubo as perceived by the local residents of Sta. Juliana Capas, Tarlac.

METHOD

The researcher identified the environmental impacts of tourism based from the literature of Kraeg (2001). Though the three different sets of opinions (residents, managers and visitors) are all equally important to effectively assess the situation, the author decided to assess the environmental impacts of tourism in Pinatubo based from the perception of the residents.

The research method of this study is descriptive, while the design will be a mixed quantitative-qualitative approach. Ecotourism in Mt. Pinatubo is considered to be a phenomenon that can be assessed – in this case, the environmental impacts.

This study used a questionnaire designed specifically for the residents of Mt. Pinatubo. The questionnaire was written both in English and in the local dialect, Kapampangan. The questionnaires were distributed at the entry point of the trek, specifically at Sta. Juliana, Capas, Tarlac, Barangay Dali, Barangay Tarukian and Barangay Ye-Young. The participants from these barangays were usually the indigenous or what we call the Aetas. There were a total of 135 respondents from all the barangays that were visited. All sections will be analyzed by frequency. Apart from the survey, interviews were done to 3 local residents, 1 tourism officer from the local government unit and 1 from the Department of Tourism Regional Office. The data from the interviews were used to provide better analysis in the results of the survey.

FINDINGS

There are three main findings from this study. First, most of the positive impacts of tourism to the environment were perceived to be existing in Mt. Pinatubo. This is indicated to be a good thing since one of the objectives of ecotourism is advocate
on preserving the environment for sustainable development. Secondly, most of the negative impacts of tourism in the environment were perceived to be not existing in the area. In the same manner as the previous finding, this is a good thing since ecotourism aims to maximize the positive impacts and minimize the negative impacts in any aspect, for this scenario, to the environment. Lastly, out of all the 25 stated negative impacts of tourism to the environment, there were 6 impacts that were unfortunately found to be existing in the area and perceived to be serious problems by the local residents. The 6 impacts are: decrease of wildlife population because of tourism, scarcity of fresh water, soil erosion at walk trails, risk of mudslides and landslides, too many people at the viewing deck, and too many people at the entry point. In contrast to the first two findings, this is not a good thing because any negative impact that will be stated to be existing is not a good thing, being that it is negative. However, the realization of these factors may gear towards the desire to change on things for improvement. Tourism planners, policy makers and the local community may use this helpful information in order to create policies to solve the problems.

**IMPLICATIONS**

There were 3 main recommendations presented based on the findings of the study. The Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) should monitor the area regularly; this is in order to regulate the impacts of the tourists along the physical environment of Mt. Pinatubo. The researcher also recommends supporting the bill proposing that Mt. Pinatubo be considered as a protected area, so as to transfer the management of the area back to DENR and/or Department of Tourism. This is recommended to avoid the politics happening in the local government unit in Capas which influences the managers of tourism in Mt. Pinatubo. Lastly, as an immediate action, it will be very helpful both for the local community and tourists if both parties (tourists and residents) are provided information and reminders on how to further take care of the environment while being involved with tourism activities. There should be a briefing of the do’s and don’ts before the trek for tourists and a regular environmental protection seminar for the local residents.

The most important contribution of this study is that there is little research available that analyze the perceptions of the residents with regard to the tourism development in the Philippines, specifically in Mt. Pinatubo. And that based from the interviews conducted, a lot of issues came out from the local residents on how they are being taken for granted when it comes to employment, when in fact that according to the Mt. Pinatubo tourism masterplan that they are the main beneficiaries of this tourism development. However, this indicates a non-environmental issue; rather that it is a socio-economic. Thus, a strong recommendation for another study to be undertaken to dwell into that said topic.

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DUMAGATS AS ENVIRONMENTAL STEWARDS AND THEIR ROLE IN SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT USING TRADITIONAL ECOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE

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Reymar Gapas
Lyceum of the Philippines University

Many indigenous and local communities live in territories that are biologically outstanding on a global scale. Traditional indigenous territories have been estimated to cover up to 24 percent of the world’s land surface and contain 80 percent of the earth’s remaining healthy ecosystems and global biodiversity priority areas. A significant fraction of the world’s protected areas is found within or overlaps with indigenous lands, territories and resources. This remarkable spatial convergence presents both an enormous opportunity as well as a challenge for conservation efforts in protected areas and in the larger production landscape. Indigenous communities have also been responsible for the preservation and maintenance of traditional knowledge and practices that are highly relevant for the use of biodiversity. This nexus makes it imperative that the rights, interest and livelihoods of indigenous communities are respected and reinforced in all relevant tourism planning projects (Global Environment Facility, 2007).

The Dumagat people are an indigenous group of Filipinos found along the coast of the Pacific ocean and in the hinterlands of the Sierra Madre mountains in the eastern part of the Luzon island, Philippines. They generally resemble the other Negrito groups such as the Aetas of Pinatubo mountain, Ati of Panay island and the Ata-Manobos of Davao and North Cotabato provinces. The Dumagats, however, are taller and of bigger built than the Ati and Aeta groups based on the study conducted by Blumentritt in 1980 and Eranista in 1994 respectively. Economically stronger ethnic groups, e.g. the Tagalogs, have “pushed” the Dumagats up the mountains. Some Dumagats prefer to be called Agta which means people in the Dumagat language (UPM Journal, 1998).

In this study, using ethnographic research method, the traditional ecological knowledge and practices of the Dumagats have been identified which play a pivotal role in ensuring sustainable development in their areas and also highlighted their roles as stewards of the environment.

Keywords:
Dumagat, Indigenous, Traditional Ecological Knowledge, Sustainable Development

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A GREENER FESTIVAL: THE AGENT OF CHANGE

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Young Hoon Kim
Andrew McGovern Jr.
Barath Josiam
University of North Texas

INTRODUCTION

Festivals are among the fastest growing segments of the leisure and tourism market (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006; Dikmen & Bozdağlar, 2013; Yuan, 2013; David, Raj, & Musgrave, 2014). Music and art festivals, in particular, fulfill peoples’ desires to celebrate their diversity, art and joy. They are a unique phenomenon, with the ability to build human connections and increase community social cohesion (Gursoy, Kim, & Uysal, 2004; Arcodia & Whitford, 2006). Moreover, as being associated with community-based tourism (Kim et al., 2006), festivals are valuable in their ability to impact a community transition toward greener (more sustainable) practices (Liang & Frost, 2010).

Festivals have been recognized for promoting creative thinking and bringing attention to issues that are not usually broached in everyday life (Bakhtin, 1984). Some even view festivals as places where radical, or subversive messages can be shared (Liang & Frost, 2010). Moreover, as music and arts festivals especially transcend individual and generational differences and bring people together, they became powerful forces for the awakening of new ideas and inspiration. The ability music and art to inspire environmental and social awareness and activism in people can be fundamentally important on this journey toward sustainability.

While explosive growth in number of events and festivals has led to an increasing amount of academic study focused on the phenomenon (Getz, 1991; Getz, Anderson, & Carlsen, 2010), little attention has been paid to event sustainability (Gursoy et al., 2004; Liang & Frost, 2010; Arcodia & Whitford, 2006). Moreover, studies have too often focused solely on the community perceptions of festival environmental impacts and impact assessment neglecting visitors views of festival sustainability (e.g. Delamere, 1998)(Gursoy, et al., 2004; Liang & Frost, 2010). This is, however, an important topic, as awareness of climate change and environmental degradation is increasing among festival attendees (Liang & Frost, 2010). Finally, visitor’s experiences and perceptions of the event’s pro-environmental initiatives are the least researched and therefore poorly understood aspects of contemporary events (Getz & Page, 2016) and yet they could influence revisit behavior. Without the understanding of visitors festivals may lose their patronage (Liang & Frost, 2010).

The purpose of the study is twofold. First we investigate visitor’s perceptions of ‘greenness’ of the art and music festival in Denton, TX. Second, we identify aspect of the event sustainably as conceptualized by visitors.

Greening a Festival – Impacts and Perceptions of Festival Sustainability

Concepts such as environmental degradation, waste management, pollution, and renewable energy are increasingly present in the everyday life of a US resident, and yet only recently did the idea of event sustainability or ‘greener event’ come to public attention (e.g. Mair & Laing, 2012; Winkle & Woosnam, 2014). In fact, festivals are just starting to contribute to the global sustainability efforts either by raising environmental awareness among festival visitors, promoting ‘greener’ solutions or assessing festival environmental impacts. One noticeable and increasingly popular initiative is development of new instruments to measure event’s environmental, social, and economic effects (Tinnish, 2012).
The festivals’ impacts on the physical environment at the festival location vary in duration, area, and intensity. When these large events are held, overcrowding and traffic congestion are often the two most common issues (Kim, Borges, & Chon, 2006; Quinn, 2006; Arcodia & Whitford, 2006; Yuan, 2013). Large festivals (especially those which are musical in nature) also bring about the possibility of noise pollution- a stressor on both local community and environment (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006; Fredline, Deery, & Jago, 2006). Additionally, transportation is a major consideration, with air and car travel noticeably increasing festivals environmental footprint. Finally, the distance of product sourcing is another transportation concern (Liang & Frost, 2010; David et al., 2014). Other identified areas where festivals need to improve their ‘greenness’ include: “biology, waste management, recycling, minimizing power use, and increased alternative transportation methods and more.” (Laing & Frost, 2010).

The objective assessment of festivals’ effect on natural environment has been a central issue in festival literature. Carbon emissions are an example of popular measure of event environmental impact. While carbon emissions are easily quantified, focusing solely on greenhouse gases fails to encapsulate many of the potential effects of a popular music and art event. Another way to estimate environmental sustainability of festivals is Ecological Footprint Analysis (EFA), which estimates global hectares needed to produce or offset the resources used or waste produced. These are then compared to the bio-capacity of the local area (Wackernagel & Rees, 1996; Andersson et al., 2013). Finally, Andersson and Lundberg (2013) developed a model for measuring environmental impacts using a monetary metric that combines the ecological footprint analysis and carbon credits by monetizing the hectares by land lease cost, in conjunction with a calculation of the cost of carbon emissions according to the market price of “carbon credits”.

Environmental sustainability- with it being the most visible dimension of sustainability in popular culture (as opposed to the economic or socio-cultural dimensions) (Simpson & Radford, 2012)- creates an opportunity for organizers to communicate benefits of pro-environmental behaviors such as reduced waste, pollution, and other environmentally harmful community impacts (Bowman, 2011). Usually, the more ‘green-minded’ the festival organizers are, the more sustainable solution will be incorporated into the festival (Mair & Laing, 2012). While simple pro-environmental solutions which most appealing to participants include large, clearly labeled recycling bins and composting bins, bike tire pumping stations, water bottle refill stations, clean energy, festivals should equally focus on less ‘saleable’ solutions such as reducing greenhouse gas emissions (Mair & Laing, 2012). Festival attendees are more savvy and actively looking for authentic pro-environmental solutions (Simpson & Radford, 2012), which is seen as a major breach of ethics by festival goers (Liang & Frost, 2010).

Research on attendees’ perceptions of festival sustainability, especially environmental sustainability is less common than that of host communities (Gursoy, et al., 2004; Liang & Frost, 2010). However, past research has indicated that to truly attain sustainability there needs to be an understanding of host communities, organizers, and attendees (Smith-Christensen, 2009; Yuan, 2013). For the ‘green’ initiatives of these events to succeed it is imperative that the organizers understand the consumers’ perceptions of their efforts (Simpson & Radford, 2012). It is important to understand consumer perceptions of environmental sustainability to prevent unscrupulous entities from misleading the public (Simpson & Radford, 2012). Incorporating sustainability into the shared values that hosts and visitors associate with the festival can have a large impact; some festivals which embraced environmentally friendly practices have grown even more popular (Kim et al., 2006; Andersson et al. 2013).

Liang and Frost (2010) found that in UK festival attendees believed festivals had negative environmental impacts, and thus considered festival’s ‘green’ policies when buying tickets. Further research (including demographic profiling) on festival attendees’ perceptions of environmental policies is therefore necessary- to learn how attendees feel about ‘green’ initiatives, and how those initiatives influence intentions to revisit (Liang & Frost, 2010). Customers want to be ‘green’ but often do not know how; Yuan (2013) argues that festival organizers have responsibility to educate visitors about their sustainable solutions.
and policies. Educating visitors about environmental sustainability actions is important because when visitors feel they are contributing they are more likely to adopt more environmentally friendly behaviors (Song, Lee, Kang, & Boo, 2012). Song et al. (2012) also note that a more environmentally friendly image can lead to attendees acting in a more environmentally friendly manner. Thus if visitors perceive a festival to be environmentally friendly they will put in extra effort to act in a sustainable manner further amplifying the positive impact of the festival’s efforts.

The visitors’ perceptions of ‘green’ festival are more important nowadays than ever before. The ‘greening’ of a festival is an essential aspect of event environmental sustainability; events like music festivals have many opportunities to fail to live up to the sustainability ideals of society (David et al., 2014). This is pertinent issue as more and more people attend large music and art events (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006; Mair & Laing, 2012; Dikmen & Bozdağlar, 2013; Yuan, 2013; David et al., 2014), while society has become concerned with environmental impacts of these activities.

Denton Arts and Jazz Festival

The Denton Arts and Jazz Festival (DAJF) has 35-year history in an area of North Texas with a strong attachment to music and the arts. It was first held at the North Texas State Fairgrounds in 1980, under the name Spring Fling. In 1990 the Denton Jazz Fest and the Spring Fling Festival merged to form what is now referred to as the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival. At this time, the festival was moved to its current location in Denton city, a rapidly growing city with a population of 128,205 is located just north of the Dallas/Fort Worth Metroplex in northern Texas. The festival is held in Denton’s Quaertown Park; a 20-acre park, with a 17,000 square foot facilities complex. During the festival the park features 1 indoor and 6 outdoor stages, seating 200 and 5,000 people respectively. The Denton Arts and Jazz Festival is a free community event that is organized by the Denton Festival Foundation. The festival has many sponsors, both public and private. It strives to bring in people from all over the region, and to appeal to all ages and ethnicities.

METHODS

Item development and questionnaire distribution

Delamere (1998) developed a Festival Social Impact Attitude Scale to assess the social impacts of public festivals, however no reliable and valid scale exists to measure perceptions of pro-environmental solutions implemented at festivals. Thus this research began with creating the instrument to assess perceived environmental sustainability of the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival. Step one was an extensive literature review in order to delineate what exactly is to be measured (Churchill, 1979). The following step involved the creation of a pool of items reflecting the literature’s conceptualization of festivals environmental sustainability and festival environmental impacts. Following the initial generation of items for environmental dimensions of event sustainability, the pool of items was subjected to a test of face validity by a team of four tourism academics as recommended by Woosnam and Norman (2010).

Every 10th person was intercepted at Denton Arts and Jazz Festival during the second day of the festival. The research team began data collection simultaneously at the three different entrances- two team members were located at each entrance. While the original plan was to collect data during all three days of the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival, this plan was not executed due to inclement weather conditions. Attendees of the second day of Denton Arts and Jazz Festival were asked to complete the survey. A total of 600 surveys were distributed, 558 surveys were collected, and 557 were determined to be useful.

Sample characteristics

The average respondent to the survey was Caucasian, 18-35 years old, single, employed part-time, and held at least a bachelor’s degree. The gender breakdown of the sample was fairly even and mirrored the US population as a whole with slightly more females than males. Our sample was nearly an even split between residents of Denton city (the site of the festival) and those from outside the city proper, which provides an interesting contrast of residents and visitors. (Table 1)
Table 1. Sample Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>54.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 - 35</td>
<td>356</td>
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<tr>
<td>36 - 55</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56 – 75</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>10.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ethnic Group</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian American</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Black/African American</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hispanic/Latino American</td>
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<tr>
<td>White/Caucasian American</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bi/Multiracial American</td>
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<td>2.4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Single</td>
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<tr>
<td>Married/Partnership</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>27.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Married (with Children)</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>15.2</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Part-Time</td>
<td>328</td>
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<tr>
<td>Full-Time</td>
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<td>10.2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>42</td>
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<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Student</td>
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<td>16.9</td>
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<td>Resident of</td>
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<td>245</td>
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<tr>
<td>Denton County</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dallas-Fort Worth</td>
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<td>24.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Outside Dallas –Fort Worth</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Totals differ due to missing data.

RESULTS

Factors (groups of) perceived environmental sustainability of the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival were initially identified through EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis). These factors were confirmed by CFA. As seen in Table 2, the factor loadings for each item were well above the 0.5 cutoff, indicating good convergent validity. Reliabilities of the individual factors were acceptable. Reliability of entire festival environmental sustainability instrument was also good (CR=821).
Table 2. CFA of Festival Environmental Sustainability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>MEAN</th>
<th>R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Environmentally Friendly Practices (CR=.856)</td>
<td>ENV1: Vendors at the festival recycle</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>3.2826</td>
<td>.70</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV2: Vendors at the festival use recyclable containers</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>3.3874</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV3: Vendors at the festival use compostable containers</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>3.1047</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV12: Recycling has been made easily accessible at the festival</td>
<td>546</td>
<td>3.1996</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV13: This festival promotes environmentally friendly behavior</td>
<td>547</td>
<td>3.3364</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV14: This festival makes me more aware of my environmental impacts</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>3.0598</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2: Sustainable Food Service (CR=.723)</td>
<td>ENV4: Vendors at the festival serve local products</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>3.6630</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV5: Vendors at the festival sell environmentally friendly products</td>
<td>551</td>
<td>3.2559</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV6: Products sold at the festival come from within 100 miles</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>3.3942</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3: Landscape deterioration (CR=.646)</td>
<td>ENV7: The landscape aesthetics of Quakertown park are diminished because of the festival</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>2.9152</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV8: Because of the festival, litter in the vicinity of Quakertown Park has increased</td>
<td>553</td>
<td>3.1031</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4: Reducing consumption of resources(CR=.720)</td>
<td>ENV9: The festival makes an effort to reduce consumption of bottled water</td>
<td>549</td>
<td>2.6648</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV10: The festival makes an effort to reduce energy consumption</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>2.9197</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ENV11: The festival uses renewable energy</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>2.9088</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Measure of model fit: chi-square =217.854; RMSEA = .065; NFI = .927; CFI = .947; PCFI = .677; R=standardized regression coefficient

The individual items were drawn from the existing literature on festival and event impacts; they allow us to get a sense of what aspects of environmental sustainability are most visible to the festival visitors. The highest means at this festival were the items referring to local food services (factor 2). The lowest means at the festival were the items referring to reducing consumption of resources which are also the least visible (factor 4).

The multiple regression model with all four predictors was significant (R² = .293; F= 56.335, p = .000) with the strongest predictor being factor 1: “Environmentally Friendly Practices”. The proposed model explained about 29% of the total variability in perceived overall environmental sustainability of the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival. All the factors 1,2,3,4 are significant predictors of environmental sustainability as conceptualized by the festival attendees (p<.05).

Table 3. Environmental Sustainability Predictors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>.311</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor2</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.136</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.037</td>
<td>-.201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor4</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Do you see the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival as environmentally sustainable

DISCUSSION / CONCLUSIONS

Music and Art have the special ability to bridge people’s differences, and this has allowed local art festivals to take an important role in the promotion of sustainable communities (e.g. Bowman, 2011; Winkle & Woosnam, 2014). However, the study of visitor’s perceptions of the environmental sustainability of arts festivals is lacking in the academic literature (Arcodia & Whitford, 2006). With this gap in mind, the purpose of the study was to investigate the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival’s environmental sustainability from the perspective of festival visitors.

We performed EFA which yielded 4 factors of DAJF environmental sustainability. The first factor is related to vendors and organizers environmentally friendly practices observed by respondents; the second has to do with the sustainability of food services at the festival; the third aspect is about perceived quality of the festival space-Quakertown Park; and the final factor consists of all the items related to festival’s consumption of
local resources during the Denton Arts and Jazz Festival (electricity and water). From the perspective of DAJF visitors view, environmental sustainability is comprised of these 4 types of issues.

Of particular interest to researchers should be the fact that all of the identified components of environmental sustainability are strong predictors of perceived environmental sustainability as conceptualized by the festival attendees. This demonstrates that festival participants are not just passive recipients of the festival, but rather they are actively assessing the festival and its quality in accordance with their personal standards for environmental sustainability. The visitor’s understanding of environmental sustainability may be different than view the organizers subscribe to. This raises the question; if attendees assessment should inform future actions? Perceptions of attendees or objective

In Denton, for instance, the lowest ranked efforts of the DAJF were in the area of bottled water consumption. Past research shows visitors tend to react stronger to perceived negative environmental impacts than to corresponding efforts to reduce festival consumption of bottled water (Choi & Ng, 2011). Reducing ‘bottled water’ consumption could be one of the more visible pro-environmental solutions at any festival, possibly because this idea has been part of American society’s collective environmental consciousness. Moreover, water consumption at the festival could be something that the organizers use in the future to facilitate more sustainable behaviors among the festival attendees on the one hand, while at the same time responding to the general public concern about festival environmental impacts. On the other hand high mean values for items referring to local food services could indicate that: first of all DAJF is promoting local vendors, together with arts and music, secondly that focus on local is perceived as a flagship feature of environmentally friendly this art and music festivals.

Focusing on local strengths, engaging local vendors and promoting local merchandise is nowadays considered a crucial aspect of any environmentally friendly cultural event and could become an inspiration to host communities (Sims, 2009). These pro-environmental behaviors during the festivals, if effectively communicated and promoted, could potentially translate into residents everyday behaviors. This is the great potential that local public arts and music festivals demonstrate to transform the sustainable discourse in communities.

REFERENCES


TOURIST PREFERENCES FOR ECOTOURISM IN AMAMI OSHIMA: 
CHOICE EXPERIMENT IN THE RUN-UP TO THE DESIGNATION 
AS A WORLD NATURAL HERITAGE SITE

Natsumi Izu
Japan Travel Bureau Foundation

INTRODUCTION

In many regions of the world, ecotourism is being introduced in order to promote environmental conservation and invigorate local economies. In Japan, as well, many regions are hoping that ecotourism may become a major source of income. Japan’s population is declining, which is likely to cause a gradual decline in domestic tourism. Because ecotourism focuses on improving the quality of each individual customer’s experience rather than using a mass production approach, customer satisfaction is high, as is the average price per customer, so it has been drawing a great deal of attention in the tourism industry.

The purpose of this study was to survey people’s preferences regarding eco-tours, in order to develop more profitable tours with greater customer satisfaction. This study employed the choice experiment (CE) method advanced in fields such as marketing research and environmental economics to perform a quantitative assessment of eco-tour preferences. The CE consisted of presenting respondents with products and tours, from which they chose the options they found appealing, and using their choices to infer preferences sorted according to attributes. CE have been used before, domestically and abroad, to illuminate tourists’ sense of, and needs regarding, eco-tours (Chaminuka et al. (2012) Lee et al. (2010) and Bush et al. (2008)). There are, however, few examples of research into preferences regarding domestic tours in Japan using CEs.

This study conducted a CE using a questionnaire to survey eco-tour preferences. The CE was developed as one method of conjoint analysis which aims to discover individuals’ valuation of various attributes. In a CE, respondents are presented with various products (in this case, eco-tours), they choose the options they find most appealing, and the value of the products under consideration can be broken down by different attributes for valuation. CEs were developed in Louviere and Hensher (1982), Louviere and Woodworth (1983), and gained traction in fields such as marketing research, transportation engineering, and environmental assessment. In the eco-tour field, as well, they have been used not only to understand tourists’ needs, but for various purposes, including decisions regarding management plans for protected regions, choosing travel destinations with consideration for the environmental burden (Hearne and Salinas, 2002; Kelly et al., 2007).

METHOD

Study area

Amami Oshima is an island located in southern Japan, under the subtropical zone. About 360 thousand people visit this island each year. Amami Oshima’s forested area boasts distinctive flora and fauna such as the Amami rabbit, so it is a candidate for designation as a World Natural Heritage Site. Tourism on Amami Oshima until now, however, has mainly been focused on things like marine sports along the coast and canoeing in the mangrove area. As not much attention had previously been paid to the forested area expected to be designated as a World Natural Heritage Site, no preparations had been made. While Amami Oshima’s designation as a World Natural Heritage Site is expected to give a boost to its tourist industry, no preparations have been made for the forest area becoming a tourist attraction, so there are concerns regarding environmental damage, and the declining quality of the tourist experience it would offer. According to our in-
tivities, in the event of a rapid influx of tourists, local decision-makers are considering reconciling economic stimulus with environmental conservation by steering that business toward areas other than the forest, such as the coast and the mangrove region, which have already been developed as tourist locations, and toward the local towns which they are trying to promote for future tourism. Various eco-tour products are also under development there. There has been, however, no quantitative evaluation of tourist demand for these types of tours.

Questionnaire design of choice experiment
In the questionnaire for this CE, respondents were presented with multiple tours organized according to five attributes (Purpose, Interpretation, Length, Number, Fee), and were asked to choose the tour in which they would most like to participate. Purpose indicates the main purpose of the tour, and Interpretation indicates the depth of the tour guide’s explanations. Length is the time required for each tour. Number is the number of people participating in the tour besides the respondent. Fee is the cost of the tour. The attributes and levels of our CE survey were drawn up as shown in Table 1. The list of attributes and levels are based on nature-based tours currently on offer, and they incorporate the opinions of the local council promoting ecotourism in Amami Oshima and tour guides within the council. The combination of these five attributes with all the levels produced 840 tour scenarios (7 x 4 x 3 x 2 x 5). The choice sets consisted of a choice of three of these tour scenarios, with an additional “I can’t choose between these tours” option, for a total of four possible choices. Each questionnaire comprised six choice sets, with no overlap. In other words, respondents were presented with six different choice sets, and indicated their preferred choice each time, as in Figure 1.

Data collection
The questionnaire survey was carried out in the Amami Oshima airport waiting room in August 2014. The questionnaire was distributed by hand to tourists visiting there, and returned later by mail. 802 surveys were distributed, and 312 were returned (a 39% response rate).

Estimation procedures
The data obtained from the CE tasks were quantified using a random utility model. In this model, the utility function consists of the sum of the deterministic term, which is a function of the factors that influence respondents’ utility and the stochastic error term that is unobservable for researchers. The utility for a profile \( i \) is described by equation (1):

\[ U_i = V_i + \varepsilon_i, \]

where \( U_i \) is the total utility for profile \( i \), \( V_i \) is an observable term, and \( \varepsilon_i \) is an unobservable term. The probability that profile \( i \) is chosen from choice set \( C \) is equivalent to the probability that \( U_i \) is larger than \( U_j \), the total utility for any other profile, \( j \), as described by equation (2):

\[
\Pr(i \mid C) = \Pr(U_i > U_j) = \Pr(V_i + \varepsilon_i > V_j + \varepsilon_j) \\
= \Pr(V_i - V_j > \varepsilon_j - \varepsilon_i) \quad \forall j \neq i, \forall j \in C.
\]

With no loss of generality, the deterministic component can be expressed as linear in parameters:

\[ V_i = \beta x_i, \]

where \( x_i \) is a vector of observed variables and \( \beta \) is a vector of parameters. If the error term is assumed to be distributed as a type-I extreme value, the probability that profile \( i \) is chosen is the conditional logit model (McFadden, 1973):

\[
\Pr(i \mid C) = \exp(\mu \beta x_i) / \sum_{j \in C} \exp(\mu \beta x_j).
\]

The scale parameter \( \mu \) is generally assumed to be one (Ben-Akiva and Lerman, 1985), and the attribute parameters are estimated using the maximum likelihood method.

**FINDINGS**

**Tourist socio-economic characteristics**

44% of the survey respondents were male, and 56% were female. The largest segment of respondents were in their 40s (32%). The average annual income among respondents was ¥7,210,000. Roughly half the respondents were visiting Amami Oshima for the first time. Also, 57% were aware that Amami Oshima was a candidate for designation as a World Natural Heritage Site. The recreational activity in which the most tourists had participated on Amami Oshima was swimming in the sea (48%), while relatively few tourists had engaged in recreation such as hiking and forest bathing in the forested region (5%, 11%).
Conditional logit results

The following displays the estimated results according to the conditional logit model. “Purpose” and “Interpretation” have been estimated according to the effect code, using dummy variables. The parameter values are relative values; higher values indicate an increased probability of respondents choosing that tour. Furthermore, the estimations of the utility parameter have all been made according to stata12.

The tour purpose parameters, in order of greatest value, were snorkeling (seeing sea turtles), mangrove canoe trip, snorkeling (without seeing sea turtles), and the local town walking tour. As for “Number,” as the number of fellow tour-takers rose, the utility parameter fell, which was statistically significant (1% level). In other words, increasing the number of other people on the tour lowered its probability of being chosen. We did not get statistically significant values for the “Length” and “Interpretation” parameters.

Estimations in which random parameter models were applied were also conducted. As a result, it is now known that only “Interpretation” is a fixed parameter and all other parameters are random parameters. In other words, it became clear that the respondents had varied preferences regarding “Number”, “Length”, “Purpose” and “Fee”.

By adding the product of individual dummy variables and attribute variables to the model, we conducted the verification of how the assessment of each attribute differs according to differences in individual attributes. There was no correlation between any individual attribute with “Number” and “Interpretation”. As for “Length”, “Purpose” and “Fee”, it became clear that there were varied preferences depending on sex, age, and visiting experience.

IMPLICATIONS

It was quantitatively shown that the majority of tourists visiting Amami Oshima were more interested in recreation in the mangrove, coastal, and other areas, than they were in the forest area currently being considered for designation as a protected region. Also, while demand was low for tours of local towns, which are under consideration as future offerings, there was shown to be a fixed demand for them among certain strata, including the elderly and repeat visitors.

In this study, we were able to assess the demand for eco-tours in Amami Oshima using a CE. The following issues remain, however. First, in order to estimate demand, a random sampling of potential tourists nationwide would be ideal, but this study’s results come from an on-site sampling. Second, this survey was conducted only during the summer season, which may result in a bias. In the future, nationwide surveys of potential tourists during various seasons will doubtless provide even more accurate demand predictions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose of the tour</th>
<th>Alternative1</th>
<th>Alternative2</th>
<th>Alternative3</th>
<th>Alternative4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>snorkeling</td>
<td>mangrove canoe trip</td>
<td>night tour</td>
<td>I don't want to participate in any tours in this choice set.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>5 hours</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>detailed</td>
<td>detailed</td>
<td>not detailed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee</td>
<td>5,000 JPY</td>
<td>5,000 JPY</td>
<td>3,000 JPY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Choose prefererence ONE number  

\[\begin{array}{cccc}
1 \\
2 \\
3 \\
4 \\
\end{array}\]

Figure 1. Attributes and levels of the choice experiment.
Table 1. Attributes and levels of the CE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>walk in virgin forest, mangrove canoe trip, night tour in forest (seeing Amami rabbit), night tour in forest (without seeing Amami rabbit), snorkeling (seeing sea turtle), snorkeling (without seeing sea turtle), local town walk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>Detailed interpretation; no detailed interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>1 hour, 3 hours, 5 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>No person, 5, 10, 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fee</td>
<td>1,000; 3,000; 5,000; 7,000; 10,000 JPY</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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CONFLICT OF LAWS: A CASE STUDY OF THE PHILIPPINE TOURISM PROMOTIONS BOARD

Callejo, Jasfer

University of the Philippines

INTRODUCTION

The Philippine tourism industry marked another milestone as visitor arrivals surpassed the Five Million arrivals, as the country welcomed a total of 5,360,682 visitors in 2015. The influx of visitors during the Christmas holidays, as well as, the international media exposure of the country as major international events were successfully held in the Philippines such as the visit of Pope Francis, APEC 2015 meetings and tourism events such as Madrid Fusion Manila which help boost arrivals to the country (DOT OTPRIM, 2016). These figures are manifestations of the immense efforts of the Department of Tourism and its marketing arm, the Tourism Promotions Board. As mandated by the R.A. 9593, the Tourism Promotions Board (TPB), an attached agency to the DOT, exists to market and promote the Philippines domestically and internationally as a world-class tourism and MICE destination, in strategic partnership with private and public stakeholders to deliver a unique high-value experience for visitors, significantly contributing to increased arrivals, receipts and investments to the country. (Tourism Act, 2009)

As Brinkerhoff (1996) has stated, in the democratizing political environment of many developing and transitioning countries, governments have limited ability to impose reforms without paying attention to building credibility, consensus, and support. The broad demand for transparency and accountability can act as a brake on tendencies to revert to autocratic and closed-circle decision-making. In line with this demand, the Congress passed RA 10149, which is an act that promotes financial viability and fiscal discipline in government-owned or -controlled corporations and strengthens the role of the state in its governance and management to make them more responsive to the needs of public interest and for other purposes. The Governance Commission is the agency through which the State actively exercises its ownership rights in GOCCs and Government Financial Institutions to promote growth by ensuring that their operations are consistent with national development policies and programs. (GOCC Governance Act, 2011)

This paper seeks to discover the process of adaptation that the Tourism Promotions Board newly created by the Tourism Act of 2009 had to undergo through highlighting the current support or barriers the agency faced because of the enactment of the GOCC Governance Act of 2011. This is done by examining the main agents responsible for the operations concerning the country’s marketing and promotions efforts.

METHOD

The researcher used a framework adapted from Conflict Assessment Framework by United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in 2012. It involved a five step process of determining the core factors that affected policy implementation and the conflicts that have arisen. These include (1) Context, where the researcher evaluated and outlined key contextual issues of the conflict environment, (2) Institution Performance, where the researcher understood and communicated the concepts of Core Grievances and Sources of Institutional Resilience, and described them within the specific situation being assessed, (3) Social Patterns, where the researcher identified Key Actors that are central to producing, perpetuating or profoundly changing the Institutional Performance identified in the previous step, (4) Opportunities, where the researcher tried to look for potential situations that might offer
opportunities for mitigating conflicts and promoting stability, and possible alternative futures that potential actors can contribute to alleviate such conflicts.

Respondents are from all the different functional departments of the Tourism Promotions Board. The semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were done face-to-face, and were recorded to ensure data are well captured. The questions ranged from TPB’s current situation with the enactment of the GOCC act and the advantages or barriers they were able to encounter, the process of monitoring, the sufficiency of support from other key actors, and their resources. Secondary data were also retrieved from TPB to verify the claims of the interviews.

Thematic analysis is the main method the researcher used to analyze the data. Themes were identified by "bringing together components or fragments of ideas or experiences, which often are meaningless when viewed alone" (Leininger, 1985). Themes that emerge from the informants' stories are pieced together to form a comprehensive picture of their collective experience. The coherence of ideas rests with the analyst who has rigorously studied how different ideas or components fit together in a meaningful way when linked together (Leininger, 1985). Constas (1992, as cited by Aronson, 1995) reiterates this point and states that the "interpretative approach should be considered as a distinct point of origination" (p. 258).

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

In general, the Tourism Promotion Board has internal and external entities that monitor the implementation of marketing and promotions. Internally, they have the Corporate Planning department, which reports are also submitted and approved by the TPB Board of Members. Externally, they have the GCG as one the main performance checkers. This is done through scorecards.

A Performance Scorecard contains Major Final Outputs. These MFO’s are goods or services that a Department or Agency is mandated to deliver to external clients through the implementation of programs, activities and projects. Some of TPB’s main MFO’s include International and Domestic Tourism Promotions Services (i.e. tourist arrivals, marketing materials developed, marketing communications placed, international and domestic events, rank of the Philippines as a top Destination in Asia-Pacific), Assistance in M.I.C.E. Services (i.e. organized and/or supported events, rank of the Philippines as a MICE destination both globally and in Asia-Pacific), and General Administrative Services (ISO Certification, ratio of Marketing and Promotions). These performance indicators for each MFO are intended to capture the dimensions of quantity, quality, timeliness, and costs that are to be measured and will illustrate the standard by which the TPB is expected to deliver its services.

GCG follows a timeframe in the submissions of all the reports. Given the limited manpower and resources, TPB’s main challenge is to comply with the requirements on time. Notwithstanding if the targets were internal, if the agency was not able to submit the report on a particular date, or if it is not substantiated enough, the GCG fails the grading. This is one of the major grievances each department shared. The employees of the TPB indeed became productive but if outcomes were still unreach, the agency doesn’t get its requests. Having a population of elderly government employees, the interviewees honestly revealed that they are not yet adept with the understanding and embracing the new policy, and would still need to adjust with their disappointments and low morale to push them further and produce their projected outcomes.

TPB indeed lacks manpower. Departments were only allowed to have 8 people per division. As prescribed by GCG, entry level was grade 15. It was too high, as the respondents have lamented, that's why Job Orders were needed, not to mention the Civil service regulations which hindered internal and external human resources from taking on more senior roles despite a wide range of practical hands-on experience. In addition to that, GCG only allowed 150 plantilla positions out of the 204 that the agency requested. In the initial proposal, 8 staff would compose division, and that
17 staff would compose a department, including the manager.

Regarding their high level positions, one main problem seen by the respondents was the conflict with the term provided by GCG with the Tourism Act. GCG termed the Chief Operating Officer of only a year of service, contradictory to the Republic Act of 9593 giving the COO a term of 6 years. On top of that, the board of directors gained restrictions as well, thus worsening their current reorganization.

The respondents have identified a number of opportunities for conflict resolution and offered future actions that potential participants in the operations of the TPB might want to take into consideration. They have established that TPB needs newer and younger bloods with fresher ideas. The people in TPB are old aged, and most of the time, slow moving. Most of the times, their ideas in marketing and promotions are not as innovative. The current movers of the TPB project TPB to have employees who think like those in the private sector -- not traditional, but competitive. Manpower should be increased and training should be augmented, particularly in marketing training. There should be access to adequate resources, capacity building, and investments on appropriate tools and infrastructure. This would be in keeping with their human resources problems, and would address their difficulties in running with deadlines and demands set by the GOCAct. Governance Act.

A clearly communicated plan of actions and strategies between TPB and DOT was suggested in relation to their roles in market developments. This step would align their differences and similarities in functions, thus no repetition of jobs will happen, and the GCG will have adequate time to differentiate their responsibilities. In addition to that, enhancement of public-private sector partnerships and engagements would also be beneficial. It was also suggested that top management of TPB’s administration ought to learn from the past mistakes so it’s not repeated. This could be possible through usage of updates based on concrete/useful feedbacks and studies.

Extensive studies about the implementation of the Republic Acts are still in infancy. The Tourism Act has only started in 2009, and the GOCAct Governance Act in 2010, and the transition has only begun. Exploring the effects of these enactments, describing, and analyzing these results can further help for the amendment of the acts for necessary changes. Future research needs to explore other tourism agencies that were affected by the enactments of RA9593 and RA 10149, or examine the GCG itself, would broaden the understanding of key actors in the industry. The data that will be collected from key officials and employees of each departments and agencies can then be compared and contrasted with the Tourism Promotions Board.

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GOCAct Governance Act of 2011, An Act To Promote Financial Viability And Fiscal Discipline In Government-owned Or -controlled Corporations And To Strengthen The Role Of The State In Its Governance And Management To Make Them More Responsive To The Needs Of Public Interest And For Other Purposes

Tourism Act of 2009, An Act Declaring A National Policy For Tourism As An Engine Of Investment,

Employment, Growth And National Development, And Strengthening The Department Of Tourism And Its Attached Agencies To Effectively And Efficiently Implement That Policy, And Appropriating Funds Therefore
THE EFFECT OF TANGIBLE AND INTANGIBLE HEALTHY FOOD CLUES ON FULL-SERVICE RESTAURANT CONSUMERS: BASED ON HEALTH BELIEF THEORY

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Soon-A Lee
Sangmook Lee
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INTRODUCTION

The world’s modern population confronts various health problems related to eating habits, such as being overweight, morbid obesity, poor nutrition, eating disorders, and so on (Goldschmidt et al., 2012; Libbey, Story, Neumark, & Boutelle, 2012). General over ideal weight and morbid obesity represent recognized global health issues as identified by The World Health Organization (WHO). The WHO reported being overweight and/or morbid obesity is the fifth leading risk for death worldwide, and at least 2.8 million adults die each year as a result (WHO, 2012). Due to the recent dramatic increase in health issues related to being overweight, “healthy foods” are gaining global attention and has become a significant subject of interest in both academia and the foodservice industry (Hwang & Lorenzen, 2008). Additionally, healthy food options and the nutritional value of foods have become significant top trends in the hospitality industry.

Previous studies found various factors influence people’s choices for food (Hamilton, McIlveen, & Strugnell, 2000; Kim, Bergman, & Raab, 2010; Neumark, Story, Perry, & Casey, 1999; Story, Neumark, & French, 2002) including some visual characteristics of food (appearance, texture, and color), and environmental elements (mass media advertising and weather). Not only the physical/environmental factors but also people’s psychological reactions have had consideration as critical factors that influencing choices for food such as emotions, concerns (Hetherington, 2007; Rozin, Pelchat, & Fallon, 1986; Steptoe et al., 2003; Sun, 2008). Diet is known to be a significant contributor to health and many people associate eating with maintaining good health (Deshpande, Basil, & Basil, 2009; Story, Kaphingst, Robinson, & Glanz, 2008). In addition, prior scholars identified experiential and informational sources could significantly influence improvement of people’s healthy eating behavior (Contento & Murphy, 1990; Glanz et al., 1998; Macht, Meiningher, & Roth, 2005).

Although numerous researchers found various principle factors influence people’s choices for food, a number of studies’ simultaneous examination of the diverse elements affecting the methods people use to select healthy foods in the full-service restaurants has not occurred. In other words, investigators have not considered all of the factors affecting customers’ choices for healthy food in full-service restaurant segment. Specifically, little research explained the relationships among various healthy foods’ tangible and intangible elements that affect experiential value of healthy foods, healthy food satisfaction, and attitudinal and behavioral loyalties toward healthy foods in full-service restaurants. Academically, furthermore, the health belief model (HBM) has been employed to better understand the conceptual frameworks in health behavior research, both to explain change and maintenance of health-related behaviors and as a guiding framework for health behavioral intention along with health conscious. Therefore, the ultimate goal of present study is to assess which factors encourage people to buy or eat healthy foods when dining at full-service restaurants, and determine the relationship among the healthy food various factors including tangible and intangible aspects,
experiential value, satisfaction and healthy food loyalties based on the health belief model.

METHODS

Survey Development
The current study employed questionnaires for assessing the tangible and intangible factors toward healthy food choice in full-service restaurants as determined by previous prior studies (Furst et al., 1996; Khan & Hackler, 1981). Additionally, assessment of experiential value about healthy foods used three items based on the study by Forsythe, Wu and Liang (2009) and Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon (2001) studies. To test customer satisfaction of healthy foods, the current study used three items based on the research of Hellier et al. (2003) and Oliver (1980). For attitudinal loyalty, three items were adaptations from Taylor, et al. (2004). The last, three items, based on Zeithaml, et al. (1996) and Kim (2006), assess behavioral loyalty.

Data and Analysis
A developed self-administered questionnaire provided the dataset to achieve the study’s objectives. In order to participate in the survey, all participants who had visited a full-service restaurant and ordered any healthy food items within past three month were recruited. For the validation studies, current study collected 600 questionnaires through online service company and total 512 respondents were employed for statistical analysis after checking missing value, outlier verification, and unsuitable participants who had restaurant experiences occurred more than three month earlier.

Statistical analysis used SPSS 20.0 for Windows. Descriptive analysis identified participants’ socio-demographics in percentages and frequency. Also, following the two-step approach proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was examined whether or not the observed variables reflected the hypothesized latent constructs (factors) using a covariance matrix. Calculation of composite reliability confirmed the measurement’s reliability. Checking factor loading and average variance extracted (AVE) assessed convergent validity and discriminate validity. After confirming the measurement model, structural equation modeling (SEM) tested overall fit of the proposed model.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics of Sample
Descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentage of demographic variables (e.g., gender, generation, occupation) are shown. Almost of half informants were male (49.6%) and 50.4% were female. Around 80.7% of informants were White and 7.2%, 6.4%, 4.1% and 1.6% were African-American, Hispanic, Asian oriental, and other, in that order. The most frequently occurring occupation was retired (26.0%) followed by managers, administrators, or professionals (21.7%), professional trades (17.6%), service or sales workers (12.7%) and so on. For the marital status category, approximately 55.7% of participants were married, 39.1% were single, and 5.3% were other.

Measurement Model
To validate the structure of the four tangible factors (food quality, employee, information of menu, atmosphere) and four intangible factors (pressure, knowledge, concern, perceived price) , and four constructs: experiential value of healthy food, satisfaction and loyalties, current study confirmed reliability, unidimensionality, and validity before analyzing the structural model. Average Variance Extracted of all components was between 0.53 and 0.75, so it confirmed the convergent validity. In addition, each squared correlation ($r^2$) was less than the all components' AVE score, so that all the discriminant validity confirmed. Additionally, the requirement level for the reliability for all constructs in order to confirm the internal consistency of items verified appropriate level. Confirmatory factor analysis was shown that overall fit index appeared to be good. The verification results for the research model analyzed by using the covariance matrix were $\chi^2 (636)=2019.59 \text{ (p<.001)}$, CFI: 0.89, TLI: 0.88, IFI: 0.90, and RMSEA value were 0.065 that is below 0.08.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors and Items</th>
<th>Standardized Factor Loadings</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>AVE*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Healthy Food Quality (HFQ)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Pleasant taste/Texture</td>
<td>.825</td>
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<td>Reasonable temperature</td>
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<td>Proper portion size</td>
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<td>Attractive color</td>
<td>.882</td>
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<td>Knowledge (Kn)</td>
<td>.773</td>
<td>.535</td>
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<td>Personal knowledge</td>
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<td>More education</td>
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<td>Prior knowledge</td>
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<td>Symbol (Sym)</td>
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<td>Nutrition information on menu</td>
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<td>Symbol on menu</td>
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<td>Picture with words on menu</td>
<td>.882</td>
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<td>Price (Pri)</td>
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<td>Reasonable price</td>
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<td>Appropriate price</td>
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<td>Employee (Em)</td>
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<td>Interaction with servers</td>
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<td>Correct information from staffs</td>
<td>.953</td>
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<td>Relationship with employees</td>
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<td>Brand Familiarity (BF)</td>
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<td>Being familiar with restaurant</td>
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<td>Brand name</td>
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<td>Reputation</td>
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<td>Self pressure</td>
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<td>Technology (Te)</td>
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<td>Technology (Phone application)</td>
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<td>Calorie trackers</td>
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<td>Cleanliness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pleasant music &amp; sound level</td>
<td>.830</td>
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Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Measurement Model (N=262)

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

The proposed model identifies an good model fit to the data ($\chi^2=2221.96; \text{df}=660; p<0.001; \text{CFI}=0.88; \text{TLI}=0.87, \text{IFI}=0.88, \text{and RMSEA}=0.068$. All the path coefficients in the model were significant and positive except three paths perceived price and concern on experiential value, and satisfaction on attitudinal loyalty. Therefore, current study has been partially supported. Specifically, the results identify that the knowledge about healthy foods is the most significant factor among intangible factors ($\beta =0.24; t=4.39$), and employee ($\beta=0.83; t=2.41$) and information on healthy menus ($\beta=0.08; t=2.28$) were principle antecedents of tangible factors for healthy food experiences. In addition, the experiential value was significant predictor of all dependent variables (satisfaction: $\beta=0.82; t=9.76$, attitudinal loyalty: $\beta=0.93; t=6.35$, and behavioral loyalty: $\beta=0.27; t=2.80$). Last, satisfaction was significant factor of behavioral loyalty ($\beta=0.34; t=6.87$).
DISCUSSION

Although previous research has considered the relationship between values and behavior, relatively less is known about the behavior of health conscious consumers and their dining behavior, particularly in the full-service context. Specifically, present study extends the Health Belief Model (HBM) to predicting behavioral intention toward healthy food choices in the context of full-service restaurants through assessing experiential and behavioral components. As such, therefore, the purpose of this research was to assess the role of health-based personal values (i.e., health concern) as an antecedent to (1) evaluations of the restaurant experience and (2) positive post-consumption behavior. By addressing this gap in the literature, our study makes a contribution by establishing an account of the effects of health concern on the value and quality perceptions that determine, at least in part, the health conscious consumer’s evaluation of a full-service restaurant experience. As follows, these findings are considered in terms of their implications for both theory and practice.

Overall, the results suggest that health concern has a direct positive effect on emotion, perceived restaurant quality and behavioral intention (though not on perceived value). From a theoretical standpoint, these results contribute an extension of the values-behavior framework to the domain of restaurant consumption behavior. The values associated with living a healthy lifestyle are demonstrated as both a direct and indirect antecedent of restaurant consumers’ intentions to patronize and to engage in positive word of mouth. By including an assessment of perceived quality and perceived value in this framework, the present study can be seen as the beginning of a more holistic framework for the assessment of the relationship between personal values and behavior in the marketplace for healthy food.

As such, the primary theoretical contribution of this research is the identification of the mediating effects of emotion, perceived value, and quality of restaurant in the relationship between health concern and behavioral intention. The mediating effects suggest that emotion and perception of quality can affect consumers’ behavioral intentions via the creation of value. By establishing the respective roles of quality and value, the results of this research contribute a more complete account of the existing model of personal values and behavior as it pertains to full-service restaurant patronage.

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MEASURING THE DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS TO GAIN A COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE: A CASE STUDY OF VIETNAM AS A DEVELOPING TOURIST DESTINATION

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University of Lapland

INTRODUCTION

The competitiveness of a tourism destination has become a topic of increasing attention from researchers, managers and policy makers because of its importance in many aspects (Gooroochurn & Sugiyarto, 2005; Enright & Newton, 2004; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999). According to the report of the Council of Travel and Tourism World in 2009, the tourism sector (Blanke & Chiesa, 2009) has created 9.4% of world GDP (worth 5,474 billion) and is expected to reach 10,478 billion in 2019, and 219.81 million jobs created in 2009, accounting for 7.6% of the total. This figure is forecasted to offer 275.6 million jobs in the tourism industry, accounting for 8.4% of the total in 2019. With the increasing role of tourism in the world economy and the increasingly national importance of tourism development at developing countries, tourism has become a key driver for social and economic development. Along with economic prosperity, people's living standards are improved leading to; higher demand for quality tourism, safety and affordability. Tourists are knowledgeable and experienced, flexible and independent, and have high demands in quality and higher expectation during their travel. Many tourism destinations are emerging. Infrastructure and information technology have been improved significantly. The role and influence of travel agents and media has been improved on the growing market. Tourists pay more attention to quality, hygiene, environmental issues and facilities. This increases the pressure on the development of tourism in the developing countries and to attract more visitors in such a competitive environment. Therefore, winning the competition becomes the key factor for the long-term success of a nation in general, and a tourism destination in particular.

Many scholars (Gunn, 1979, Lew, 1987; Ritchie and Crouch, 2005; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Leask, 2010) have agreed that attractions are as one of the major determinants of tourism in the competitive world market. Many destinations are well-known for only single attraction. For example, the fame of Cape Town lies in Table Mountain whereas the area of Giza in Egypt is famous for the fascinating pyramid structures. Not only is it regarded to the unique landmarks of the destination, but it also links to the interaction between people and the main feature or the image of a destination. Tourists have no motivation or desire to travel to a destination with poor supply and unappealing perception. This triggers the development of a tourist attraction to continually increase the capacity of supporting services and facilities in the way of fulfilling customers’ experience. That’s why, destination should always ensure their attractiveness to compete with other competitors in the international tourism market.

Along with the continuing development trend of the global and regional tourism, most countries in the ASEAN had devoted themselves to be international destinations. From 1999 to 2012, the number of total international visitors to the region has been steadily growing. Malaysia and Thailand had continuously gaining ground while Singapore had experienced fluctuations, but still followed a rising trend. These countries have been successful in attracting foreign visitors and become popular destinations that are widely known in the world tourism market. However, compared with their neighbors, Vietnam had been slowly found their way to attract foreign tourists. Therefore, the study wishes to shed light on the sources and conditions that impact on competitiveness of ASEAN countries in general and Vietnam in particular to support them
in becoming internationally attractive tourism destinations. Thus, better understanding of destination attractiveness and its competitiveness can help tourism stakeholders to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of a destination to build its operation in becoming a trusted destination for visitors and a sustainable business practice for its residence.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In fact, tourism offers places for tourists to visit, eat, and stay. Modica (2016) claims that if a place has potential attractions to attract movement of people, it can considered as the semblance of destination. In tourism terminology, the term of destination has been commonly used to describe the various types of the object, such as tourist destination, destination image, destination attractiveness. A tourism destination is “a physical space in which a tourist spends at least one overnight” (UNWTO, 2007 be a). It can be a “country, state, region, city or town which is marketed or markets itself as a place for tourists to visit” (Bierman, 2003). Destination needs to ensure that products, services, and experiences are accessible to tourists (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011). It is argued that the conceptualization of destination (Modica, 2016) does not only mean as “a physical space, a geographic area, or a territory”, but it also covers varied aspects and fundamental elements that make each and every destination universe. A destination can be vary at different levels from sub-national (i.e local, municipal, provincial, and regional), to national and supra-national (McLennan et all., 2014, cited in Modica, 2016).

The study limits itself to the measurement of the attractiveness of a destination and its attributes towards tourists’ perspectives (i.e. tourists (dis-) satisfaction after experiencing their trip) so as to apply the new proposed model of Destination Attractiveness and Destination Competitiveness to identify its level of competition with others destinations (i.e. stakeholders’ views in currents issues in destination management.

The word attractiveness itself originates from the Latin verb "attractere", meaning – to attract. The notion of destination attractiveness has been explored since 1960s and 1970s. Pearson (1979) conceptualized destination attractiveness as the degree to which the destination meets its tourists’ expectation in terms of different dimensions, such as natural beauty, cultural richness, recreational opportunities, food and accommodation, and other amenities. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) defined the attractiveness in the combination of “the relative importance of individual benefits” and “the perceived ability of the destination to deliver individual benefits”. It reflects to “the feelings, beliefs, and opinions that an individual has about a destination’s perceived ability to provide satisfaction in relation to his or her special vacation needs” (Hu and Ritchie, 1993, p.25). Understandably, an individual expects to take a vacation which can satisfy his or her needs and desires. The destination, then, needs to differentiate their products to attract and become a potential place for holiday decision-making. According to the definition listed above, it may conclude that destination attractiveness is due to how tourism attributes connect with experiencing the destination. Thus, it is necessary to identify the destination attributes and tourists’ evaluation of these attributes to measure the performance of the attractiveness of a destination.

In general, the International Institute for Management Development (IMD) defines competitiveness as “to create added value and thus increase national wealth by managing assets and processes, attractiveness and aggressiveness, globality and proximity and by integrating these relationships into an economic and social model”. The competitive strategy (Porter, 1985, p.1) is to create a profitable and sustainable position among competitors in an industry. In tourism literature, there are many definitions of competitiveness standing on different angles. The concept of competitiveness has been described as a “destination’s ability to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its resources while maintaining market position relative to competitors” (Hassan, 2000). It is also defined as “the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve upon them through time” (d’Hartserre, 2000, p.23). Many scholars (Crouch & Ritchie, 1993, 2000; Go & Govers, 2000; Hassan, 2000) have introduced and applied the concept of competitiveness to investigate how to maintain and
improve the ability of a destination in response to market position among other destination competitors. The most competitive destination (Crouch & Ritchie, 2000; Kim & Dwyer, 2003, p.57) lies in its success in creating sustainable wellbeing for its residents on sustainable basis. Competitiveness is illusory without sustainability.

Both destination attractiveness and destination competitiveness are updated topics studies by many scholars (Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999; Buhalis, 2000; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Blanke & Chiesa, 2013). While competitiveness is often based on the destination perspective, attractiveness is viewed from the tourist perspective (Buhalis 2001). Better understanding of destination attractiveness can help tourism stakeholders to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of a destination to build its operation in gaining competitive advantage and becoming a trusted destination for visitors and a sustainable business practice for its residence.

METHOD

The study is to assess the perceptions of stakeholders and international visitors about the Vietnam attractiveness and its competitiveness by using quantitative methods. Survey data are gathered from tourism industry practitioners in two closely competing destinations and subjected to statistical testing (SPSS).

FINDINGS

After discussing and addressing the relationship between destination attractiveness and destination competitiveness in an attempt towards constructing the new proposed model of Destination Attractiveness and Destination Competitiveness (DADC), the study is going to test the model as an indicator to build a competitive destination by enhancing its determinant of attractiveness. It provides a foundation for better understanding of the ability of tourism destination to attract and compete in such an effective and sustainable way within the tourism context. The paper will also highlight the strategies and competitiveness development methods thereby recognizing the pattern of growth in Vietnam tourism industry.

CONCLUSION

Improving the attractiveness and competitiveness of tourism destination in ASEAN is a critical issue of the tourism industry, especially in terms of fierce competition among destinations in the world. Currently, the global tourism industry is coping with enormous challenges due to the impact of the downturn in global economic, terrorism, natural disasters, and epidemics around the world. In the study, the author concentrates on the requirements set out in the preamble. In addition, there are some contributions to a selective overview of the rationale for the attractiveness and competitiveness of destinations, overall experience of improving the level of destination attractiveness/competitiveness from Vietnam, analysis and evaluation to gain an in-depth understanding of its tourism competitiveness, which answers the research questions “what is the current state of the competitive position of Vietnam as an attractive destination by international standards?, what are its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in comparison with the main competitors in the region?” The research then puts forward a number of proposals and recommendations on policies and measures to improve the competitiveness of the regional tourism destinations. The opinions of stakeholders also help the author understand the up-to-date policies and measurements to improve the competitiveness of Vietnam tourism at the same time support her to make value added recommendations on policies and measures mentioned in the study.

Since the destination attractiveness and competitiveness is always a problem with practical implications for the tourism industry, the author spends more time on researching, summarizing theory and practice in the hope of analysis and evaluation to give an overall picture of the correlation of attractiveness and competitiveness of a destination in general and of Vietnam tourism in particular. Thus, the study proposes some recommendations on policies and measures to improve its competitiveness. However, because time is limited, the research certainly cannot cover all the issues related to the attractiveness with its regard to competitiveness of tourism destination in Vietnam and unavoidable shortcomings. Therefore, the author hopes to obtain insights and feedback from scientists, managers, professionals, businesses,
and colleagues to achieve a complete and meaningful dissertation and to accomplish value added research findings that can be applied in real practice to contribute to the development of tourism industry of the country in the next decade.

REFERENCES


WHAT FACTORS MOTIVATE CONSUMERS TO SPREAD EWOM?

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University of Tennessee

INTRODUCTION

It is well known that word-of-mouth can influence consumers’ decision-making processes, and it plays an important role in persuading customers to buy products (Brown & Reingen, 1987; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006; Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991; Kawakami & Parry, 2013). EWOM is defined as any positive or negative statements posted on the Internet made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, and it can be accessed by a multitude of people and institutions (Hennig - Thurai, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004). With eWOM, it is now possible for customers to identify and examine other customers’ experiences of the product or service before purchasing and gain richer insights into the products during their decision-making process. Previous studies focus mostly on how companies deal with eWOM and how eWOM influence customers’ decision-making processes (Bansal & Voyer, 2000; Bone, 1995; Cheng et al., 2006; Doh & Hwang, 2009; Sweeney, Soutar, & Mazzarol, 2014). Only a few studies talk about the motives of customers in spreading eWOM (Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005; Hennig - Thurai et al., 2004; Yap, Soetarto, & Sweeney, 2013). Hennig - Thurai et al. (2004) find that consumers’ desire for social interaction, desire for economic incentives, concern for other consumers, and the potential to enhance their own self-worth are the primary motivators. Yap et al. (2013) find that self-enhancement, social benefits, advice seeking and helping the company are all associated with both cognitive and affective characteristics, but that helping other consumers is only associated with cognitive characteristics; for negative eWOM, warning other consumers and venting negative feelings are both related to cognitive and affective characteristics.

In this study, the authors propose two models according to the intention to spread positive eWOM and negative eWOM, as well as to test the modified models of the theory of reasoned action. Four motivations are added as the antecedents of the attitude towards spreading eWOM online in each model, and the path from subjective norms to the attitude toward spreading eWOM online is tested. The authors use Structure Equation Modeling (SEM) to test the modified TRA model, and based on the outcomes, implications for managers and potential directions for future studies are provided.

THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

The TRA assumes that individuals are rational and that their decision-making processes motivate their behavior. They can gather information through a systematic process and make a reasoned choice (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). According to this theory, behavioral intention is the best predictor of behavior. Behavioral intention is also a joint function of attitude and subjective norms. Attitude in this model refers to the individual’s attitudinal conception toward performing the behavior. Subjective norm means whether the people who are important to him think they should perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

Self-enhancement

With spreading news of a positive shopping experience, the customers can prove that they are an intelligent shopper. Engel and Roger (1993) and Sundaram, Mitra, and Webster (1998) find that proving oneself to be a smart shopper can enhance their image among other shoppers.

H1: For positive eWOM, self-enhancement positively influences their attitude towards spreading eWOM.
Economic incentives

A lot of companies launch activities in which they reward customers with incentives if the customers post reviews of the products. The study of Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) finds that economic incentives can motivate customers to write their opinions of the products.

H2a&b: For both positive eWOM and negative eWOM, economic incentives positively influence their attitude towards spreading eWOM.

Concern for other customers. Sundaram et al. (1998) find that altruism can motivate people to provide WOM. Altruism means people doing something good for others without expecting anything in return. When reading others’ online reviews, a customer gets valuable information that helps them to make the right decision. In return, this customer will want to post his own experience about this product to help future shoppers. This is a virtuous circle.

H3a&b: For both positive eWOM and negative eWOM, concern for other customers positively influences their attitude towards spreading eWOM.

Helping the company

Helping the company means that when customers have a positive experience with a company, they want to reward the company by referring it to the others. Sundaram et al. (1998) use helping the company as a motivation to spread negative WOM. Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) use helping the company for positive eWOM and do not find a significant relationship between these two constructs. Based on the inconsistent outcomes of previous studies, in this study this relationship will be tested.

H4: For positive eWOM, helping the company positively influences their attitude towards spreading eWOM.

Advice seeking

Advice seeking means that when customers have a negative experience, they may share their unhappy experience online in order to get help from other customers. Sundaram et al. (1998) find that advice seeking is a main motivator for customers to post their eWOM.

H5: For negative eWOM, advice seeking positively influences their attitude towards spreading eWOM.

Venting negative feelings

After an unhappy experience, customers may use negative eWOM to express their dissatisfaction and boycott the company. Wetzer, Zeelenberg, and Pieters (2007) find that negative WOM messages contain expressions of anger, frustration and irritation when people want to vent negative feelings and have vengeful motives. These feelings and vengeful motives will promote the customers to spread eWOM.

H6: For negative eWOM, venting negative feelings influences their attitude towards spreading eWOM.

Attitude towards spreading the eWOM

In the TRA, attitude is one of the important determinants of behavioral intention. Attitude is a person’s evaluation of an object or a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Through an experimental study, Han, Hsu, and Sheu (2010) find that attitude is positively related to customers’ visiting intention.

H7: Attitude towards spreading eWOM positively influences intention to spread eWOM.

Subjective norms

Subjective norms are defined as the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Most previous studies present subjective norms only as the determinant of behavioral intention (Aleassa, Pearson, & McClurg, 2011; Govender & Khumalo, 2014; Thrasher, Andrew, & Mahony, 2011), and several studies begin to view subjective norms as the determinant of both behavior intention and attitude (Han et al., 2010; Han & Kim, 2010; Ryu & Han, 2010), but the results are not consistent.

H8: Subjective norms positively influence attitude towards spreading eWOM;

H9: Subjective norms positively influence intention to spread eWOM.
METHODOLOGY

The questionnaire used in this study will be composed of three parts. At the beginning of the questionnaire, the respondents will be asked to recall the content of a recent online review, and will be asked to select the type of the review (positive or negative). Then the respondents who select the positive review will be linked to the questionnaire for the positive online review and the respondents who select negative online review will be linked to the negative online review questionnaire. All the measurement items will be presented in the second part, and the third part contains questions about demographic information. All the measurements are adopted from the existing literature (Cheng et al., 2006; Cheung & Lee, 2012; Hennig - Thurai et al., 2004). The sample consists of students from a major university in the southeastern US, and 300 questionnaires are expected to be collected. The current study will use AMOS to analyze the data.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

All the hypotheses are expected to be supported. This study will be the first study that uses the TRA to explain customers’ eWOM intention; also, the relationship between subjective norms and the attitude towards spreading the eWOM will be tested and provided by empirical proofs. For managerial implications, managers can discern the motivations for why people write online reviews. For review platform companies, they can provide some promotions to attract more users. Also, the difference between the spreading of positive eWOM and negative eWOM will be presented from the outcomes. The company managers can figure out how to promote positive eWOM and prevent negative eWOM.

REFERENCE


A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CHINESE TRAVELER RELATED RESEARCH

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INTRODUCTION

Chinese outbound tourism is increasingly affect the research in Western countries and contribute to new theory within the broader international tourism domain (Keating, Huang, Kriz, & Heung, 2015). Chinese outbound tourists are also considered as the quickly growing and sophisticated group (Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline, & Wang, 2011). In the most recent five years, many authorities and the hospitality related industries have been paying more attention to the Chinese market. They would like to know the existing and potential customer behaviors and what kind of benefits their customers were looking for. In addition, it is also significantly helpful to understand their target customers’ major concerns and expectations for travel so that they can best position themselves to capture a share of the opportunity.

Numerous researchers have investigated unique Chinese traveler behaviors and their impacts on the tourism business. For instance, Li et al. (2011) identified that respectfulness, service quality, and cultural understanding as Chinese travelers’ priority when it comes to consider important factors for overall satisfaction. In terms of activities, taking pictures and videos, sightseeing in cities, and dining inexpensively were noted to be the three most frequent activities for the Chinese family travelers (Lehto, Fu, Li, & Zhou, 2013). Like western senior travelers, Chinese senior travelers enjoy relaxation, resting, and visiting museums and historical sites (Chen & Gassner, 2012; Huang & Tsai, 2003). For the Chinese leisure travelers, tour guide service is considered the most significant factor that could determine their satisfaction (Chan, Hsu, & Baum, 2015).

Although increasing number of studies related to Chinese travelers were published and displayed growing diversity in research domain since 2012, there is great need for a systemically and comprehensive review to fully understand the scope of the current Chinese traveler related research. A critical review would be useful to find out the current status of research. Thus, this study aims to understand the trends in current research involving Chinese travelers and identify the research gaps between research efforts and industry practices. The findings of this paper not only reflect the current situation of Chinese traveler related research, but also provide academic insights for scholars and practitioners.

METHOD

A systematic review approach, content analysis, was undertaken in this study to provide a comprehensive and representative overview of current Chinese traveler research. In order to identify all studies related to Chinese travelers, a total number of five top-tier journals were chosen according to an updated ranking of international tourism and hospitality journals (Gursoy, & Sandstrom, 2016). They are International Journal of Hospitality Management (IJHM), Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research (JHTR), Cornell Hospitality Quarterly (CQ), Annals of Tourism Research (ATR), and Tourism Management (TM).

The first step was a thorough search of relevant papers within each journal in October 2015, using the keyword “Chinese traveler”. The criteria of selecting process in this study is to find Chinese traveler related research on all types of target samples including outbound tourists and domestic tourists. Finally, a total of 105 articles
published in between 1997 and 2016 were included for this study.

The next step was to review each article by publication periods, research methods, and research domains using content analysis. In terms of research methods, each article was examined based on region of sample selection and data analytical methods (i.e. quantitative, qualitative, and mixed). In this study, the framework of research domain comprises of 9 categories, including: marketing, consumer behavior, information technology, service management, revenue management, strategy management, environmental issues, gaming management, and operation management.

**FINDINGS**

**Publication periods**

Among the 105 articles related to Chinese traveler research, 70 were published in the latest five years (i.e. 2012-2016), accounting for double the number of articles published before 2012 within the five journals, this clearly suggests an upward trend of research interest in Chinese traveler in recent years (see Figure 1). Within these five top-tier journals, IJHM has the largest percentage of publication (30.5%), followed by TM (23.8%), and JHTR (17.1%). Considering the total number of publications in these journals, the increasing in percentage term shows that the topic related to Chinese traveler has gained much more attention from researchers and industry practitioners. For example, Chinese traveler related research comprised 2.22% in 2013, 5.49% in 2014, and 8.78% in 2015 of all publications in *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, up from 0.01% in 2011, and 0.64% in 2012. According to previous content analysis studies, the IJHM was considered as a benchmark of excellence when evaluating hospitality journals for their content (Baloglu & Assante, 1999; Crawford-Welch & McCleary, 1992; Frechtling, 2004). So the current popularity and future trends in hospitality studies, especially Chinese traveler related research can be shown from this tendency.

![Figure 1. Distribution of articles by publication years](image)

**Research methods**

To better understand the methodological applications for Chinese traveler related studies, research methods that each article used were analyzed in this paper. As the mainstreaming methods for Chinese traveler research shown in Figure 2, quantitative method (69, 65.7%) remains the most dominant, followed by mixed method (19 articles) and qualitative method (17 articles). With the rapid development of China’s tourism industry, more studies adopted a mixed method in recent years for improving generalization of research results (see Table 1). Apparently, the mixed method used in Chinese traveler related research has been emerging after the year of 2010.
In terms of data analysis and statistical techniques, the most popular method was factor analysis (46 articles), followed by structural equation modeling (24 articles), and ANOVA (22 articles). Furthermore, in identifying the regions for Chinese traveler research, majority of the analyzed studies collected data from Mainland China (32%) and Hong Kong (28%). Specifically, over half (56%) of the studies which collected data in mainland China were from the three tier-one cities, namely Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou.

**Research domain and trends**

Marketing was the most popular research domain with 83 articles (79%), followed by information technology with 12 articles (11.4%) and strategy management with 6 articles (5.7%). However, only a few studies focused on revenue management (2 articles, 2%) and strategy management (2, 2%), which could be in contrast to the actual industry demand. But regarding the most popular domain which was found in this study, as the great competition process in the hospitality industry grows, it is not surprising that marketing research area is gaining considerable attention from scholars and industry practitioners. As Figure 3 represents, there are several Sub Categories within the marketing domain, including consumer behavior (49 articles, 59%), lodging marketing (24.1%), e-marketing (18.1%), and destination marketing (13.3%). However, a lack of restaurant marketing and entertainment marketing (especially Casino related) is noted as well. Although gambling is still controversial in many countries, the gaming industry is growing rapidly and gaining more opportunities (Lee et al, 2006).
CONCLUSION

The results of content analysis have presented an updated review of current Chinese traveler related research based on a total of 105 articles published in the five top-tier journals. Since hospitality and tourism industry are developing field, it is important to know how the field improved in terms of research method and research domain. Although there is a strong evidence of the increasing tendency in Chinese traveler research, the findings suggest an uneven distribution of articles published within each research domain. For research domains, this study suggests an increasing trend in Chinese traveler research publications, especially in marketing area, within the past five years. Due to the current development in lodging operations and information technology in the region, it is highly suggested to investigate these areas for future research domains.

Regarding findings on methodology, the increase in diversification and sophistication of research methods used are indicators of the current research situation in hospitality and tourism industry. It is easier to summarize and analyze the data by using quantitative method, while the mixed method can reduce limitations by using the single approach (Creswell et al, 2003). Therefore, more sophisticated methods should be encouraged to better understand the research topics and conduct thorough discussion to both scholars and industry practitioners. Findings on methodology also showed that only 3 articles selected their samples as outbound destinations such as the United States and Australia. Since Chinese outbound travelers are growing quickly and becoming more sophisticated, research dealing with diverse destinations are needed.

The gaps identified in this study—such as the uneven distribution of published articles in different domain, and in terms of uneven sample collection—should be addressed in future research endeavors. The majority of Chinese traveler related studies focus on marketing especially consumer behavior is probably because we have so many hospitality-major professors came from China or they were interested in the hospitality marketing research area. It is not surprising that hospitality marketing research has been growing continually and attracted numerous researchers to provide the current research situation in this area (Yoo, Lee, & Bai, 2011). However, collaboration among different sub-categories of marketing area would be beneficial for a richer understanding of Chinese traveler related research. Also, considering that China has become one of the most important market sources in the world, it is believed that China’s outbound tourism market has great potentialities to expand in the future (Lai et al, 2013), understanding the needs of Chinese travelers is significantly
practical for hospitality industry practitioners. Hence, to illustrate the needs of Chinese traveler, I would like to encourage researchers to look at more opportunities in other attractive research areas such as gaming management, revenue management practices, hospitality asset management, and human resources management since practitioners have many operational issues in the current market. Although marketing and consumer behavior tend to be the main stream of Chinese traveler related research, it is also worth to know how the entire hospitality industry respond to Chinese travelers in these other booming areas. So it will give industry practitioners insights to come up with more effective strategies to grab more Chinese travelers based on the consumer behavior research.

On the other hand, for the sampling selection, results of this study indicate that the limited sample source of regions may not accurately reflect the entire Chinese tourism industry. Analyzing different geographical coverage is necessary since regional diversity is an unusual characteristic of economy and tourism development in China. Therefore, to enhance the external validity, further research could provide more comprehensive results by expanding the sources of sample collection.

This study has several limitations. First, the study has only reviewed five top-tier tourism/hospitality journals. It would be worthwhile to include more journals to fully understand the research trends. Second, considering the multi-disciplinary feature of hospitality and tourism research, it is better to classify the research domain more specifically to make it more convince for future studies. Last, due to the process in which the information stages were developed for the study, there is a disparity in comparative research between Chinese travelers and international travelers from other various countries. It would be more comprehensive to include a horizontal comparison to identify which are the most researched fields for international travelers’ studies since this is the least studied topic by Chinese traveler researchers.

REFERENCES


BUSINESS CASE FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM:
SUPPORTING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT
THROUGH IMPROVED BUSINESS PERFORMANCE

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INTRODUCTION

Timely generated data provides policy makers, businesses and relevant stakeholders with evidences for responsible policy making and destination management decisions to secure more sustainable and competitive tourism growth. Tourism observatories play a fundamental role in providing consistent and coherent data to monitor tourism development impacts. This data also improves methodological and technical measurement references for sustainable tourism, helps to raise awareness and support capacity building efforts in sustainability issues among tourism stakeholders and local community (UNWTO, 2015b).

The study seeks to fill a gap in the academic thought on the tourism observatories role in assisting tourism businesses to embed sustainability considerations in their activities and create innovative, more sustainable and competitive tourism products and services, that help to position a destination in national and international markets. The study proposes to adapt the Framework of Drivers of Sustainability and Financial Performance to increase benefits to local communities, enhance environmental and cultural resources preservation, minimize potential negative tourism impacts, and create resilient and functioning environment for sustainable tourism growth that contributes to overall sustainable development. The paper also explains how more proactive tourism observatories role and enhanced inter-stakeholders cooperation allows improving the existing methodological references given the increased data and information flows from business and policy makers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

With the number of tourists surpassing 1 billion in December 2012, recently tourism has become one the fastest growing industries and important source of employment and foreign exchange for numerous developed and developing countries alike (UNWTO, 2015a, 2015c). The increasing number of domestic and international tourists supports economic growth through increased employment opportunities and income creation for local communities. On the other hand, the exponential tourism development places significant pressures on environmental and socio-economic resources at destinations. Favorable environments enforced by properly designed and adequate policy instruments and frameworks are essential to rip off the positive benefits of tourism growth and mitigate potential negative impacts aiming for sustainable tourism development.

Achieving sustainability at a destination level is a continuous process that requires to integration and measurement of extensive number of concepts that range across all three sustainability dimensions. Scientific literature suggests variety of methods that are being used to measure tourism impacts in terms of sustainability on a territory or a destination. Among the most widely applied methods are Input-Output Analysis (Lenzen, Murray, Korte, & Dey, 2003; Munday, Turner, & Jones, 2013; Wiedmann, 2009), Economic Accounting (Grêt-Regamey & Kytzia, 2007; Wagner, 1997), Simulation Modeling (Huybers, 2003; Song & Li, 2008; Xu, Yao, & Mo, 2011), Multi-criteria Assessment (Chou, Hsu, & Chen, 2008; Schianetz, Kavanagh, & Lockington, 2007; Zografos & Ogletorpe, 2004), Life Cycle Analysis (Castellani & Sala, 2012; Filimonau, Dickinson, Robbins, &
Reddy, 2011; Tooman, 1997), Stakeholder Analysis (Presenza & Cipollina, 2010; Timur & Getz, 2008), Computable General Equilibrium Model (Sugiyarto, Blake, & Sinclair, 2003; Zhou, Yanagida, Chakravorty, & Leung, 1997). Also, methods such as Quality of Life Analysis (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2010; Andereck, Valentine, Vogt, & Knopf, 2007) and Citizens' Jury (Álvarez-Farízo & Hanley, 2006; Sexton, Marcus, Easter, & Burkhardt, 1999) are commonly employed aiming to complement quantitative methods results by increasing citizens' participation and consensus-building in policy and decision-making processes.

On the other hand, despite the obvious fact that tourism substantially depends on environmental and socio-cultural factors, including natural, historic and cultural attractions, tourism is an economic sector that requires financial and human resources to function and provide economic and social benefits for tourism businesses owners and employees. Provided this usually primary objective of tourism business is not met, it can be hardly expected that such tourism activities would supply economic as well as social and environmental benefits for local communities. As societal pressures to incorporate sustainability issues increase, tourism businesses attempt to incorporate sustainability considerations in their operations. However, the existing measurement methods are too complex to be applied in tourism enterprises that are represented mostly by MSMEs globally (Eurostat, 2013; UNWTO, 2009).

However, the complexity of tourism as a multi-stakeholder and multi-sector system which is highly dependent on a certain context of a concrete territory makes any holistic measurement efforts significantly problematic. Some previous research suggests that no single measurement tool can sufficiently gauge economic, social and environmental effects at all levels and thus the combination of different methods is required (Schianetz et al., 2007). Therefore, tourism observatories becomes an essential player that could ensure that measurement across all three sustainability dimensions takes place in a destination.

**METHOD**

In order to fully understand and benefit from tourism observatories potential in fostering sustainable and resilient tourism development in a destination the study, firstly, focuses on tourism business role in embedding sustainability dimensions in their activities, and secondly the structure is proposed how the role of tourism observatories can be amplified to support tourism businesses efforts and policy makers in fostering tourism sustainability.

Given the existing limited financial and human resources, tourism businesses require a tool that would help them to include sustainability dimensions in their operations. A tool is expected to facilitate the understanding, measurement and analysis of sustainability dimensions in practice and it should be enough user-friendly and flexible to be employed by diverse of tourism businesses. Taking these considerations into account and in order to make tourism business more sustainable, the study suggests to adapt the Framework of Drivers of Sustainability and Financial Performance by Epstein and Roy (2001) (Figure 1).
The framework consists of five interlinked key areas, namely business strategy is connected to sustainability actions that are used to implement the strategy and then the drivers and causal relations are established for and with sustainability performance, stakeholders' reactions, long-term financial performance (Epstein & Roy, 2003, p. 81). Continuous lines indicate causal relationships, dotted line specify informational feedback, while arrows illustrates the direction of influence (ibid.). While originally the framework was developed to enhance sustainability actions in corporations by emphasizing that sustainability principles can significantly contribute to long-term profitability (Epstein & Roy, 2001, p. 586, 2003, p. 80), it can be easily adapted to any tourism businesses by adding relevant or removing unrelated items.

Essentially the proposed framework allows integrating sustainability principles into tourism businesses strategies by enabling managers to (1) quantify the linkage between social and environmental actions and financial performance when choosing between priorities and potential business options, (2) differentiate between intermediate results and financial outcomes, and (3) review business strategies and implement necessary adjustment according to stakeholders feedback to further enhance both long-term social and environmental performance, and economic benefits coming from business operations (Epstein & Roy, 2001, 2003). The adequate set of measures and proper metrics need to be developed to support framework as business managers could quantify how one variable influence on other variables in order to monitor and evaluate business performance in terms of financial objectives on one side and on sustainability issues on the other (Epstein & Roy, 2003, p. 83).

**FINDINGS**

The suggested framework for tourism businesses extends the function of tourism observatories. The study advocates that tourism observatories are necessary to be seen and analyzed as a part of the structure that involves four key actors, in particularly tourism observatories, tourism businesses, policy makers and community (Figure 2).
Arrow 1 indicates the flow of key performance data to tourism observatories. To enhance business incentives to provide timely and correct data, tourism observatories are suggested to extend their services to tourism business in the following ways. Firstly, more capacity development activities are proposed on how tourism businesses can apply and analyze the Framework of Drivers of Sustainability and Financial Performance to enhance their economic benefits in long-term by improving their environmental and socio-cultural sustainability. While the suggested framework is relative straightforward, tourism observatories can in efficient manner help businesses correctly interpreting relations with different stakeholders and business overall impact on sustainability in a destination. Secondly, furnishing tourism businesses with data on tourism trends, including changing tourists requirements, as well as upcoming policies can significantly increase tourism business adaptability and capacity to grow and innovate in response to these changes, that accordingly provides basis for more competitive and desired tourism products.

Arrow 2 illustrates relation between tourism observatories and policy makers. Tourism observatories provide coherent data that equip policy making processes with evidences that can improve tourism business performance and development and to secure more sustainable and competitive tourism growth in a destination. The other direction of the arrow indicates that both existing and new policy projects can be tested by tourism observatories based on their impact on tourism business and sustainability performance.

While arrow 3 shows how tourism businesses can transmit to policy makers what challenges business is facing and what amendments in current tourism policies could potentially improve environment for tourism business development, often this relation is implemented through tourism observatories (arrows 1 and 2), given the limited individual tourism business impact on policy making.

Finally arrow 4 demonstrates how involving local community members in decision-making processes, including those who are not represented by tourism businesses, can substantially improve socio-cultural sustainability of a destination as well as community satisfaction level in terms of tourism growth.

CONCLUSION

Measuring tourism impacts on overall sustainable development is a permanent process that requires to apply several methods simultaneously to ensure that holistic view of tourism performance and its effects on a destination are determined. As tourism businesses tend to lack sufficient capacity for such task, tourism observatories become indispensable.

The study suggests to extend tourism observatories role to its full potential by including additional functions. The broaden role is particularly related to the increased focus on assisting tourism businesses (1) to apply the adapted Framework of Drivers of Sustainability and Financial Performance that helps showcasing how tourism can be more profitable in long-term by becoming more
environmentally and socially sustainable, and (2) how tourism businesses can better adapt to changing tourism trends by enhancing their innovativeness. Testing of existing and policy projects is identified as a means to better evaluate their impact on tourism business and sustainability performance. More proactive tourism observatories role and enhanced inter-stakeholders cooperation allows improving the existing measuring methods given the increased data and information flows from businesses and policy makers.

The study acknowledges the need for further research on methods tourism observatories are currently using and their effectiveness to address sustainability and tourism development concerns and needs in concrete contexts and destinations.

By bringing sustainability closer to tourism businesses and emphasizing its benefits in long-term, the balance among three sustainability dimensions can be improved and maintained, fostering the tourism potential to contribute to sustainable development.

REFERENCES


STUDY ON NORDIC RESIDENTS’ PERCEPTION AND COGNITION OF BEIJING TOURISM IMAGE
-A CASE STUDY OF DENMARK AND NORWAY

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Tourism destination image (TDI) is the soul of the development of destination tourism, it can greatly affect tourists’ buying decisions, it is an important tool for forming the competitive advantage of a tourism destination market, and it is also a key factor on whether the tourism destination marketing methods can be carried out effectively or not. Tourism destination image is the best way to show tourist destination brand, it’s also a sustainable resource that can be used by tourism market. On the basis of the former research output in the world, this study did an empirical analysis of Beijing tourism image perception and cognition using Nordic residents as the research objectives.

The main conclusions of this study are: (1) Nordic residents’ perception on the overall image of Beijing tourism is not very good, but their perception of Beijing tourism resources is very good; (2) there is considerable correlation on the perception and cognition of Beijing tourism image between the potential tourists and the inbound tourists of Beijing, as a whole, inbound tourists’ perception is more active; (3) Beijing should improve their tourism overall image on the following aspects, the environment, visa, language, etc; (4) The tourism image of "Beautiful Beijing" and "Beautiful China" yet to be tested and to enrich.

The main innovation of this paper are: (1) define and distinguish the concept and connotation about the perception and cognition of tourism image (2) using quantitative research methods to analysis Beijing’s remote tourist generating region Nordic countries, making up the research blank of Beijing tourism image since inbound international market went down; (3) summarizing the development path of the Beijing tourism image, combining with the results of the empirical analysis to give proposal about Beijing inbound tourism development.

**Keywords:**
Beijing tourism image, tourism perception, tourism cognition, Nordic residents, inbound tourism
WHAT IS THE CHALLENGE OF TURKEY IN THE LGBT TOURISM? 
FROM THE PERCEPTIONS OF IGLTA

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years tourism literature has been focused on group of people, named in short LGBT (Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transsexual), which leads the emergence of LGBT tourism. LGBT tourism, is a kind of tourism including lesbian, gay, bisexual and transsexual tourists’ activities. This activities contain interaction between suppliers, managers, consumers of LGBT tourism product and service like other kinds of tourism (Southall and Fallon, 2011). The term LGBT tourism is used as a gay tourism which is commonly most accepted. In literature “gay tourism” is used both for men and women. Instead of “lesbian” term women are regarded as “gay women” and sometimes only as “gay”. In this study the authors prefer to use gay for man and lesbian for woman and their tourism activities as LGBT tourism.

LGBT tourism has recently started receiving attention as a field from tourism academician (Holcomb and Luongo, 1996; Clift and Forrest, 1999; Pritchard et al, 2000; Cox, 2001; Hughes, 20007; Poria, 2006; Southall and Fallon, 2011; Gonzalez et al, 2011) and most of these studies focus on only gay and tourism, despite little is regarding with lesbians (Hughes, 2007). Notwithstanding, authors don’t come across any study about bisexual and transsexual tourists. According to Hughes, it is because of gay’s economic power and socializing in bars and events more likely than lesbians (Hughes, 2007). Most of the studies in literature are regarded with gays and lesbians travel motivations, destination choices and sexual identity and its effect on holiday preferences (Clift & Forrest, 1999; Pritchard et al, 2000; Hughes, 2002a, 2002b; 2002c; Blichfeldt et al, 2011).

Besides academic studies, this new segment affects lots of company in the world and has led to emergence of some new kind of events, games, spaces and foundations in tourism market. One of them is IGLTA (International Gay and Lesbian Association) which offers individual, group, corporate, and student travelers the affiliates in the most popular locations in the world and helps tourists to get the best packages for a perfect getaway. It now operates in over 80 countries and all six inhabited continents. IGLTA’s mission is to demonstrate the significant social and economic impact of the LGBT tourism and thus create value for LGBT travelers and expand LGBT tourism globally (IGLTA, 2016).

It is clear that both academic and market sides of tourism focus on LGBT tourism and it is thought that it will take more attention in coming years. Therefore this study aims to make a research about Turkey’s challenge in LGBT tourism. In doing so, the authors collected the evaluations of travel agencies and hotels which are focus on LGBT tourism in Turkey. Also it is thought that it would be beneficial to make interview with IGLTA as a leading foundation in this field. Therefore the data was collected in December 2015, when IGLTA’s European Liable visited to Istanbul/Turkey to explore LGBT tourism potential. Deep interviews were made with IGLTA liable, travel agencies and hotels in TURKEY which especially were named as gay friendly and/or LGBT friendly to learn their evaluations about LGBT tourism challenge in Turkey. The most important finding is that: Beside the potential of Istanbul in general Turkey as culture, history, museums, cuisine, nightlife etc. there is a sense of Muslim country (as homophobic attitude) between gays and lesbians. So Turkey as destination should focus on promoting a safe environment for LGBT traveler.
METHOD

The study aims to make a research about challenge of Turkey in LGBT tourism. Against literature background of LGBT tourism, the central questions of this paper are what led to the emergence of LGBT tourism in Turkey, what is the key role of IGLTA in this process? And where is Turkey’s position in this perspective? To figure out these questions qualitative research methods were used as the population in the area is limited and in-dept. investigation is needed to identify individual perceptions of market. Because there aren’t lots of companies in Turkey which are focus on only LGBT tourism and there is only one leading company in the world specialized in this field.

To collect data, one of the most referred techniques in qualitative research, in depth face-to-face interview is used. The reasons that lay beyond the application of the technique is that; it enables the researcher to contact each visitor individually so that the response rate is expected to be higher and the perception of each participant may be explored in details. To ensure that all the dimensions of the research problematic are enclosed, structured interview approach is applied (Patton, 1990). The open-ended questions are composed in the light of the literature review and the data was collected in December, 2015. All the data gathered are exposed to “content analysis”.

FINDINGS

In consequence with the content analysis four main themes are determined;

a) LGBT Tourism in Turkey: Past – Today and Future Perceptions

b) Turkey and Gay Friendly Concept: Usefulness?

These themes are determined by referring to the mostly repeated words-in other words-codes- by the participants (interviewee).

CONCLUSION

From the findings and literature it is clear that LGBT tourism represents a significant growing market of tourism. But Western countries are well accepted more (Southall and Fallon, 2011) than Muslim countries like Turkey. Turkey has lots of opportunities for LGBT tourism, but these are limited by big cities and in big cities only some places because homophobia is a great problem in front of this. Therefore it is argued that at first it must be cleared; Turkey is a Muslim country but homosexuality is not forbidden in Turkey. Much more gay spaces can be created and gay friendly concept can be used more effective. But the most important step is to give a message of a safe country. Because according to previous studies safe environment is the most important motivation of LGBT tourists. IGLTA is a great opportunity for Tukey. More companies should develop their relations with IGLTA and can be a member of this foundation. To sum up Turkey has not a well perception of LGBT tourism but it is possible to get over this perception and create much more spaces and alternatives for LGBT tourism.

REFERENCES

THE USER-GENERATED CONTENT EVALUATIONS OF CHINESE RESTAURANTS IN TURKEY IN TERMS OF CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

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Soner Söyler
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INTRODUCTION

The restaurant industry has become one of the most profitable industries in the world. International and local restaurants are satisfying the demand of customers in variety of range of products and services (Sabir et al., 2014). Customers have distinguishable psychological responses to their consumption experience and these are the primary antecedents of customers’ attitudes or stated evaluations regarding their consumption experience or cumulative customer satisfaction. This satisfaction, in turn, influences customers’ behavioral intentions in the form of a predisposition to repurchase and consume the product or service again which brings customer loyalty (Johnson et al., 2001). While first-time guests may have general expectations, a repeat guest may have more specific expectations based on the past experience. On that account restaurants need to know that all guests, new or repeat, have certain expectations that drive their evaluation about the restaurant (Ford et al., 2012). So the success of the restaurant is dependant on the company’s ability to continually study customers’ expectations and respond to them by developing ways to avoid the problems in the future (Ford & Heaton, 2001). Because if a guest comes on a date or at a time when the organization for whatever reasons fails to meet expectations, for that guest the restaurant is no good or a major disappointment. As a result only one unfortunate incident can negatively influence the opinion of the guest and anyone the guest talks to both in person and virtually, through a web site posting, or social media site (Ford et al., 2011). Moreover, it is revealed that user-generated content is perceived as more trustworthy when compared to official tourism websites, travel agents and mass media advertising (Fotis et al., 2012).

The advent of the internet has brought about a word-of-mouth revolution. Through the internet, individuals can make their thoughts, opinions easily accessible to the global community of internet users (Dellarocas, 2003). It is accepted that one of the best developments on internet technology is Web 2.0 which creates an interactive communication and leads to the emergence of social networks. Social networks are online communities of people who communicate with each other with sharing their common interests and activities (Miguens et al., 2008). As mentioned, social network sites have a great effect on consumers more than any other media channels (Amis, 2007). Consumers prefer to use such recommendation websites because they are generally formed between consumers with similar interests. So consumers trust each others' opinions and they think that it is both relevant and unbiased than advertisements (Smith et al., 2007). User-generated contents are one of the most used social networks. A great number of travellers are using these social networks which have been composed by travel consumers rather than service providers (Gretzel et al., 2007).

The purpose of this study is to analyse the customers’ evaluations of Chinese restaurants in Turkey in terms of customer satisfaction. By running this study the travel advice website TripAdvisor is used as is enables its consumers to create their own contents and be a part of this process. TripAdvisor provides rankings for hotels, restaurants and visitor attractions around the world.
So it is thought that it would be beneficial to make analysis of this website as it has a wide variety of evaluations about Chinese restaurants in Turkey. It is clear that, in recent conditions, consumers’ expectations and demands can change easily, so to pursue and determine these changes should be great importance for tourism market especially with regard to ethnic restaurants. Consequently, the importance of the study comes off as it handles the consumers’ evaluations in terms of consumer satisfaction.

**METHOD**

User-generated content sites are chosen to collect data in this study to evaluate the Chinese restaurants running in Turkey in terms of customer satisfaction. In this context, due to its containing the maximum number of comments, travel web site -TripAdvisor- is determined as the data source of the study. Extracted data are evaluated in terms of the satisfaction level of customers and factors effecting the satisfaction are examined under four categories as "food", "service", "value" and "atmosphere". Frequencies of satisfaction and its components' are assessed and afterwards user comments are analyzed with content analysis method under these four categories. Within the scope of this research, 143 Chinese restaurants have been found in Turkey on TripAdvisor. To ensure the reliability and currency of comments only restaurants having more than 50 comments of last two years' -including the year of 2014- are analyzed and rest of the restaurants are subtracted from the list. As a result a total of 5681 comments belonging to 35 restaurants are analyzed to define the satisfaction levels of customers. In addition to the visitor ratings of these 35 restaurants, mean scores of four dimensions' are ranged in the study.

**FINDINGS**

The research is still in progress. According to the studies so far, findings are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Satisfaction Level of Customers towards Chinese Restaurants</th>
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<tr>
<td>Satisfactions level</td>
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<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
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<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
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<td>Average</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
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<td>Terrible</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<table>
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<th>Table 2. Distribution of the Chinese Restaurants by Location</th>
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<tr>
<td>Cities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Muğla</td>
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<td>Istanbul</td>
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<td>Aydın</td>
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<td>Antalya</td>
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<td>Ankara</td>
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<tr>
<td>Denizli</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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</tbody>
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E: Excellent, V: Very good, A: Average, P: Poor, T: Terrible

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<th>Table 3. Satisfaction Dimensions of Customers</th>
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<tr>
<td>Dimensions</td>
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<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
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<tr>
<td>Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>Value</td>
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<tr>
<td>Atmosphere</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Number of restaurants</strong></td>
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</table>
Findings of the user comments' content analysis
Due to the excessive amount of the comments and to being current, only last two years' comments were evaluated under the categories of "food", "service", "value" and "atmosphere". While analyzing the user comments one good and one bad example of comments are given below.

Food
"I go to this place often and I am always satisfied. I should have written about this place before the food and service is always good." (User 1)
"We decided to visit the buffet night at the restaurant and initially the selection seemed impressive to the eye but to the taste that was another story. The food was warm to cold and very salty. The dishes were never replenished which bothered me at first but after eating the food I think they did me a favour. This was the worst meal I have ever had." (User 2)

Service
"One of my favorites in Ankara. Ambiance is perfect. Service is super, starting from park valet to Teppanyaki table. Homemade noodle have to be tested. Sushi Chief Rober is a very special one, try Dragon Roll". (User 3)
"Although the food was okay for the price - £9 per person, should have known by how cheap it is - a little over six hours later I was vomiting... and the rest!! I ate chicken and beef and something did not lie right on my stomach. Wouldn't risk eating here again." (User 4)

Value
"We visited this restaurant during our recent trip to Izmir and were absolutely delighted with our choice. Both the good and staff were first class and would definitely use it again. It is situated in a side street next to the Hilton Hotel and would quite easily be hard to find, but if you want a nice Chinese restaurant this is the place to go." (User 5)
"China Town Restaurant was not the best I have ever had in fact, I would say it was one of the worst I have had. We had a buffet meal, eat as much as you want. Well we all had one plate each and left most of it, say no more." (User 6)

Atmosphere
"Food was fabulous, atmosphere was brilliant and all the staff could not do enough for you. Will be back in the Gumbet area in June and will definitely return as had such a great time. Thanks to all." (User 7)
"Not worth a visit. The place was dead at 8pm on a Saturday night, says it all really... It was meant to be a buffet but there was only a choice of about 3 different dishes! The beef and black bean sauce was average at best and the rice was mushy and sticky so had to settle for the cold soggy chips instead. Had the runs the next day also. Pleasant staff although a waste of money. Avoid!" (User 8)

CONCLUSION

To sum up, 35 Chinese restaurants and 5681 related comments are examined in this study. According to the results, most of the restaurants take place in the cities of Muğla and Istanbul. With regard to the results, it is clear that the Chinese restaurants which are in Istanbul and Ankara, are preferred mostly by Turkish customers. On the other hand, the restaurants which are in Muğla, Antalya, Aydın and Denizli cities are preferred by foreign customers owing to their being in touristic destinations. As to the obtained results of dimensions given above it can be said that most of the customers are satisfied with the Chinese restaurants in Turkey in terms of food, service, value and atmosphere.

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ANALYZING THE EFFECT OF SATISFACTION DURING DIFFERENT TRAVEL STAGES

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INTRODUCTION

For Tourism industry the increasing competition and economic recession are all warning the practitioners about the importance of the customer satisfaction. Overall customer satisfaction influences the choice of destination, the consumption of products and service, also the decision to return. So the customer satisfaction is essential for the tourism industry to survival in the future. Intention to repurchase or recommended to others, and how the leisure travel contribute to tourists’ psychological wellness have been measured through a range of researches, but many studies examined areas like lodging (Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992; Karatepe 2006; Saleh and Ryan 1991), foodservice (Almanza, Jaffe and Lin 1994), restaurant management (Andaleeb and Conway 2006; Bohonic and Rosen 1994; Dube, Renaghan and Miller 1994; Gursoy et al. 2003) and tourism (Pizam and Milman 1993). As the hospitality and tourism experience is affected by various factors, the past studies mainly focus on the satisfaction after travelling and various kinds of hospitality settings at the destination, or the one aspect of the service experience at one point. This study attempts to explore the key elements of travelling such as service, efficiency and cost, and aims to integrate the overall tourist’s satisfaction during different travel stages. According to Clawson and Knetch, travel experience is divided into five phases. The first phase consists of anticipation and planning; second is the travel to the actual site; the third phase includes the on-site experience; the fourth phase is the travel back home from the site; finally is a period of recollection that takes place once the participant has returned home. Mercer (1971) contended that anticipation and recollection, the first and last stages are the most pertinent in determining a tourist’s felt satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the destination vacation experience.

Leiper (1990) also looked at tourism as a whole system. In very basic terms, according to Leiper, every tourism system involves at least one tourist, therefore, the consumer is the most important element. And provides support for the idea that tourism satisfaction should be studied as a systems process and that several stages of the travel process contribute to the traveler’s customer satisfaction. According to Leiper’s study, travel experience are usually divided into 3 region. The first region is the person’s home region, which Pre-trip planning takes place. The second region is the destination region where most travel activities were involved. The third region is the transit route. Base on the theory of Leiper, an integrated conceptual framework is designed to measure the potential relationship among tourism satisfaction in mainly three stages, which influence overall satisfaction resulting into travelers’ word-of mouth and revisit intention.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism Satisfaction

Oliver (1997), defined satisfaction as “the consumer’s fulfillment response” and “a judgment that a product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment” Satisfaction has also been considered cognitively as a post consumption evaluation through the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm (Oliver,1980), and affectively as an emotional response to a consumption experience (Spreng, MacKenzie, & Olshavsky, 1996). Although customer satisfaction is one of the most basic topic in marketing, it also one of the most frequently examined concept in the hospitality and tourism industry, for Satisfaction is an essential element for maintaining long-term relationships with customers. Many tourist satisfaction researchers employed different model or theory to examine
satisfaction. The expectation-disconfirmation model (Oliver 1980) suggests that consumers develop expectations about a product before purchasing. Oliver and Swan (1989) argued that consumer satisfaction is the result of the relationship between the costs associated with the purchase including price, time and effort and the rewards (benefits) they anticipate. Many studies had been conducted to measure consumer satisfaction, measuring the perception of individuals is difficult at best. For satisfaction started long before tourists were at destination. The experience involved mainly three phases, Pre-trip, at the destination and return trip service. Pre-trip service will influence the destination choice. Than the satisfaction with services at the destination and satisfaction with transit route service may result into travelers’ Word-of-Mouth and revisit intention.

Service

Tourism services are intangible and that is why at many times the service providers find it hard to satisfy all the people who purchase tourism services. Services are deeds, processes and performances provided by one entity or person for another entity or person (Zeithaml, Bitner,& Gremler, 2009). One characteristic of services is intangibility, this characteristic brings unique features to tourism products and also has a major impact on the satisfaction and dissatisfaction of tourists. First for Pre-trip stage, information the most important role, it usually focuses on path, schedule, arrival time, delay, exchange, and other useful multi-channel information between origin and destination. So in order to achieve the satisfaction of the customer at this stage, it requires the real-time transit operations and includes updates on delays, incidents, and service diversions along transit routes, as well as estimated vehicle arrival and departure times for stops along the routes to be used for user-tailored path advice. According to Reid & Bojanic, 2010 the hospitality marketing mix should contain a product-service mix, a combination of all the products and services including both tangible and intangible elements. For the and then according to Middleton & Clarke, 2001, the destination elements include:

- Natural attractions: landscapes, seascapes, beaches, climate, flora and fauna and other geographical features of the destination and its natural resources;

- Built attractions: buildings and tourism infrastructure including historic and modern architecture, monuments, promenades, parks and gardens;

- Cultural attractions: history and folklore, religion and art, theatre, music, dance and other entertainment, and museums;

- Social attractions: way of life and customs of resident or host population, language and opportunities for social encounters.”

Efficiency

Efficiency has a large, comprehensive content, referring to the use of all categories of resources: natural, human, material, financial, to all activity components: production, marketing, service, to their quantitative and qualitative aspects, economic and social, direct and indirect. Efficiency in tourism has many facets and is expressed in a wide range of indicators, trying to capture the complexity of the activity, the results achieved at the level of each component or process transportation, accommodation, food, recreation, domestic tourism, international tourism and of the field as a whole, the economic and social side, and the direct and indirect effects. Efficiency evaluation in the tourism industry has received considerable attention in the literature (Assaf, 2010; Chen, 2007; Köksal & Aksu, 2007; Tyrrell & Johnston, 2001; Zhou,Huang,& Hsu, 2008).

Cost

In the increasingly fierce competition situation, the managers attention began to focus on more quality, even if the cost is higher, because the weight of the factors in the achieving the growth of performance. Therefore, the focus of management researchers gradually changed into cost and quality, and further provides quality assurance services required by tourists. At the same time The Company’s work must be carried out in a constant balance of payments. Entities must have an information system that can measure performance through the management control organization, based on same management techniques. For example, Organization and operation of the lowest cost of a coherent information system adapted processes of analysis and synthesis, a cost-volume-profit (CVP) is a very useful management tool in analyzing the performance of organizations by establishing break-even analysis of vulnerability to risk factors that
surround and sensitivity analysis useful for decision making. Cost-Volume-Profit is a profit forecasting model that studies the relationships that exist between several factors: service fees, volume or level of activity, unit variable cost, and total fixed cost structure of tourism benefits.

**Word-of-Mouth**

Word-of-mouth is an important concept for business, and has been widely researched particularly since the worldwide adoption of Internet technologies, which have revolutionized the distribution and influence of WOM (Goldenberg, Libai, & Muller, 2001; Stokes & Lomax, 2002). Through the Internet, individuals can make their ideas and opinions more easily accessible to other Internet users (Dellarocas, 2003). In this way the effect of WOM has been further enhanced in the form of electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM). The main differences between WOM and eWOM can be identified in the reach of the reviews’ impact (number of people who can be influenced) and the speed of interaction. With regard to this comparison, Sun et al. (2006) conclude that “compared to traditional WOM, online WOM is more influential due to its speed, convenience, one to many reach, and its absence of face-to-face human pressure.” Schiffrman and Kanuk (2000) describe additional reasons for consumer attention to WOM and eWOM as follows: “The expectation of receiving information that may decrease decision time and effort and or contribute to the achievement of a more satisfying decision out-come.” Online user-generated content about travel destinations, hotels, and tourism services have become important sources of information for travelers (Pan, MacLaurin, & Crotts, 2007). So for the tourism participants, customers ‘word-of-mouth which influenced by overall satisfaction draw detailed attention to the satisfaction of different travel stages.

**Revisit intention**

Warshaw and Davis (1985) defined behavioral intentions as “the degree to which a person has formulated conscious plans to perform or not perform some specified future behavior.” That is, intention to perform a behavior is the proximal cause of such a behavior (Shim, Eastlick, Lotz, & Warrington, 2001). The growing interest in destination competitiveness has focused on the definition and description of a destination product, and on how the tourist perceives the relative values. It is proposed that a better understanding of the antecedents and determinants of perceived value would be beneficial to tourism providers, as they want to understand the decision making behavior. As for the tourism industry, the experience of all the travel stages will have an effect of the overall satisfaction, perceived value during the travel, and past behavior will influence the revisit intention. Intention to revisit a tourism destination has been defined as an individual’s readiness or willingness to make a repeat visit to the same destination, providing the most accurate prediction of a decision to revisit, e.g. purchase of a vacation package to the same destination (Han & Kim, 2010). Cole and Scott (2004) considered it to be the desire to visit, in a specific timeframe, a prior destination for a second time. Similar to the customer relationship management it is better to attract visitors to come back than to look for new visitors. This study managed to see the relationship between satisfactions and revisit intention.

**A PROPOSED HYPOTHETICAL MODEL**

After reviewing the literature of tourism satisfaction, service, efficiency, cost, Word-of-Mouth, and revisit intention, a hypothetical model is proposed to study the tourist word-of-mouth and revisit intention based on Leiper’s (1990) system model. Few have attempted to examine how satisfaction with various aspects of the trip affects tourist satisfaction. Such as those conducted by Bartlett and Einert (1992) and Vaske, Donnelly and Williamson (1991), have sought to measure leisure satisfaction based exclusively on instrumental attributes (e.g., lighting, fencing, restrooms, shade); again focus only on the event, attraction, or recreational event. Similarly, Wakefield, Smith, Racine-Poon et al. (1994) found that, in relation to major league baseball stadiums, the customer’s opinion of service facilities (during the event) affects her or his satisfaction with the service rendered, rating of service quality. In this study the approach focus on three travel phases and provide a more systemic way to measure how the tourist satisfaction will influence their word-of-mouth and revisit intention. The following hypotheses were proposed in this study.

H1: Satisfaction with Pre-trip service will positively affect satisfaction with overall tourism service
H2: Satisfaction with services at the destination will positively affect satisfaction with overall tourism service.

H3: Satisfaction with transit route service will positively affect satisfaction with overall tourism service.

Customer satisfaction is a post-purchase experience based on customers’ evaluations of provider’s performance (Bitner and Hubbert, 1994; Oliver, 2010). A number of service industry studies have shown that customers have strong revisit intentions if they are satisfied with a given service (e.g. Han et al., 2009; Heunget al., 2002; Hui et al., 2007; Petrick, 2002). Researchers in tourism and hospitality have also confirmed that tourist satisfaction positively affects recommendation and revisit intentions with regard to a particular a tourism service (Choi and Chu, 2001; Lee et al., 2007; Rittichainuwat et al., 2002; Wu and Liang, 2009). The following hypotheses were formulated based on the Satisfaction with overall tourism service

H4: Satisfaction with overall tourism service will positively affect tourist Word-of-Mouth

H5: Satisfaction with overall tourism service will positively affect tourist revisit intention

### Discussion

This paper examine the theoretical concepts of tourism satisfaction during three travel stages and their relationship to the Satisfaction with overall tourism service, and how they influence the tourist word-of-mouth and revisit intention. The results show that the tourism and tourism experience is a hybrid experience. This means that the tourism experience happened in different stage and passenger take services from a number of existing organizations. The satisfaction or dissatisfaction of tourists is affected by the service organizations that determine their overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Hybrid travel experience shows that the products are deconstructed products because they use different products from individual business. Usually, the product is deconstruction by traveler, travel agencies, or companies from a number of alternatives that are selected by some other entities through the selection of specific processes. Ideally, every service will be a value-added service or a value-added experience. However, some individual companies may not be able to provide satisfactory commitment to service. Those who are not satisfied with the experience may prevent the total value of the hybrid travel and tourism product. Therefore, this may reduce the total value of tourism and travel experience, and may reduce overall satisfaction. The proposed hypothetical model is developed to seek the further influence of the tourist satisfaction. In recent years Macau has been an international tourism destination for people all over the world, a systematic analysis of the satisfaction with overall tourism service, will help Macau tourism participators to know the key factors of the tourism satisfaction in different travel phases. A better understanding of tourist satisfaction will benefit in improving their product and service to draw more tourists back. The proposed hypothetical model is still in early stage of development, more qualitative and quantitative research need to be done to revise the model.
REFERENCE


STUDY ON RELATIONSHIPS AMONG WORKPLACE SOCIAL SUPPORT, EMOTIONAL LABOUR AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT WITH HOSPITALITY EMPLOYEES

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INTRODUCTION

When the scroll of human history expands by the year of 2016, it’s hardly queer of people who are convinced that modern economy relies heavily on service industries rather than manufacturing given their rich experience of service consumption in every aspect of life. Comparing with traditional manufacturing, service involves with substantial interaction with customers. In fact, the process of interaction per se is a significant element of composing the service product and therefore interaction between service providers and customers may be taken as part of the “manufacturing” process of service product. Just like manufacturing factories use diverse rules to control workers’ way of making goods, service companies apply explicit or implicit “display rules” to guide their employees’ emotional displaying during the “manufacturing process”---interaction with customers---of organizational products (Ekman, 1973). For instance, employees of a hotel would be demanded to show friendless and enthusiasm at any time, even when they are actually unhappy or when the customer is rude and importunate. Likewise, funeral-serving staff are expected to show sympathy and solicitude and suppress their own happiness or apathy. Although quite different or even opposite, both employees of hospitality and funeral services need to do some organizationally expected emotional work so as to meet their job requirements, hence doing extra “emotional labor” beyond physical and mental labor (Hochschild, 1983). Given emotional labor is about displaying emotions required by a second party rather than expressing the individual’s natural feelings, it’s no surprise for us to find discrepancy between the two and therefore necessity for emotion-regulating strategies. Ever since the emergence of the construct of emotional labor, studies on how its mechanisms working and both factors influence and be influenced by emotional labor flourished. For consequences, variables like burnout, job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion are mostly studied. Organizational commitment as a variable which attracted much attention from both scholars and practitioners, has also ever been studied as a consequence of emotional labor, but the results are mixed (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008; Rathi et al., 2013). For the other thing, antecedents of emotional labor, generally can be classified into three main categories: individual variables, organizational variables, and context variables (Grandey, 2000). This paper as another study on emotional labor, also involves with exploring relationships between emotional labor and its antecedents and consequences --- inwhere for the former I choose perceived workplace social support and for the later I choose organizational commitment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotional labour is certainly a kind of emotional work, but it’s definitely different from “emotion work”--a term introduced also by Hochschild (1979). People generally understand emotion work as an art of trying to change the degree or quality of an emotion or feeling (Ferraro, 1993), but actually emotion work happens only within private context and not for money. Emotional labour, on the contrary, happens within work settings, and only for the sake of salary. For the moment, there are two most
commonly accepted emotional regulating strategies: surface acting and deep acting. The former “involves simulating emotions that are not actually felt, which is accomplished by careful presentation of verbal and nonverbal cues, such as facial expression, gestures, and voice tone” (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Given that people’s genuine feelings keep unchanged even if they ostensibly displayed unfelt emotions or suppressed feelings in conflict with organizational expectation (Grandey, 2003), surface acting was taken as “acting in bad faith” (Grandey, 2002). On the other hand, deep acting is a process of regulating genuine feelings to be in line with expected emotions (Hochschild, 1983; Groth et al., 2009), which realized through either exhorting feelings or trained imagination (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Trained imagination is, according to the description of Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), a method with which one “actively invokes thoughts, images, and memories to induce the associated emotion”. Obviously, trained imagination seems very similar with method-acting: a process involves stimulating self-induced true feelings with help of past emotional memories or emotional experiences (Stanislawski, 1965). In fact, the term of “surface acting” and “deep acting” originated from the inspiration of dramaturgical theory (Grove & Fisk, 1992).

Workplace social support, as its name suggests, is social support employees got in the workplace. Generally there are many sources of social support: friend, family, lover, pet, etc., but when the confine limited to the workplace, supervisor and coworker become the only left sources. Actually, McCalister et al. (2006) even take workplace social support as individual perception of the availability of supervisor support and coworker support in workplace.

Supervisor support, according to Burke et al. (1992), refers to employees’ perception of the extent to which supervisors offered them concern, support and encouragement. Generally people with supervisor support feel they have more resources required for problem solving when getting into troubles (McCalister et al., 2006), hence show lower job stress perception (Cummins, 1990; Steinhardt et al., 2003; Schirmer & Lopez, 2001), higher job satisfaction (Poulin & Walter, 1992), and improved other work outcomes. Similarly, coworker support is “the extent to which employees’ believes their coworkers are willing to provide them with work related assistance to aid in the execution of their service-based duties” (Susskind et al., 2003). For service industry employees, coworkers are definitely important social exchange partners in work, and the influence of coworker support on employees become increasingly prominent in recent years as more and more organizations shifting job content to collective (usually more complicated) tasks and adopting teamwork-demanding practices (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). Generally employees with coworker support can solve various work problems in a better way, also their job stress (Revicki et al., 1993; Lait & Wallace, 2002) and turnover intention (Ng & Sorensen, 2008) will be lower, while job satisfaction, engagement, and organizational commitment higher (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Paulin et al., 2006), than those who perceive less coworker support.

Organizational commitment is an extensively studied construct with many versions of conceptualization and measurement among which the one from Allen and Meyer (1990) won general reception. In their thought-provoking paper, the two scholars discussed the three general themes of attitudinal commitment, i.e. affective attachment, perceived costs, and obligation, and then proposed the three-component (affective, continuance and normative commitment) conceptualization of organizational commitment. Also, they developed scales for each one of those dimensions, which later used and tested by worldwide researchers.

Researches exploring relationships between any two variables of emotional labour, workplace social support, and organizational commitment seem severely insufficient when comparing with abundant studies which belong to any one of those three respective research fields. Hence, this research will focus on interrelationships among those three variables so as to better understand service industry employee attitude and behavior, and my research proposition goes like this: workplace social support will influence employees’ emotional labour and their organizational commitment, also, emotional labour itself have an influence on employee’s organizational commitment.
Respondents and Procedure

Respondents of this paper were 200 full-time employees from various types of hotel in the city of Shanghai and Qingdao. Hotel types were considered for the sake of understanding employees who work with customers from all classes and various work requirements (employees of 5-star hotels generally work with upper class people, and the hotel has meticulous division of labor, while workers of hostels generally work with customers with a lower income, and they have to undertake multiple tasks in most cases). Most respondents were frontline employees, who made up 80.5% of the whole sample. Supervisors and managers accounted for 13% and 6.5% of all the respondents, respectively. Furthermore, respondents were recruited from different departments to guarantee all kinds of “people work”. The largest category was from front office, with 94 respondents making up 47% of the sample. The second one was from department of food and beverage with 46 respondents, and housekeeping followed as the third group with 28 cases. The rest were distributed to departments of sales (7%), security (6%), purchasing (1.5%) and engineering (1%), etc. In addition, 115 respondents among the whole 200-cases sample were female, and the rest 85 were accordingly male. The modest gender proportion gap is in line with the objective reality, for it is pretty clear that there are more, but not that much, female employees than males in hospitality of China. When regarding education level of the respondents, 19.0% of them were found to have high school education, and 41.5% with associate degree, 33.5% with bachelor’s degree, 3.5% with master’s degree or higher education. Only 2.5% received junior secondary or lower education. In general, the labor force of China hospitality is rather young, and the phenomenon was reflected in the sample with an average age of 24.57. Situation of marital status of the respondents matched their average age. There were 82.5% single worker and 16.5% married, and the rest 1% belonged to neither the single group nor the married flock. Average tenure for the sample was about 1.88 years, a seemingly short time, but actually approximates the real facts in consideration of high turnover of the industry.

Questionnaires were issued and collected with help of several graduate students who majored in Tourism Management. Each one of them was given an explanation on emotional labor, as well as interpretation of items of the different scales, so they may play a supporting role in case that respondent need help to understand the survey.

Instruments

Supervisor Support and Coworker Support. Scale of both supervisor support and coworker support are adapted from O’Driscoll et al. (2004) with changing the statements from describing enacted support to perceived support. In detail, there are 4 items for each scale and those statements measured informational, emotional, feedback, and instrumental support, respectively. Respondents will be asked to indicate their extent of agreement with those statements by choosing a number from 1 to 5 where 1 equals “strongly disagree” and 5 equals “strongly agree”.

Emotional Strategies.

Scales developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005) were used in this study to measure surface acting, deep acting and expression of naturally felt emotions. For surface acting, there were 7 items: five adapted from the Surface Acting Scale of Grandey (2003) and two adapted from Kruml and Geddes’ (2000) emotive dissonance scale. A sample item was, “I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.” For deep acting, there were 4 items: three adapted from Grandey’s (2003) deep acting scale, and one from the Emotive Effort Scale of Kruml and Geddes (2000). A sample item was, “I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.” The scale for expression of naturally felt emotions consisted of 3 items: two developed by Diefendorff et al. (2005) themselves and one adapted from Kruml and Geddes (2000). A sample item for this scale was, “The emotions I show customers match what I spontaneously feel.” Similarly, a 5-point Likert scale was used to indicate the extent to which statements match respondents’ real behavior.

Organizational Commitment.

Considering the Organizational Commitment
Scale which developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) has been widely used and tested to be stable and applicable, the present study will measure organizational commitment by directly using the Organizational Commitment Scale. Respondents will be asked to indicate their extent of agreement with statements by choosing a number from 1 to 5 where 1 equals “strongly disagree” and 5 equals “strongly agree”.

FINDINGS

The objective of the present study is to explore relationship between workplace social support and organizational support, and examine if emotional labor plays a role of mediator between the two. Specifically, there are two independent variables --- supervisor support and coworker support, the dependent variable is affective commitment and the mediators are surface acting, deep acting, and automatic regulating, respectively. Given backdrop information above, I now show the findings as below:

Relationship between independent variables and dependent variable.

On one hand, supervisor support was found to be negatively related with affective commitment, but this relation is not significant. On the other hand, coworker support can significantly influence affective commitment in a positive way. Given the fact that coworkers work together for the whole working day and the nonexistence of hierocracy gap among them, it is reasonable to understand that coworker contributes to employee’s affective attachment to the organization. As for the negative effect of supervisor support, it may be explained by the nature of the support --- although support out of a true heart certainly will move people and trigger their tender affection, task-oriented support may be perceived too utilitarian and lack of human touch. When supervisors provide employees support only for tasks, it is likely to result in the emergence of resistant mind and therefore negatively affect employee’s affective attachment for the organization.

Both supervisor support and coworker support are negatively related with surface acting and positively related with deep acting and automatic regulating. However, give that p values are bigger than 0.05, all the above relationships are not significant.

Relationship between mediators and dependent variables.

Both surface acting and automatic regulating were found to be in significant negative relation with affective commitment. Deep acting, however, can positively but not significantly, predict affective commitment.

Mediation effect of mediators.

While the total indirect effect of emotional labor and specific indirect effect of surface acting and deep acting are not significant in the relationship between supervisor support and affective commitment, automatic regulating did play a significant mediator role, and both contrast indirect effect between surface acting and automatic regulating, and between deep acting and automatic regulating, are proved significant. In a similar vein, when examine relationship between coworker support and affective commitment, it was found that the total indirect effect and specific indirect effect of surface acting and deep acting insignificant, but specific indirect effect of automatic regulating and contrast indirect effect between deep acting and automatic regulating were proved to be significant.

CONCLUSION

Logically and intuitively, people tend to believe that support will harvest affection for return. But as this paper indicated, support can, if not managed well, unexpectedly harm others’ feelings. Managers who want to improve employee’s organizational commitment through providing them support need to be careful and avoid triggering reverse psychology which comes from insincere support. Also, the effect of coworker support on organizational commitment should be treated prudently as the organization may easily lose employee’ affection with the turnover of some coworker.

Furthermore, this paper suggests that
emotional labor as a pervasive phenomenon in hospitality industry should be taken seriously. Different ways of emotion-regulating work differently on employee’s affective attachment to the organization and can be influenced in different ways by a same factor. Managers who care their employees can take advantage of those knowledge and help to promote training of emotional labor strategies, which would make emotional labor less emotional-exhausting and psychological effort-emanding, therefore decrease the degree of influence of disadvantages that come with emotional labor.

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IS TECHNOLOGY CONGRUENCE A FACTOR AFFECTING TOURISTS’ PRICE TOLERANCE AND PURCHASE INTENTIONS?

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INTRODUCTION

Information technology has been prevalent influencing tourists’ travel behaviors. Many travelers choose to plan for their trips using the Internet information on tourism enterprise websites and travelers’ reviews via search engines and social media platforms, such as Facebook, Youtube, Instagram, and travel blogs (Lee & Ma, 2012; Parra-López, Bulchand-Gidumal, Gutiérrez-Taño, & Díaz-Armas, 2011).

Despite existing studies on this topic, some research gaps are identified and it is hoped to address them in this study. First, the outcome variables of Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) have received limited attention. The current understanding of TAM in tourism research has mainly focused on various determinants of individuals’ perceptions of technology innovations. Cognitive and social approaches have been employed to explore factors that influence consumers’ perception, rather than the subsequent results of these actions. Second, most research has been conducted to compare if the technology has more new features than the current offering. Limited research have investigated if these new technology meets users’ travel needs. Third, the proposed construct aims to replicate TAM in tourism settings to enhance the validity of the original framework. To fill in these research gaps, the purpose of this study has two folds: (1) examine if new technology would influence technology users’ perceptions toward price; and (2) provide evidence if technology congruence is a factor that plays role in the TAM construct at a given tourism setting.

METHOD

Research data was collected via online survey administered by a survey sampling company in October 2013. In order to ensure quality data, participants need to answer three screening questions to be eligible for the study. Respondents had to be (1) more than 18 years old; (2) a smart phone owner; and (3) on an airplane in the past 12 months.

The online questionnaire include questions regarding: respondents’ frequency of downloading smartphone apps, familiarity with travel-related mobile apps, travel experiences, technology congruence, price tolerance, intention to purchase the app, and demographic characteristics. To capture respondents’ technology experiences, respondents were asked two questions: “how often do you download smartphone apps” (1=once in a while and 7=daily), and “how familiar are you with travel-related mobile apps” (1=not at all and 7=extremely familiar)?

To test causal relationships, the study was operationalized in the air travel context, specifically travelers’ use of a travel-related technology. Respondents were given a short description and a graph soliciting airport and flight schedule by a new airport application (app). This airport application provides features, including general information about passengers’ trips, upon getting to the airport, within airport navigation, and leaving the airport. Respondents are requested to review these descriptions and Technology congruence was measured with a three-item, 7-point Likert scale adapted from Agarwal & Prasad’s (1998) study. All items were adapted in the context of air travel.

Two constructs were added to examine the consequence of technology congruence. Price tolerance was measured with the Goldsmith, Kim, Flynn, and Kim’s (2005) 7-point Likert scale. Intention to purchase was measured by two items, including likelihood of future usage intentions and increased usage of the airport app for air travel. Finally, demographic characteristics included respondents’ gen-
der, age, marital status, ethnicity, education level, work status, and household income.

RESULT

Among 524 qualified cases, half of the respondents were female (n=260, 49.6%). The average age of respondents was 36.5, most between 26-45. About half of the respondents were married (n=276, 52.7%). Seven out of ten were Caucasian (n=370, 70.6%). Over half of the participants had a college degree or higher (n=301, 57.4%). Most respondents were full-time employed (n=316, 60.3%). Over half of the participants (n=324, 61.8%) had $60,000 or higher household income in 2012.

Participants reported that their average time taken for business/vacation trips and on an airplane in the past 12 months were 5.01 and 5.19, respectively. In the past 12 months, over three quarters of the respondents (n=400, 76.3%; n=399, 76.1%) traveled on business or vacation trips and on an airplane between one and five times. In addition, more than one fifth of the respondents (n=119, 22.7%) downloaded mobile apps about two or three times in a month, and they seemed to be familiar with travel-related mobile applications (mean=4.94). The results show means of each item in sequential order: PS3 (mean=5.26, SD=1.471), PS1 (mean=4.85, SD=1.514), PS2 (mean=4.81, SD=1.56), and PS4 (mean=4.6, SD=1.572).

Measurement Model

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was first implemented to examine reliability and validity of the measurement model. Three latent variables, including technology congruence, price tolerance, and behavioral intentions, are included in the construct. In this study, Cronbach’s alpha values range from .790 to .934 (p<.001), indicating good internal consistency Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994(). Convergent validity was confirmed since all factor loadings were greater than .70 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values were over the desirable .50 threshold (Baggozi & Yi, 1988). One item under Purchase Intention dimension was eliminated due to its high correlations with items in other dimensions.

Model fit was assessed by the model indices. Previous studies recommended that goodness-of-fit statistics should be greater than .90 (Bentler, 1992) whereas RMSEA needs to be less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In the measurement model, the ratio of the chi-square (χ²=63.753) to the degrees of freedom (DF=24) was 2.656. Other fit indices show that the measurement model had satisfactory goodness-of-fit statistics (CFI=.990; NFI=.984; GFI=.974; TLI=.985; AGFI=.951; RMSEA=.056).

Structural Model

To examine casual relationships and hypothesis, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was implemented to check if the measurement model demonstrated stable relationship between constructs. The Chi-square statistics reveal that the structural model fits the data (χ² =219.488; DF=49; χ²/DF=4.479). Model fit indices demonstrated an acceptable model fit in the structural model (CFI=.960; NFI=.949; GFI=.936; TLI=.946; AGFI=.899; RMSEA=.082). Technology congruence were influenced by two factors: technology usage (βTechUse=.172, p<.001) and technology familiarity (βTechFam=.337; p<.001). Trip experience was not a significant predicator (βTrip=.027, p=.348), however. Technology congruence was positively related to price tolerance (βPrice=.557; p<.001), and intention to use travel-related mobile apps (βIntention=.965; p<.001).

CONCLUSION

This study contributes to shed some lights to the theory by examining if technology congruence is a mediator between tourists’ technology and travel experiences and their price tolerance and intention to use the new travel technology. Previous studies have investigated the importance of new products’ perceived usefulness and ease of use in the tourism setting. The results of this study show that air travelers with high technology experiences demonstrate high technology congruence, leading to the result that they have higher price tolerance and more likely to use the new travel technology. This finding adds new knowledge to the theory the need to include users’ technology congruence in the context of tourism businesses. In other words, tourists with high technology experiences are attracted by how the new technology innovation fits in their travel styles.
Another contribution is the finding that the travel experience is not a strong predictor for technology congruence. This finding departs from previous research on the influence of previous travel experiences on tourists’ perceptions towards new travel technology (Kim, Park, & Morrison, 2008). It seems plausible that the more individuals travel, the more they may perceive new travel technology fit into their travel needs. One possible explanation is that other factors (e.g. traveler’s demographics) may play critical roles in the air travel context. Due to the fact that not all subjects in this study are familiar with travel apps, they may or may not incorporate technology in air travels as compared to other hospitality settings (e.g. restaurant business, casino, or lodging industry).

Cautions need to be exercised when interpreting the result of the study. Hospitality consumers’ technology use behaviors could vary based on different business circumstances (e.g. restaurants, hotels, or casinos). As a result, air travelers’ intention to use new travel-related technology could be impacted by situational (e.g. domestic or international flights) and industry-specific factors (e.g. being away from usual environments, accessibility to information) that may or may not be influential to service settings on the ground. To avoid these situational factors, the study should be replicated by conducting research at multiple hospitality settings to validate the research framework.

REFERENCE


DIGITAL MARKETING COMPETITIVENESS OF DESTINATION MARKETING ORGANIZATIONS AND CONFERENCE CENTERS IN SOUTH EAST ASIA

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INTRODUCTION

The MICE industry is a rapidly expanding sector of tourism world-wide, but particularly in the Asia Pacific region. The MICE segment is commonly used to bring in group tourists to fill the rooms in off peak seasons. The market estimated to convey approximately $122 billion annually in its economic impact, and to support nearly four million jobs in the United States alone (Convention Industry Council, 2012). More importantly, MICE tourists tend to spend more during their stay at the destination than leisure travelers. According to the Convention Industry Council, an association delegate spends $283 per day on average. As such, the MICE business is a significant contributor to the local economy, considering its multiplier effects: for instance, jobs to support the industry, revenue induced by tourists, and money spent by the employees within the destination (Bradley, Hall, & Harrison, 2002; Oppermann, 1997; Suh & McAvoy, 2005).

There are plethora of researches how to promote and communicate marketing message in the most efficient ways using mass media. One of the trends is to assess the quality factors of websites in the tourism hospitality industry (Morrison, Taylor & Douglas, 2004). While not many studies have provided universal criteria to evaluate the website factors, Morrison et al. (2004) developed a general framework of over 25 critical success factors (CSFs) using balanced scorecard (BSC) approach.

The objective of this study is to empirically examine the digital marketing competitiveness of MICE (meeting, incentive, convention, and exhibition) industry in Southeast Asia, more specifically, tourism boards and convention centers from China, Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong, Macau, and Singapore. Comparing 40 Asian competitor websites (23 tourism boards and 17 convention centers in six Asian MICE destinations) using BSC approach, the researchers attempted to identify the competitive edge in Japanese tourism marketing website marketing.

METHOD

The BSC is first invented to measure corporate performance focusing on non-financial gains on investment by the Harvard business professors in early 90’s (Kaplan & Norton, 1992). The current study adapted modified BSC from different hospitality and tourism researches (Ismail, Labropoulos, Mills, & Morrison, 2002; Kim, Morrison, & Mills, 2004; Morrison, Taylor, Morrison, & Morrison, 1999; So & Morrison, 2004; Yuan, Morrison, Linton, Feng, & Jeon, 2004). The modified BSC includes four dimensions of marketing effectiveness of DMO websites; namely, Technical (5 items), Marketing (17 items), Customer (21 items), and Designation Information (15 items) perspectives. The dataset includes 23 tourism boards and 17 convention centers which were selected by an expert panel in convention and tourism marketing. In addition, open-ended questions about the strengths of the websites and the suggestions for improvement were asked for qualitative analysis. Finally, overall satisfaction on four item measurements (enjoyment, satisfaction, word of mouth, and expectation) about the evaluators’ experience was asked on a 5-point Likert scale. Data were collected in the spring of 2015 for 3 months by hospitality and tourism majors who were trained for the website evaluation from a state university in the southeast United States. After the initial evaluation, a group of expert panels
(including the researchers in this study) scrutinized the results of the evaluations provided by the students in order to triangulate the data.

**FINDINGS**

BSC scores and overall satisfaction. Hong Kong and Japan are the most competitive destinations based on 58 critical success factors. Macau and Singapore topped on overall satisfaction. Although the overall performance score was the lowest, Singapore was ranked relatively high on customer satisfaction.

| Table 1. Descriptive Analysis-BSC scores and Overall Satisfaction |
|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Destination     | Balanced Scorecard | Score | S.D. | Rank | Mean | S.D. |
| Korea           | 8               | 4      | 45.00 | 8.86 | 5    | 3.00 | 1.09 |
| Japan           | 11              | 2      | 48.73 | 5.33 | 4    | 3.25 | 1.10 |
| China           | 11              | 5      | 43.64 | 7.79 | 6    | 2.43 | 1.36 |
| Singapore       | 4               | 6      | 40.50 | 4.36 | 2    | 3.97 | 1.74 |
| Hong Kong       | 4               | 1      | 49.25 | 12.12| 3    | 3.50 | 1.02 |
| Macau           | 2               | 3      | 48.50 | 4.95 | 1    | 4.50 | 0.71 |
| **Total**       | 40              |        | 45.80 | 7.66 |      |      |      |

Table 2 shows Tourism Board website ranking by 4 aforementioned dimensions. A superscript next to the score represents scores for respective dimensions. Japanese and two Korean DMO sites are ranked in top 5. However, Hong Kong received the highest score on all 4 perspectives. The convention center evaluation table is not presented in this abstract due to the space limitation but the results revealed that two Korean, one Japanese, and one Hong Kong convention centers were ranked on top 5 while the winner goes to the China National Convention Center.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Website Ranking by BSC, Tourism Board</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism Board Site</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discover Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagoya CVB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MICE SEOUL</td>
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<tr>
<td>Korea Tourism Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>Osaka CVB</td>
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<tr>
<td>Go Tokyo</td>
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<tr>
<td>Japan National Tourism Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>Shanghai Municipal Tourism Adm.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Macau Government Tourist Office</td>
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<tr>
<td>Beijing Tourism Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>Suzhou Tourism Bureau</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yokohama CVB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busan Tourism Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China National Tourist Office</td>
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<tr>
<td>YourSingapore: Visit Singapore</td>
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<tr>
<td>City of Beijing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCVB - Tokyo CVB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hangzhou Tourism Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kyoto Convention Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong Tourism Board</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huangshan Management Committee</td>
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<tr>
<td>Singapore Tourism Board</td>
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<td>Jeju Tourism Organization</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The superscript notes top 3 rankings based on each perspective score.
IMPLICATIONS

This study also investigated the four perspectives as possible predictors of customers’ overall satisfaction. With the tourism marketing websites. A multiple regression analysis (table will be provided in the full paper) suggested the four perspectives together sufficiently (64%) had an impact on stakeholder’s satisfaction level. It also resulted in two salient perspectives of Marketing and Destination Information perspectives, suggesting the emphasis should be placed on the core competency of the website when designing ones for tourism organization. Tourism boards are basically marketing entities charged with providing destination information to any tourists who wants to visit the destination. It is noteworthy to recognize focusing core business could bring actual return on investment.

The study results (Table 3) may also infer that the Destination Information perspective is empirically valid as one of the perspectives of BSC from the data analysis. It is not very surprising that there is a significant difference between tourism board and convention center websites in terms of providing information on the destination because a tourism board’s first priority is to promote its destination while a convention center puts more emphasis on serving the clients who hold events at the facility and providing information on the destination can be regarded as auxiliary services.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Result of T-test</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
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<td>Tourism Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>Convention Center</td>
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<td>Marketing</td>
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<td>Tourism Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>Convention Center</td>
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<tr>
<td>Customer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>Convention Center</td>
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<tr>
<td>Destination Information</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tourism Board</td>
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<tr>
<td>Convention Center</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*** Significant at .000 level

This study can provide benchmarking strategies for tourism boards and convention centers in other destinations. Identifying strengths and weaknesses of a destination’s website can improve its quality. Keeping the results of the study in mind, the marketers and the policy makers in the destinations may be able to prioritize among limited resources for the development of their marketing websites. Subsequently, the allocation of the budget to market their destination can be altered to focus on the CSFs that need to be improved. Additionally, a cooperative relationship between the tourism board and convention centers can be explored to improve the destination’s attractiveness perceived by the MICE tourists.

Some limitations of the current research include the exclusion of emerging market form the target population (e.g. Thailand), limited sample size, and the quality of evaluator. Researchers in future studies should consider including social media in their digital marketing tourism studies, such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Flicker, and LinkedIn.

REFERENCES


AIRBNB - IS THE HOTEL INDUSTRY READY?

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INTRODUCTION

The influence of the sharing economy on the hotel industry has never been greater with increasingly levels of technology. The concept of Airbnb serves as an example of how shared accommodations impacts hotels. The idea behind this trend of the sharing economy is to share personal resources such as cars or apartments with other people. The sharing economy focuses on under-utilized assets while using the assets without owning them (Ben-Ami, 2015). Especially for the up and coming millenial’s, it can be convenient to order an Uber car for transportation instead of buying a car (Uber, 2015). According to a study commissioned by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PWC), 44% of the US adult population is familiar with the sharing economy. The main benefits they see in the sharing economy include making life more affordable, convenient, efficient, better for the environment, and it can build a stronger community. Furthermore, the study reported that it is more fun than engaging with traditional companies with a level of trust between providers and users (PWC, 2015). These aspects demonstrate a high potential for the sharing-based economy.

To demonstrate the importance of the development of the sharing economy, consider “that Airbnb averages 425,000 guests per night, totaling more than 155 million guest stays annually— nearly 22% more than Hilton Worldwide, which served 127 million guests in 2014 ” (PWC, 2015, p. 14). The success of these new business models is attributable to the rapid global development of technological infrastructure and especially the ubiquity of the Internet (PWC, 2015). With increasing access to broadband Internet, the consumer has access to different kinds of applications on devices and Airbnb is one company that has benefited from this consumer preference, especially among the millenial’s with their willingness to participate in the sharing economy (Ben-Ami, 2015). According to a study commissioned by PWC (2015) “the most excited sharing economy group are people between the ages of 18 to 24 year olds and households with an income range between $50,000 and $75,000 and those with kids in the house under age 18” (PWC, 2015, p. 8). Even though it may be assumed that the trend and usage of the sharing economy are attractive for the low-end of the market, recent research reveals great popularity among high-end travelers as well (Chipkin, 2015). Based on the annual MMGY Global Portrait of American Travelers, the use of shared-accommodations has especially increased by people with a household income of $250,000 or more with some of the main reasons including the opportunity for a unique travel experience and to experience an unusual place (Chipkin, 2015; Guttentag, 2013).

Motivators of using and providing alternate accommodations

By sharing an apartment, house, or room(s) a provider has the opportunity to earn income out of underutilized assets. From the perspective of the guest, he or she can profit from a wide variety of different accommodation facilities by choosing favorite locations based on individual preferences (Press, 2015). In numerous studies on tourist preferences in visiting Hawaii, the tourist respondents have overwhelmingly reported tourists seeking to visit and stay in places where the locals
are along with participation in local activities (Agrusa, Kim, & Wang, 2011; Agrusa, Lema, & Tanner, 2010; Li., Szizoo, Lema, Tanner, & Agrusa, 2014). Guttentag (2013) similarly emphasizes that guests increasingly express the desire “for more local, authentic travel experiences” (p. 13). Furthermore, consumers often also benefit from reduced prices among Airbnb’s overnight accommodations in comparison to a hotel stay (Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2014).

**Core pillars of using and providing alternate accommodations**

The concept first needs a trustworthy and reliable digital platform that connects providers of accommodations (supply) with (demand) of potential guests (PWC, 2015). Such a multi-sided platform acts as an intermediary and online meeting place along with a market place for people seeking sharing accommodations (Hagiu & Wright, 2015). A further fundamental aspect for such a platform is trust. According to PWC’s (2015) report, trust is “the elixir that enables us to feel reassured about staying in a stranger’s home or hitching a ride from someone we’ve never met” (p. 16). In order to ensure reliability, seriousness and trust in multi-sided platforms have established review and rating systems. Every user (host and guest) can rank hosts/guests and write about her or his recent experience. These ratings and reviews help users to evaluate interesting offers. Due to these ratings a kind of word-of-mouth is generated and therefore trust between users and providers can be established and then compete with the trust that major brand name hotels have already established. Evident on the Airbnb website, a trusted community theme is also emphasized (Airbnb, 2015). Today the discerning traveler is seeking a state-of-the-art booking experience and ease of use in a trustworthy environment that has often alluded the travel sector (Hotel News Now, 2014).

**Idea behind the concept**

The peer-to-peer accommodation service Airbnb, based in San Francisco, California, was founded in 2008 (Lu, 2015). Mandelbaum (2015) reports that Airbnb over the past two years has remarkable growth of over 90% and expected earnings of $850 million in revenue. PWC (2015) also indicates that Airbnb’s success is mainly due consumers seeking greater value for their travel budget. With its platform Airbnb “connects people who have space to spare with those who are looking for a place to stay” (Zervas et al., 2014, p. 7). As a host and as a guest, a user can create an individual profile (with photo, personal statements, reviews etc.) in order to participate. Hosts will list their space on this platform and by adding some descriptions, the hosts inform the users about the location, amenities, arrival and departure times and the price of the accommodation. On the profiles, users can also see the previous reviews and ratings of other guests and hosts. According to the report of Zervas et al. (2014) “guests pay a 9 - 12% service fee for each reservation they make, depending on the length of their stay, and hosts pay a 3% service fee to cover the cost of processing payments” (p. 8). Therefore, Airbnb generates revenue from the hosts and their guests as well as the collection of rich data. Kong (2015) argues that Airbnb exemplifies the trend of the sharing economy with its business model of shared accommodations and by means of this interactive platform, Airbnb allows different parts of society to benefit from the consequences of Airbnb’s success.

**Airbnb as an imperfect substitute**

Airbnb can be seen as an imperfect substitute to hotels. Basically, the hotels’, as well as Airbnb’s offers meet, in general, the same basic need, namely an overnight accommodation. But there are differences between an Airbnb’s accommodation offer and a hotel stay, which makes the concept of Airbnb an imperfect substitute. In the report issued by PWC (2015), consultants concluded that beside the advantages of sharing economy accommodations such as competitive pricing and unique experiences, there has been an increasing number of choices among all traveler’s. Although traditional lodging facilities are still able to satisfy important aspects in their guests’ experiences and often consistency, Guttentag (2013) highlights that Airbnb is lacking in many areas such as service quality, branding, security and quality guest service. However, Airbnb’s disruptive idea of hosting strangers or to stay overnight in strangers’ accommodations, the idea characterizes Airbnb’s DNA and is for a lot of people, an unknown and unusual experience (Helm, 2014). Presently, Airbnb is still growing rapidly while earning an increasing
level of popularity in the hospitality market as a reliable, trustworthy and convenient intermediary of different kinds of accommodations. Both business models (traditional hotels versus shared accommodation) differentiate themselves among another set of services on different quality levels. Therefore, Airbnb will not be a perfect substitute to a hotel stay, but it may offer to deliver specific benefits such as authentic place experiences, a larger variety of locations, and the opportunity for close interaction with the locals’ way of daily living (Guttentag, 2013).

IMPLICATIONS

The sharing economy rational that emerges from existing resources does significantly change consumers’ behaviors and is able to create new business models which may increasingly influence traditional markets (Ben-Ami, 2015). In addition, based on the sharing economy concept, many individuals worldwide are able to participate and profit from this sharing-economy trend (Zervas et al, 2015). Furthermore, due to an increase in alternate accommodation options, Airbnb enables a region as a whole to grow due to an increase in the numbers of people or travelers who are staying in local neighborhoods. More travelers lead to more expenditures, which mean more revenue for market participants in this area (Guttentag, 2013). This research reveals that an Airbnb accommodation can be seen as an imperfect substitute compared to a hotel stay. The two different business models (traditional hotel stay versus Airbnb accommodation) offer different levels of quality, services and benefits while the combination of high touch and high tech platforms, may challenge hotel operators to compete with the growing power of home sharing sites such as Airbnb (Watkins, 2015). Ultimately, both business models could coexist due to different types of guests or different kinds of stays as indicated in Hennessey’s, (2015) report. Airbnb is changing the hospitality market (on the demand and supply sides) and its entrance in the hotel market is enabling a change in the sharing economy phenomenon.

REFERENCES


INFORMATION MANAGEMENT CAPABILITIES OF DMOS: A CASE STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

Organizations, like individuals, compete on the basis of their ability to create and utilized information. Thus, managing information for any organization is as important as exploring financial resources. Destination management organizations (DMOs) are responsible of marketing and management of the destination Pike, 2007Ritchie & Ritchie, 2002(; ), which a place attracts visitors for its natural cultural or historical features. The essence of a DMO is an information and knowledge exchange center, as well as tourism development and promotion. With advances in information technology, collecting and storing information is easier and less constraint than ever before. The Internet of Thing (IoT) is making more information/data assessable to more DMOs. The volume and velocity of information sharing within/between organizations present new opportunities for delivering services and new challenges for managing the information flows and underlying technologies. While Jay Parikh, Deputy Chief Engineer of Facebook, pointed out, “You could only own a bunch of data other than big data if you do not utilize the collected data.” This highlight the most important task of information management is to discover the hidden value of data. That is, adopting information and communication technology (ICT) increases the competitiveness of DMOs is no longer true, unless DMOs can capture and make meaningful interpretation, and then create useful knowledge out of vast amount of data.

The readiness of the organizational capability (OC) has great influence on how well an organization could adopt and implement innovation successfully and effectively 2006(). The implementation failure and resentment to adoption often affected by the OC. Extend from the evolutionary structuration model of Yuan et al. Yuan et al., 2006(), managing big data are about three things —big data, data management, and how those two work together to achieve organizational goals. That is, of particular important dimensions of OC is information management capability. However, are DMOs ready to harvest knowledge from flooding data obtained from various information channels? How well the information management capability they equip. Therefore, to evaluate the level of information management capability of DMOs will enable them to better position themselves and maximize the potential benefits of Big Data.

METHOD

The research focuses on assessing DMO information management capabilities. Two stages of approaches were taken. In the first stage, panel experts were assembled to identify information tasks of DMOs and information management capabilities needed by DMOs. All experts had been actively involved in destination management and demonstrated sound understanding of technologies.

On the second stage, the top managers of three DMOs were interviewed. The interviews were structured with questions prepared beforehand, but the interviewer/researcher was open to new issues and follow different, associated leads depending on the responses and willingness of the interviewee. A list
of information tasks of DMOs was provided to interviewees. Those tasks comprise three main dimensions. First dimension is influencing visitors’ behavior and enrich experiences, which includes image formation and public awareness, interpretation and public education, and information provision. Second dimension is providing services, which includes service provision, risk management, and public relation management. The third dimension refers to networking and capacity building, which includes professionalization and on-job training, decision-making, and coordination.

All discussions were carefully documented. Content analysis was used to analyze the panel’s points.

**FINDINGS**

Identified the levels of information management capability are shown in Figure 1. Figure 1 also reveals key questions that can be used to evaluate the information capability in each level. Then, this list information capabilities was presented to the top managers of DMOs who were asked to identified what they had done in coping with diversified sources of data and what actions they had planned to do regarding of tourism information management.

![The level of Sophistication](image)

What do we do to make something (not) happen?
What will something happen?
Why something happened?
What is happening right now?
What happened?
How long the data is stored?
Do we have the information?

DMO G, a local level DMO, has not yet given any thought on managing information. The primary task is to build IT infrastructure rather than figuring out what information they have.

DMO T, the national level of DMO, has drafted policy for information governance in attempting to guide information management. They knows what information they have via conventional information channels, but not yet comprehended what other types of data they could obtain from the newly emerged information channels, such as social media and official websites. DMO T indicated that they installed Google Analytics and collected web server log files. However, they are unclear what benefit could be harvested by analyzing those types of data. Web serve log files were deleted for every three months due to limited storage space. They’ve had some long term trail projects, which set up sensors for monitoring traffic in major destination areas. Data was analyzed for preventing traffic congestion. For data collected via social media try out That is, they They do for them.

For DMO N, the regional level of DMO, considered they already have enough information to support their management tasks, seeing no need to incorporate data obtained from newly emerged information channels. No data manager or information manager in house to manage digital information. The development and maintenance of DMO’s website was outsourced to private business. They did not know what web server log file. They heard of Google analytics, but did not know whether it is installed or not. DMO N also pointed out they followed the information management policy and guidelines given by DMO T. All those questions should ask DMO T. Interestingly, they did collabo-
rate with research center using RFID to tack tourist spatial movement in one of the most popular tourist scenic spots. No sing of sharing the data with other DMOs and linked with other database.

CONCLUSION

Data collected via ICT offers significant potential value for DMOs. However, development and acquisition of information management capability is difficult. The evaluation framework was used to assess the information management capability of DMOs in Taiwan. The results of this case study concluded that information management capability of local and regional DMOs are not ready yet. The information management capability of the national DMO is far from sophistication. IT infrastructure should be added to be the first layer of the IMC framework to address the question, “Which ICT is use to collect data?” Additionally, question, “Where is the data?” should be added to on evaluating the Data Storage.

REFERENCES

DOES TALKING ON SOCIAL NETWORKING SERVICES ABOUT VACATION EXPERIENCES CONTRIBUTE TO SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING?

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INTRODUCTION

People who proactively engage in tourism tend to be physically and mentally healthy. “Mental health tourism” focuses on mental wellness and aims to reduce participants’ negative mood and increase positive mood. People are paying increasingly more attention to mental health tourism because of a variety of modern social factors: repentance for problems caused by mass tourism, dissatisfaction with mass tourism, a greater diversity of values, changes in the concept of health, and the impact of social issues. However, the benefits of mental health tourism tend to fade within about a month. Thus, it would be important to devise ways of slowing or arresting this “fade-out phenomenon.” In this study, we focus on the use of talking about vacation experiences as a way of controlling the fade-out phenomenon. More specifically, we examined the influence of talking on social networking services (SNS), as SNS have become increasingly prevalent in recent years.

Talking about vacation experiences

There are two lines of research underlying our hypothesis that talking about vacation experiences is useful for slowing the fade-out phenomena and thereby maintaining the benefits of vacation to mental health.

The first line concerns the functions of self-disclosure in psychology research. Fisher (1884) defined self-disclosure as “verbal behavior to communicate unprecedented self-relevant information, normally private information, to other or others correctly, honestly and intentionally.” Talking about vacation experiences to others is thus considered one type of self-disclosure. It is believed that a moderate level of self-disclosure helps to maintain mental health.

The second point regards the mood congruence effect (Bower, 1981), which states that people in a positive mood will be better able to recall positive events than negative events; in contrast, people in a negative mood will better recall negative events than happy ones. It is believed that talking about happy vacation experiences will induce positive mood, which will in turn enhance recall of other positive events. This, in turn, will help promote mental health. Furthermore, it is likely that talking about a happy vacation experiences will clarify their memories of those experiences.

Talking about SNS

Accompanying the growth of smartphone usage in Japan (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2015), increasingly more people are using SNS such as Facebook and Mixi. Boyd & Ellison (2007) reported that the most common participants on SNS are creating a profile that is either open to all members or limited to certain members, creating a friends list to connect with others, and looking at the pages of friend’s friends. SNS communication has specific functions that differ from traditional face-to-face (FTF) communication (Kurokawa, Yoshitake, Nakayama, Mishima, Onishi & Yoshida, 2015; Terashima & Miura, 2013). In this study, we particularly focus on SNS communication.

Hypothetica model

Based on the above background, we investigated a hypothetic model wherein talking about
vacation experiences to close friends, acquaintances, and others on SNS influences clarification of vacation memories, which in turn influences subjective well-being both just after a summer vacation and one month later.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1 Hypothetic model**

**METHOD**

An internet survey was conducted. Data collection was delegated to Rakuten Research, Inc. The same survey was conducted twice: immediately after a summer vacation (09-01-2015; Period A) and one month after (10-01-2015; Period B). Participants were Japanese people of both sexes aged 20–59. Four hundred and forty individuals participated at Period A and 350 at Period B. Tables 1 and 2 show the distributions of the participants for Periods A and B, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
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<td>25.0%</td>
<td>Yamagata</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Shimane</td>
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### Table 2. Distribution of the participants for Period B

<table>
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<th>Category</th>
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<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
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<td>Female</td>
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<td>88</td>
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<td>25.1%</td>
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<td>40's</td>
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<td>25.1%</td>
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<td>50's</td>
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<td>24.6%</td>
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<td>Fukushima</td>
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<td>Yamanashi</td>
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<td>Shimane</td>
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<td>Okayama</td>
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<td>Yamaguchi</td>
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<td>Kagawa</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ehime</td>
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<td>Kochi</td>
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<td>Fukuoka</td>
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<td>Saga</td>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nagasaki</td>
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</table>
Table 3. shows the survey items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Answer format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you ever traveled during summer vacation? (vacation experience)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip</td>
<td>1: Yes/0: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return home</td>
<td>1: Yes/0: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-day trip</td>
<td>1: Yes/0: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Who did you talk about the vacation experience to?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close friends including family members</td>
<td>1: Yes/0: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquaintances</td>
<td>1: Yes/0: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others on SNS</td>
<td>1: Yes/0: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Degree of clarity of vacation memories (3 items)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation clearly.</td>
<td>5-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation vividly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation in great detail.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Level of subjective well-being (4 items)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I think I am happy.</td>
<td>5-point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think I am happier than people of my age.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy life regardless of the circumstances.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am unhappier than others suggest I am.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FINDINGS

Descriptive statistics

Tables 4 and 5 show the descriptive statistics for Periods A and B, respectively.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for Period A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you ever traveled during summer vacation? (vacation experience)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return home</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-day trip</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>.455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Who did you talk about the vacation experience to?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close friends including family members</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>.498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquaintances</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>.424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others on SNS</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Degree of clarity of vacation memories (3 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation clearly.</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation vividly.</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation in great detail.</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Level of subjective well-being (4 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I think I am happy.</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think I am happier than people of my age.</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy life regardless of the circumstances.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am unhappier than others suggest I am.</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.986</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Descriptive statistic at Period B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you ever traveled during summer vacation? (vacation experience)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trip</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return home</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>.413</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One-day trip</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Who did you talk about the vacation experience to?</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close friends including family members</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>.424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acquaintances</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others on SNS</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Degree of clarity of vacation memories (3 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation clearly.</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>1.220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation vividly.</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation in great detail.</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>1.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Level of subjective well-being (4 items)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I think I am happy.</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think I am happier than people of my age.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy life regardless of the circumstances.</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am unhappier than others suggest I am.</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.065</td>
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</table>
Factor analysis

In order to determine if the degree of clarity of vacation memories consists of the three items, a factor analysis was conducted (Tables 6 and 7). The Cronbach’s alphas for clarity of vacation memory at Periods A and B were .926 and .916, respectively.

Table 6. Factor structure of the degree of clarity of vacation memories for Period A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation clearly.</td>
<td>.784</td>
<td>.615</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation vividly.</td>
<td>.974</td>
<td>.949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation in great detail.</td>
<td>.946</td>
<td>.894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>2.620</td>
<td>87.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Factor structure of the degree of clarity of vacation memories for Period B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation clearly.</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation vividly.</td>
<td>.978</td>
<td>.956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I remember the experiences I had during my summer vacation in great detail.</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>2.568</td>
<td>85.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution ratio</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

A factor analysis was also conducted to examine if the level of subjective well-being consists of the four items (Tables 8 and 9). The Cronbach’s alphas for clarity of vacation memory at Periods A and B were .844 and .821, respectively.

Table 8. Factor structure of the level of subjective well-being for Period A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Overall, I think I am happy.</td>
<td>.916</td>
<td>.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I think I am happier than people of my age.</td>
<td>.908</td>
<td>.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I enjoy life regardless of the circumstances.</td>
<td>.691</td>
<td>.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am unhappier than others suggest I am.</td>
<td>-.538</td>
<td>.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>2.752</td>
<td>68.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution ratio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Factor structure of the level of subjective well-being for Period B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Overall, I think I am happy.</td>
<td>.933</td>
<td>.870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I think I am happier than people of my age.</td>
<td>.907</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I enjoy life regardless of the circumstances.</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td>.532</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am unhappier than others suggest I am.</td>
<td>-.418</td>
<td>.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalue</td>
<td>2.690</td>
<td>67.24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GFI=.936
AGFI=.904
RMSEA=.072
CFI=.948

Figure 2. Covariance structure analyses for Period A

Note: A solid line signifies a significant relationship and a dashed line signifies an insignificant relationship.
CONCLUSION

Talking about vacation experiences to close friends, acquaintances, and others on SNS appears to contribute to clarity of vacation memories and subjective well-being soon after the summer vacation. This path—namely, talking about vacation experiences on SNS à clarity of memories à subjective well-being—was significant one month after the summer vacation as well. The results imply that talking about vacation experiences on SNS is favorable to subjective well-being.

However, we did not confirm what actually made up participants’ talking about vacation experiences on SNS, and this might differ from the content of FTF talking. This point should be considered in future studies.

Also, some researchers have provided evidence that expanding one’s online social network promotes real-life social capital. Kobayashi & Ikeda (2006) pointed out that social capital in communities wherein residents played an online game had a “spillover” effect on the offline world. Steinfield, Ellison & Lampe conducted a longitudinal study and demonstrated that the use of Facebook enhanced social capital. These facts imply that talking about vacation experiences on SNSs might promote real-life talking and communication, which might contribute to enhancing the clarity of vacation memories and subjective well-being soon after the summer vacation. Future research should analyze whether online communication (such as that carried out through SNSs) about vacation experiences interacts with offline communication about the same and how the interaction effects on clarity of vacation memories and subjective well-being soon after the summer vacation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 26283017.

REFERENCES


EFFECTS OF MANAGEMENT COMMITMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION ON EMPLOYEES’ DEPRESSION AND INTERPERSONAL SERVICE

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INTRODUCTION

Many managerial activities to improve service quality can enhance employees’ job satisfaction (Kim, Tavitiyaman & Kim, 2009). Researchers have found that management initiatives in the form of organizational support, rewards, empowerment and training are main drives of frontline employees’ job satisfaction and excellent customer service (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe & Avci, 2003). Job satisfaction is also significantly related to customer focus/customer orientation (Dienhart & Gregoire, 1993) and improves the quality of customer service (cf. Kim et al., 2009). Job satisfaction is defined as a positive emotional state, such as happiness or pleasure, resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience (Edward & Scullion, 1982). Therefore, employee who has high job satisfaction tend not to have depression and perform excellent interpersonal service to the customer. However, little research has investigated how job satisfaction affects employees’ depression and interpersonal service at resorts in Japan. This study, therefore, examines the effects of management commitment and job satisfaction on employees’ depression and interpersonal service.

Based on previous studies, we postulated three hypotheses.

H1. Management commitment will enhance employees’ job satisfaction.
H2. Employees’ job satisfaction will decrease employees’ depression.
H3. Employees’ depression will decrease their interpersonal service.

METHOD

We asked one of the biggest and reliable Internet survey company in Japan to conduct an Internet survey. Participants were 413 (male:157, female:256) hotel employees in Japanese resorts. The questionnaire had the following four scales: We translated 12 items of Management Commitment Scale (Kim, Tavitiyaman & Kim, 2009) into Japanese, and added three items of IT Management, which were used in Yamaguchi & Oguchi (2013). Nineteen items of Job Satisfaction Scale (Adachi, 1998). Twenty items of Japanese version of CES-D (Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale) (Shima, Shikano & Kitamura, 2000), which was originally made by Radloff(1977). We also translated items of Interper-sonal Service Scale (Kuo, Chen & Lu, 2012) into Japanese, and added three items on interpersonal service concerned with customer’s privacy, which were invented by Yamaguchi & Oguchi (2014).

FINDINGS

Structures of Scales Factor analyses of previous four scales were conducted with Principal Component analysis and Promax rotation. Management Commitment Scale consisted of three factors, “Empowerment”, “Rewards & training” and “IT management” factor. Job Satisfaction scale factors were named as “Motivation,” “Appropriate salaries,” and “Job relations.” Depression Scale had a single factor. Interpersonal Service Scale had “solving problems” and “courteously greeting” factors.

We conducted Covariance Structure analysis with a satisfactory fit to the data (CFI=.965,AGFI=.908, RMSEA=.09) (Figure.1).
Management commitment was a significant antecedent of the employees’ job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. Employees’ job satisfaction was found to be significant and negative predictors of employees’ depression. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported. Depression was negatively and significantly affected courteously greeting, except solving problems of interpersonal service. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported.

![Diagram of management commitment, job satisfaction, and their effects on depression, courtesy greeting, and interpersonal service.](image)

Figure 1. Effect of management commitment and job satisfaction on employees depression and interpersonal service

CONCLUSION

Results showed that management commitment and job satisfaction were related to employees’ depression and interpersonal service. In particular, job satisfaction negatively affected employees’ depression. Job satisfaction played a critical role in an employees’ depressed state. Depression negatively affected the employees’ passive servicing skills, such as greeting customers with courtesy. In other words, depressed employees will not even be able to display such basic manner as greeting people.

In the pursuit of management commitment, especially empowerment and reward & training were key factors in giving motivation to the employees, rather than contributing to an appropriate salaries in their job satisfaction. Motivation to excel encouraged employees to solve problems, an example of an active servicing skill in interpersonal service. Empowerment and reward & training in management commitment were directly related to solve problems of interpersonal service. These two factors, which were discovered in this study, were critical in giving motivation to the employees and encouraging employees to solve customer’s problems in interpersonal service in Japanese resorts.

REFERENCES


OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES OF EMERGING FOREST-THERAPY TOURISM: EVIDENCE FROM JAPAN

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Rural tourism is evolving from recreational activities in rural settings to more health enhancing activities. The emergence of “forest-therapy tourism”, which was first established in Japan, is an example. Amid increasing health consciousness among tourists, this type of rural tourism will become more popular in the future.

No studies have previously been published on forest-therapy tourism. Our paper investigates the unique features of forest-therapy tourism in Japan and then explores opportunities and challenges faced by the forest-therapy tourism industry using a case study from Chizu in Tottori Prefecture, western Japan. Results revealed that forest-therapy tourism is strictly evidence-based as prospective tourism providers need to first obtain “forest-therapy base” designation. Verification of the health benefits is obtained after a set of on-site physiological and psychological evidence experiments. The designation procedure is administered by a non-profit organization (NPO), the Forest Therapy Society. Thus, forest-therapy tourism is based on proven evidence of its beneficial effects of relaxation on the body and mind. This essential difference from conventional rural tourism therefore provides this emerging form of tourism with a promotional advantage. Indeed, the municipality of Chizu has been promoting its forest-therapy to city dwellers with 1400–1500 visitors per year staying to revitalize themselves. To realize an income opportunity for local households, a home stay program was launched in 2010 to accommodate these forest-therapy tourists who mainly came from the same prefecture plus large cities such as Osaka in western Japan. A unique feature of this program is that the municipality administers the booking service and carefully allocates forest therapy tourists to the most suitable home stay providers that are available. This enhances the home stay experience and promotes interaction between the local host families and tourists. Thus tourists are more relaxed and leave with a good impression leading to more repeat visits.

In 2013 there were 450 overnight stays at 45 households. Despite increasing demand for home stays, a limitation of this program is that it will be difficult to increase the number of host families further, especially those with younger people, due to the local community’s ageing and decreasing population. On the other hand, the municipality is aiming to expand its forest-therapy program to include private company employee training in urban areas as the control of mental stress among employees is important for corporate sustainability.

Although it is too early to evaluate forest-therapy tourism fully, it undoubtedly has good potential in catering to the growing demands of urban residents who want to stay in good physical and psychological shape.

*Keywords:* forest therapy, relaxation, rural tourism, home stay, forest tourism
ECONOMIC EFFECTS OF MENTAL HEALTH TOURISM FOR WORKING PERSONS AT KYUSHU DISTRICT IN JAPAN: EVIDENCE BY INTER-INDUSTRY ANALYSIS

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During the previous 15 years in Japan the number of patients suffering from depression dramatically increased and shows a 2.4 times increase over this time. According to the research estimating economic losses such as decreased labor productivity due to depression, the loss amounts to about 2 trillion yen. Depression has a significant negative impact on the Japanese economy, and therefore the importance of taking adequate measures against depression has been increasing.

This research focuses on ‘mental health tourism’ as an effective measure against depression. It can be considered to enable the recovery of the ability of patients to mitigate their emotional distresses occurred from daily activities. In the study, the economic ripple effects of introducing mental health tourism for working persons at Kyushu district in Japan are estimated, using the method of inter-industry analysis.

In the inter-industry analysis, several types of mental health tourism are assumed and the economic effects of them are compared with that of counseling treatment, which is a typical medical treatment against mental disorder. At the same time, the effects of the improvements of health statuses and labor activities of tour participants are considered. Based on the estimated results from the analysis, several policy implications for the promotion of mental health tourism for enterprises are discussed.

Keywords:
Mental health tourism; Health improvement; Inter-industry analysis; Japan.

INTRODUCTION
Japan achieved rapid economic growth in the postwar period and has become one of the economic powers of the world. However, Japan has been confronting sluggish economic situations in recent years. According to the statistics of the Japan Productivity Center, Japan’s labor productivity in 2012 was 71,619 U.S. dollar (Purchasing Power Parity exchange rate), and ranked 21th among 34 OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development) countries along with being the worst among G7 countries. In addition, there has been a great decrease in the future young labor force which has been caused by the declining birthrate and aging population.

Due to the destabilization of socioeconomic circumstances, the number of people having depression or anxiety disorders has been increasing and the problem of mental disorders has been noticed. Figure 1 shows the trend of the number of patients with mental disorders by the type of illness based on the Patient Survey by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare. It shows that the number of patients of mental disorder was about 2 million in 1996, but greatly increased to 3.2 million in 2011. Particularly, the increase in patients of depression stands out and there are many people suffering from depression in Japan today. The number of patients suffering from depression dramatically increased from 433,000 in 1996 to 958,000 in 2011 and shows 2.2 times as much growth during 15 years (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, 2013a). About thirty percent of patients having mental disorders suffer from depression.
In recent years, the Mental Health Support Center of the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare reports that about 60 percent of workers feel high anxiety and tension in their vocational lives. Depression will affect their vocational lives and causes vocational mistakes that will eventually lead to the suspension of work (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare 2013a).

Depression, which is a representative mental disorder, accounts for about 20% of the reasons for suicide and more than 60% of the suicide victims due to depression are of the working age (aged 20-aged 59). Kaneko and Sato (2011), who belong to the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, estimated that the amount of economic losses that suicide and depression will cause amounted to 2.7 trillion in 2009. Sado (2004) also estimated that economic loss such as decreased labour productivity, which occurred from depression, amounts to about 2 trillion yen.

Namely, depression has a significant negative impact on the Japanese economy, and therefore the importance of taking adequate measures against depression has been increasing. The countermeasures and protections against depression are one of the most important tasks for companies employing workers. The various actions for the protection against mental disorders, the prevention of early turnover, and the support of rehabilitation are mainly centered around and being conducted by large-sized companies. For the improvement of employees’ mental health, some companies have begun to adopt the form of health tourism instead of simple employees’ trip, based on scientific knowledge.

With these situations in mind, this research focuses on ‘mental health tourism’ which utilize the tourism industry as a measure against depression. The economic scale of tourism industry has been increasing and its socioeconomic role has been enlarging year by year in the Japanese economy.

According to Oguchi (2009), who advocates mental health tourism, it means “Tourism which satisfies four prerequisites of ‘nature’, ‘switching of viewpoints’, ‘activation of five senses’, and ‘training from psychological viewpoints’ while pursuing the primary purpose of maintaining and improving mental health” (Figure 2).
Namely, mental health tourism primarily emphasizes the healing effect of nature, which means that people feel comforted by connecting to nature, like a forest bath. Therefore, it has a great deal of similarity with other niche tourism, such as nature-based tourism (Ceballos-Lascurain 1996).

Nevertheless, mental health tourism has the characteristics of stressing the importance of other factors such as ‘switching of viewpoints’ and ‘training from psychological viewpoints’ as previously noted, in addition to the component of ‘harmony with nature’. Participants of the tourism can think back their daily lives from a different point of view by getting extraordinary experiences offered by mental health tourism. It enables them to tackle on the confronting tasks in a different approach due to the acquisition of new value judgment.

And, ‘activation of five senses’ greatly contributes to the improvement of health. This tourism offer experiences which differ from the daily life where sense of sight is commonly used. By experiencing being stimulated several sensations like hearing the sounds of nature, participants are activated their five senses than usual. Furthermore, people can more deeply understand their personality traits through the training from psychological viewpoints such as mental health management, and can study skills for interpersonal communications (Oguchi 2009).

From features listed above, mental health tourism can be considered to enable the recovery of the ability of patients to mitigate their emotional distresses occurred from daily activities through the effective utilization. Furthermore, the introduction of mental health tourism can involve a positive impact on the revitalization of the domestic and rural economy in Japan. World Travel & Tourism Council (2015) reported that Travel and Tourism industry in Japan generated 1,152,500 jobs directly in 2014 (1.8% of total employment) and this is forecast to grow by 6.0% in 2015 to 1,221,000 (1.9% of total employment). The travel and tourism industry is expected to play the role of a new engine for the Japanese economy.

Based on these respects, the study analyzes the current situation of mental health tourism and estimates the economic ripple effects of introducing mental health tourism for workers, using the method of inter-industry analysis.

**PREVIOUS RESEARCH**

Carrera and Bridges (2006) defined health tourism as the organized travel outside one’s local environment for the maintenance, enhancement or restoration of an individual’s well-being in mind and body. Medical tourism is related to the broader notion of health tourism which, in some countries, has longstanding historical antecedents of spa towns and coastal localities, and other therapeutic landscapes (Lunt et al. 2011). So far, many researches have discussed the concepts of health-related tourism and have analyzed those socio-economic impacts (Garcia-Altes, 2005; Connell, 2006; Reisman, 2010; Yu, Lee and Noh, 2011). As previously noted, Oguchi (2009) stretched the concepts of health tourism, and pointed out the helpfulness of ‘mental health tourism’.

There are few researches treating on the mental health tourism, but some studies in Japan have already reported the effects. For example, Deguchi (2007) examined the impact of the new-type sightseeing including health improvement programs in Okinawa prefecture. The research verified the effect of a model tour consisting of six days and five nights on twenty corporate members from two companies locating other prefectures. According to the results, many tour participants reported that their BMIs and metabolic abilities came close to the normal values after the tour. Furthermore, the study found that the stress responses of participants such as ‘dysphoria’, ‘anxiety feeling’, ‘tired feeling’ and ‘physical tense feeling’ remarkably decreased from physiological tests and psychological test after the tour. Eventually, it showed the benefits of the mental health tourism on worker’s health status.

In addition, Japan Health Tourism Promotion Organization (2011) demonstrated that walking at Kumano Kodo in Wakayama Prefecture has the physiological and psychological effects such as ‘improvement of immune functioning’, ‘relief of stress’ and ‘functional advancement of frontal association area’ for thirty couples aged 40s-50s. Japan Tourism Agency (2010) also investigated the effect of mental health tourism tour conducted, and discovered that several types of mental health tourism
contributed to the recovery of self-rated mental health, GHQ scores and SDS scores of the participants. GHQ score is used to evaluate the level of mental health for people having sleep disorders, and SDS score is used to make diagnoses the symptom of depression by grasping the changes in cortisol concentrations reflecting stress levels.

When various institutions for activation of health tourism have been established and the degree of recognition for health tourism by the general public has been improved, demand for this field will be greatly expanded in the future. If mental health is maintained and recovered by the people, then it will enhance the participation of labor and/or will improve labor productivity. Grossman (1972) regarded people’s health as a part of human capital, and evaluated the role of enhancing labor productivity. Tsuchiya et al. (2012) showed that major depression has a great impact on on-the-job work performance in Japan, and the lost productivity was estimated at approximately 28-30 lost days per year from the World Mental Health Japan survey.

Furthermore, activation of the tourism industry such as mental health tourism is expected to bring certain economic ripple effects to the domestic and local economy. Regarding the estimation of the economic effect of tourism industry, Dwyer et al. (2004) surveyed the analytical methods used by previous studies, such as multiplier analysis, inter-industry analysis (Input-Output analysis) and Computable General Equilibrium techniques. The paper particularly investigates the economic impacts of ‘mental health tourism’ by using inter-industry analysis, which is still very commonly used.

As described herein, several prior conditions and tourism packages are assumed for the execution of mental health tourism. The economic ripple effects anticipated from each kind of tourism are measured and verified. In the analysis, at the same time, comparisons between counseling treatment, which is a typical treatment of depression patients, and several types of mental health tourism are attempted.

FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

Data

The study uses the nationwide inter-industry table (2011 edition) collected by Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications in Japan for the estimation of the economic ripple effects of mental health tourism. The inter-industry table is a list summarizing the transactions of goods and services between industrial circles, industry, and consumers covering one-year economic activities in a certain region for the identification of economic circulation in the region. The latest data available are of the 2011 edition (Declaration: 2014/12/19). With the use of inter-industry table, the structure of transactions of the local economy can be ascertained. If the structure is processed appropriately, then economic effects of various measures and projects can be measured. In the analysis, the author used the inter-industry table of the nation, and assumed that mental health tourism is introduced to domestic target people, considering the current situation where mental health tourism for foreign persons has not been established yet in Japan.

Estimation of economic effect

In the analysis, by setting specific contents of the tourism and the final demand brought about by execution of the tour, its economic ripple effects should be estimated. Furthermore, the degree to which tour participants can enjoy health improvement effects should be calculated preliminarily using available data and calculated values from preceding studies.

For this study, three types of mental health tourism were set for analysis based on the features of mental health tourism conducted to date in Japan. Details of the specific contents of the tourism are described later. Presumably, improvement of mental health of the tourism participants has positive effects on the measurement of the secondary ripple effects in inter-industry analysis through the process of increasing their income and consumption. In addition, economic effects by counseling are estimated as well. Then a comparative investigation of the estimated effects is attempted.

From now, several terminologies for economic effects normally used in the inter-industry analysis are briefly explained. First, Direct effect ($\Delta f$) means final demand generated directly in each industry by introducing health tourism and counseling. Amounts of production inducement generated in the
region by this final demand are called the Direct production induced effect \((I - M \Delta f)\), which is calculated by multiplying the self-sufficiency ratio to the final demand. Here, \(I\) and \(M\) represent unit matrix and import coefficient matrix, respectively. Namely, this effect deducts the impact of import from abroad.

Next, Primary ripple effect \(\left( [I - (I - M)A]^{-1} (I - M) \Delta f \right)\) represents the production ripple effect brought about by the intermediate input of related industries necessary to cover the demand described above. It might be said that the primary ripple effect is the production indenucement effect through the increase of raw materials. Here, means input coefficient matrix.

Compensation of employees generated by direct effect and primary ripple effect results in household consumption for consumer goods produced by each industrial sector \(\Delta C\), which then acts as a new demand and induces economic ripple effects related to consumer goods. This is designated as the secondary ripple effect. This effect can be calculated as follows.

Secondary ripple effect
\[ (I - (I - M)A)^{-1} (I - M) \Delta C) \]

In this study, for measurement of effects of inter-industry analysis, improvement of income and consumption attributable to improvement of mental health of working persons suffering from depression is studied. A certain ratio of patients participating in counseling or mental health tourism will attain a certain recovery for mental health, thereby increasing the income.

Then, Economic effect and Multiplier effect are calculated for comparison of the comprehensive effect of each program. Economic effect can be calculated as the sum of direct effect, primary ripple effect and second ripple effect.

Economic effect = Direct effect + Primary ripple effect + Second ripple effect

Multiplier effect can be calculated by dividing economic effect by direct effect.

Multiplier effect = Economic Effect / Direct effect

Namely, this effect captures the size of all economic effects, expressed as a ratio of total economic effect to direct effect (Miller and Blair 1985).

**Setting of mental health tourism**

**Number of participants**

The study assumes the number of persons receiving counseling treatment for mental disorder and tourists participating in mental health tourism in advance in estimating the economic effect by using inter-industry tables. The study confines the object person to working persons suffering from depression symptoms. According to the Patient Survey 2011 by Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, the number of outpatients of depression, stress-related disorder or neurotic disorder was about 1.19 million in 2011, and the percentage of working generation (aged 20-64) among them is 70.5%. In addition, according to the Employment Status Survey 2012 by Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, the average employment rate of person aged 20-64 is 76.9%. Therefore, the number of working persons who are applied outpatients is calculated as 645.7 thousand persons. In the analysis, the author assumed that these people participate in particular mental health tourism and estimated the economic effects. Namely, the number of the tour participants corresponds to about 0.5 percentage of total population in Japan.

**Formation of mental health tourism**

Regarding the formations of mental health tourism, the author mainly focused on three types as follows. Mental health tourism ‘MHT’ is set as the abbreviation form.

1. MHT (A): ‘agricultural experience’ and ‘hot spring’ (basic type)
2. MHT (B): MHT(A) plus ‘nature cure’ and ‘health checkup’ (combined type)
3. MHT (C): MHT(B) plus ‘laughing’ and ‘gourmet’ (original type)

In the MHT (A) of case (1), we treat on the basic type of mental health tourism, consisting of two items of ‘agricultural experience’ and ‘hot spring’. This setting reflects the results of analyses of Sekine et al. (2006), Miura (2008) and Japan
Health Tourism Promotion Organization (2011) showing that ‘agricultural experience’ and ‘hot spring’ positively affect mental health. MHT (B) (combined type) adds ‘nature cure’ and technical ‘health checkup’ by medical institutions to MHT (A) (basic type). This program reflects the fact that several health tourism which include these elements have already been conducted in Japan. The representative examples are ‘Project on forest of rest and relaxation at Shinano Town’ in Nagano Prefecture, ‘Tourism on walking at Kumano Kodo’ in Wakayama Prefecture and others. We can expect the physiological and psychological effects such as improvement of immune functioning and relief of stress from this kind of tourism.

In addition, MHT (C) (original type) introduces the factors of ‘laughing’ and ‘gourmet’ as well as factors of combined type. Regarding this program, the author referred to the program for preservation of health, called ‘Takeda-style hot spring cure’ conducted in Takeda city, Ohita Prefecture. In this program, participants stay in hot spring resorts during a certain period of time and receive various types of cure. Characteristically, its program includes the factors of ‘laughing’ and ‘gourmet’. Miyake and Yokoyama (2007) demonstrated that laughing improves mental health through the mechanism of mitigating anxiety and tense, and stress coping.

In addition, ‘Takeda-style hot spring cure’ in Takeda city introduces the health tourism which offers high quality local foodstuffs at discount rate, considering adequate nutritional balance. Ito (2005) found the positive association between nutritional balance and mental health, by investigating mental health levels and lifestyle habits of the users of a mental health center. Furthermore, Lin (2014) tests a structural model regarding the effects of cuisine experience and psychological well-being on hot springs tourists’ revisit intentions and showed the importance of cuisine experience.

Therefore, in this analysis, the new type of mental health tourism, which includes ‘laughing’ and ‘gourmet’ concepts in addition to ‘agricultural experience’ and ‘hot spring’, is introduced. As a way of ‘laughing’, the study takes in ‘Japanese comic story telling (Rakugo)’ offering laughing to a wide range of generation.

Expenditure to tourism

The study assumed the final demands of industrial sectors occurred by the introduction of MHT programs as shown in Table 1. The items of tourism expenses regarding each type of mental health tourism shown in the previous section were decided and assigned, respectively. Regarding food and drink, accommodation, hot spring and gourmet costs, the author calculated these amounts based on the visitor final consumption expenditure from the official statistics by Japan Tourism Agency (2012).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>MHT(A)</th>
<th>MHT(B)</th>
<th>MHT(C)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and drink</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural experience</td>
<td>2,100</td>
<td>2,100</td>
<td>2,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot spring</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature cure</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health checkup</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6,800</td>
<td>6,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese comic story</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gourmet</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41,600</td>
<td>50,900</td>
<td>58,400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, regarding the costs of ‘agriculture experience’, ‘nature cure’, ‘health checkup’, and ‘Japanese comic story telling’, the costs that particular representative companies and associations in Japan offer were set as the standard price. Table 2 shows the outline of the background materials on price setting.
Table 2. Background materials on price setting of MHT programs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and drink</td>
<td>Research study on economic impacts of tourism in Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>Research study on economic impacts of tourism in Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling</td>
<td>Agricultural corporation, Akiyoshi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural experience</td>
<td>Research study on economic impacts of tourism in Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot spring</td>
<td>Research study on economic impacts of tourism in Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature cure</td>
<td>Kanna Thalasso Laguna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health checkup</td>
<td>Japan Health Insurance Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese comic story</td>
<td>Tenma Tenjin Hanjyotei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gourmet</td>
<td>Research study on economic impacts of tourism in Japan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Medical expenditure to counselling treatment

For comparison, the study estimated the economic ripple effects of counselling treatment to patients of mental disorder. The authors calculated yearly counselling treatment fee per patient by referring to numerical values from Trend of public health 2013/2014 by Health, Labour and Welfare Statistics Association (2013). Concretely speaking, the total amount of healthcare costs for mental problems and behavior disorder (=1.959 trillion yen) were divided by the number of patients of mental disorder (=3.22 million persons), multiplied calculated value (=607.6 thousand yen) by 0.25, for the calculation of quarterly fee. This value becomes 151.907 thousand yen, so 152 thousand yen were set as cost for counselling treatment per patient as approximation.

Improvement rate and income appreciation rate

The study focuses on secondary ripple effects in the framework of inter-industry analysis. As an important respect, the rise in income and consumption caused from the improvement of mental health of participants for each MHT are considered. Based on the analysis of the effect of counselling treatment to depression by Ozaki (2010), the study assumes that 36.8% of patients who could receive the counselling treatment recover mental health. On the other hand, the study assumes 55.0% of working persons who participated in the mental health tourism recover mental health. This brief assumption is based on the analytical result by Suzuki (1990).

As a matter of course, the effects of the conduction of counselling treatment or mental health tourism are very complicated and it is very difficult to uniformly set the numerical impact for income caused from health improvement. Therefore, the study set three numerical values, 5%, 10%, and 20% as the appreciate rate of income for persons who could recover their mental health by participating in each program. The author used 3.43 million yen as standards of income level of working persons, which is the average value of yearly income among working generation (aged 20-64), and estimated the economic ripple effects based on the above appreciate rates in the calculation of Secondary ripple effect.

Estimation of direct effect

Total amounts of direct effects for each MHT program and counselling treatment could be calculated as following equations.

\[
\text{[Number of participants in MHT]} \times \text{[Expenditure to MHT per participant]} = \text{[Direct effect of MHT]} \\
\text{[Number of persons receiving counselling for mental disorder]} \times \text{[Medical cost per object person]} = \text{[Direct effect of counselling treatment]}
\]

In order to estimate the direct effect for each MHT program, we need to decide which industrial sector the final demand of each item belongs to. The study referred to the basic grouping table of the domestic inter-industry table and attached each item of MHT expenses to each related industrial sector. The distribution for each industry of expenditure item is shown in Table 3. Regarding the distribution of expenditure item of counselling, all direct effects were attached to Medical service and health sector among the 108 industrial classifications.
Table 3. Itemized account to each industrial sector of MHT expenditure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items of MHT expenditure</th>
<th>Direct effect ()</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food and drink</td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>Lodging industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travelling</td>
<td>Air transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural experience</td>
<td>Entertainment service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot spring</td>
<td>Cleaning, barber, beauty, bathhouse business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature cure</td>
<td>Medical service and health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health checkup</td>
<td>Entertainment service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese comic story</td>
<td>Medical service and health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gourmet</td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ESTIMATION RESULT

As a concrete estimation example, economic effects by inter-industry analysis for the case of MHT(C) are shown in Table 4. In this estimation, the appreciation rate of income of a participant who achieved health improvement by the participation in the MHT is set to 10%. Looking at Table 4, we can confirm that the economic effect of industrial sector of medical service and health is about 34.8 billion yen, and the overall economic effect amounts to 329.2 billion yen. Arranging each industry in order of their economic effects, Air transport, Accommodations, Medical service and health, and Eating and drinking places marked high-ranking, respectively.

Table 4. Estimation results of economic effects by inter-industry analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrial sector</th>
<th>(I-M)Δ/ Primary ripple effect</th>
<th>(I-M)Δc Secondary ripple effect</th>
<th>Economic effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>001 Crop cultivation</td>
<td>745</td>
<td>1,329</td>
<td>2,074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>002 Livestock</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>589</td>
<td>959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>003 Agricultural services</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>004 Forestry</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>005 Fisheries</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>555</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>006 Metallic ores</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>007 Non-metallic ores</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>008 Coal mining , crude petroleum and natural gas</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>009 Foods</td>
<td>3,073</td>
<td>5,311</td>
<td>8,383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>010 Beverage</td>
<td>1,235</td>
<td>1,618</td>
<td>2,853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>011 Feeds and organic fertilizer, n.e.c.</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>012 Tobacco</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>586</td>
<td>586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>013 Textile products</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>014 Wearing apparel and other textile products</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>1,174</td>
<td>1,333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>015 Timber and wooden products</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>016 Furniture and fixtures</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>017 Pulp, paper, paperboard, building paper</td>
<td>846</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>1,241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>018 Paper products</td>
<td>554</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>019 Printing, plate making and book binding</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>1,049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>020 Chemical fertilizer</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>021 Industrial inorganic chemicals</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>022 Petrochemical basic products</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>023 Organic chemical products (except 022)</td>
<td>331</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>024 Synthetic resins</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>025 Synthetic fibers</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>026 Medicaments</td>
<td>371</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>027 Final chemical products, n.e.c.</td>
<td>1,085</td>
<td>899</td>
<td>1,964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>028 Petroleum refinery products</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>2,577</td>
<td>4,178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>029 Coal products</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>030 Plastic products</td>
<td>803</td>
<td>843</td>
<td>1,645</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>031 Ralther products</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>032 Leather, fur skins and miscellaneous leather products</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>033 Glass and glass products</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>034 Cement and cement products</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>035 Pottery, china and earthenware</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>036 Other ceramic, stone and clay products</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>037 Pig iron and crude steel</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>038 Steel products</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>039 Cast and forged steel products</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>040 Other iron or steel products</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>041 Non-ferrous metals</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>042 Non-ferrous metal products</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>043 Metal products for construction and architecture</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>044 Other metal products</td>
<td>552</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>045 General industrial machinery</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>046 Special industrial machinery</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>047 Other general machines</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>048 Machinery for office and service industry</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>049 Electrical devices and parts</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>328</td>
<td>478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>050 Applied electronic equipment and related instruments</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>051 Other electrical equipment</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>052 Household electric appliances</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>053 Household electronics equipment</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>893</td>
<td>924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>054 Electronic computing equipment and associated items</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>055 Semiconductor devices and Integrated circuits</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Case: MHT(C), 10%)
[Unit: one million yen]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industrial sector</th>
<th>(I-M)$\Delta/$</th>
<th>Primary ripple effect</th>
<th>(I-M)$\Delta$c</th>
<th>Secondary ripple effect</th>
<th>Economic effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>056 Other electronic components</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>057 Passenger motor cars</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1,251</td>
<td>1,363</td>
<td>1,381</td>
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<tr>
<td>058 Other cars</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>1,887</td>
<td>2,289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>059 Motor vehicle parts and accessories</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>060 Ships and repair of ships</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>061 Other transportation equipment and repair of</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>062 Precision instruments</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>063 Miscellaneous manufacturing products</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>064 Reuse and recycling</td>
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<td>1,794</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>2,382</td>
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<tr>
<td>065 Building construction</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>066 Repair of construction</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>067 Public construction</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3,792</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>957</td>
<td>4,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>068 Other civil engineering and construction</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>692</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>069 Electricity</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,104</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>2,054</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>070 Gas and heat supply</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>938</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>1,335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>071 Water supply</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6,092</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>3,207</td>
<td>9,299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>072 Waste management service</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,723</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>952</td>
<td>2,674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>073 Commerce</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4,536</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>1,011</td>
<td>5,547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>074 Finance and insurance</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,706</td>
<td>1,706</td>
<td>1,706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>075 Real estate agencies and rental services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>076 House rent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1,723</td>
<td>1,859</td>
<td>2,158</td>
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<tr>
<td>077 House rent (imputed house rent)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,072</td>
<td>6,600</td>
<td>7,323</td>
<td>8,394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>078 Railway transport</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,235</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>1,132</td>
<td>2,366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>079 Road transport (except transport by private cars)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>572</td>
<td>783</td>
<td>865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>080 Self transport by private cars</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>081 Water transport</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>082 Air transport</td>
<td>29,567</td>
<td>29,742</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>64,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>083 Freight forwarding</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>903</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>504</td>
<td>1,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>084 Storage facility service</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>085 Services relating to transport</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,045</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>823</td>
<td>1,868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>086 Communication</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>631</td>
<td>1,022</td>
<td>1,284</td>
<td>1,915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>087 Broadcasting</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,227</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>1,892</td>
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<tr>
<td>088 Information services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>089 Internet based services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>921</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>1,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>090 Image information, character information production and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>091 Public administration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>092 Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>1,059</td>
<td>1,733</td>
<td>2,340</td>
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<tr>
<td>093 Research</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
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<tr>
<td>094 Medical service and health</td>
<td>16,184</td>
<td>17,551</td>
<td>1,026</td>
<td>1,087</td>
<td>34,822</td>
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<tr>
<td>095 Social security</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>096 Nursing care</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>96</td>
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<tr>
<td>097 Other public services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>667</td>
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<td>098 Advertising services</td>
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<td>2,213</td>
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<td>099 Goods rental and leasing services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,103</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>588</td>
<td>1,691</td>
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<td>100 Repair of motor vehicles and machine</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,807</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>1,474</td>
<td>3,281</td>
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<td>101 Other business services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7,195</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>2,289</td>
<td>9,485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102 Amusement and recreational services</td>
<td>7,802</td>
<td>7,802</td>
<td>1,219</td>
<td>1,219</td>
<td>16,858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>103 Eating and drinking places</td>
<td>13,829</td>
<td>13,814</td>
<td>2,073</td>
<td>2,124</td>
<td>29,566</td>
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<tr>
<td>104 Accommodations</td>
<td>25,554</td>
<td>26,331</td>
<td>767</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>52,716</td>
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<tr>
<td>105 Cleaning, barber shops, beauty shops and public baths</td>
<td>2,555</td>
<td>2,696</td>
<td>764</td>
<td>878</td>
<td>6,130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>106 Other personal services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>1,071</td>
<td>1,121</td>
<td>1,254</td>
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<tr>
<td>107 Office supplies</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>108 Activities not elsewhere classified</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1,074</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>397</td>
<td>1,470</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>95,291</td>
<td>158,331</td>
<td>39,457</td>
<td>71,137</td>
<td>329,297</td>
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</table>

Multiplier effect 3.30

Table 5 shows the summary of the economic effects of MHT programs and counseling treatment by inter-industry analysis. There are many patterns of calculations, so the author focuses on Economic effect and Multiplier effect for each program according to the levels of improvement rate of income.

First, comparison of actual amounts of [economic effects] represented as a sum of [direct effect], [primary ripple effect] and [secondary ripple effect] identified that fundamentally, economic effects by counseling treatment are greater than those by MHT(A) and MHT(B) in the cases of income improvement rates of 5% and 10%, respectively. However, for an income improvement rate of 20%, economic effects by MHT(B) and MHT(C) surpassed those by counseling. Comparison between MHT(C) case and the counseling case revealed a difference in economic effects of about 71 billion yen.
Second, if attention is devoted to the magnitude of the Multiplier effect which shows how much Economic effect is improved, as compared to a Direct effect, which is the final demand, then one can ascertain that numerical figures of all mental health tourism are greater than those of counseling if the improvement rate of the income is fixed. This result attributes to the fact that the execution of MHT programs strongly causes intermediate demands and intermediate inputs in several sectors as well as final demands in travel-related industries and medical industry themselves.

The recognition of the concept of MHT is very low under the circumstance. Nevertheless, we can point out that mental health tourism-related industries can be expected to greatly develop from the viewpoints of domestic economic ripple effect and health improvement effect, particularly for working generations suffering from mental disorder.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Improvement rate of income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic effect</td>
<td>Multiplier Effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHT(A)</td>
<td>218,024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHT(B)</td>
<td>266,933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHT(C)</td>
<td>305,584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselling</td>
<td>287,947</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Unit: one million yen)

DISCUSSION

From the estimation results of inter-industry analysis, we can confirm that the introduction and prevalence of MHT packages have a certain amount of economic ripple effect and all programs basically surpass the multiplier effects of counseling treatments. Therefore, the improvement of the accessibility regarding mental health tourism is expected to enhance economic efficiency of resource allocation than ever before, along with the restoration of health of working persons who suffer from depression.

However, an important issue in promoting mental health tourism is that in Japan today, laborers cannot secure sufficient relaxation time to join tourism. According to a related survey by a major tour company, Expedia, laborers hesitate to take paid holidays voluntarily. Average paid yearly holidays in Japan in 2012 were 13 days, and consumption rate was 38%, which was the lowest level among surveyed nations. Japanese people do not take paid holidays because [they cannot afford to do it economically] and because [colleagues view it negatively] (Expedia Japan, 2013). If circumstances remain unchanged, then the consumption rate will change only slightly even if the firm reminds laborers to take paid holidays. We should notice the above fact, and governments should prompt each firm to encourage employees to take paid holidays more through the legal framework.

In addition, such a framework should be built in which industrial physicians and personnel management officers come to recognize the benefits of mental health tourism and in which laborers in poor physical and mental conditions are advised to participate in the tour. It might be realistic to implement elements of the mental health tourism into a trip for rest and relaxation organized by a firm and staff training.

CONCLUSION

This study estimated the economic effects of three types of mental health tourism programs and compared these effects with the effect of counseling treatment which is a typical medical treatment against mental disorder, by using the method of inter-industry analysis. As specific packaged mental health tours, agricultural experiences, hot spring trips, gourmet trips, comic story trips, and others are treated in this paper. In the estimation process, the study considered the effects of the improvements of health statuses and labor activities of tour participants in the estimation of second ripple effects, referring to the results of previous research.
As a result, economic effects by MHT(B) (combined type; agricultural experience’ and ‘hot spring’, ‘nature cure’ and ‘health checkup’) and MHT(C) (original type; MHT(B) plus ‘laughing’ and ‘gourmet’) surpassed those by counseling in the case where an income improvement rate of 20% is set. In addition, regarding the Multiplier effect representing the degree of expansion of the original Economic effect, numerical figures of all mental health tourism are greater than those of counseling if the improvement rate of the income is fixed. This result implies that the execution of MHT programs strongly causes intermediate demands and intermediate inputs in several sectors as well as final demands in travel-related industries and medical industry themselves. As Laws (1996) points out, health is often a motivational factor in individuals’ decisions to purchase holidays, and health and tourism should be seen as partners in market development. There is much room making the most use of tourism industry in the field of mental health as well.

In the study, there are several limitations and tasks to be solved in the near future.

First, the study only focused on nationwide economic ripple effects in Japan, but the regional impacts of these MHT programs will differ because the industrial structure of each region is somewhat different from the average throughout the country. Therefore, the comparison of the economic effects calculated from regional inter-industry tables will be needed toward more elaborate studies.

Second, the study has not clarified what types of activities and facilities really enable to make mental health tourism more effective. In addition, as suggested by Prebensen et al. (2010) we should recognize the differences in participants’ attributes and motivation for tourism, and need to conduct further studies to identify the types of activities and facilities required to make participants of mental health tourism become highly-motivated.

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IMPACTS OF ELECTRONIC DANCE MUSIC TOWARDS SOCIAL HARMONY: THE MALAYSIAN PERSPECTIVE

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Electronic Dance Music (EDM), a musical event that so sought-after amongst the youth, is getting prevailed around the world. The emergence of this à la mode event has magnetize lots of attentions from the media as well as the public due to its high probabilities in creating social problems and menacing social harmony of one destination, for instance, two death cases occurred during the EDM events in Malaysia caused a feeling of consternation of the society. The arguments over the impacts of such events towards the society are endless. This paper focuses on the study of the impacts of EDM towards social harmony in Klang Valley area, Malaysia by scrutinizing the contradiction of statements from several experts and the local communities. This study sampled 15-20 people that represent different social background with face-to-face and online interview through snowball sampling method. This study helps to understand the social context as a whole based on the impacts of EDM events that take place in Malaysia. It also provides valuable information to EDMs’ organizer as well as local authorities for a proper event management to minimize EDM impacts towards society as part of the sustainable growth of the event industry.

Keywords:
Electronic Dance Music, Social Harmony, Impacts, Klang Valley
SATISFACTION AMONG VISITORS TO THE SHAANXI HISTORY MUSEUM - A PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS.

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INTRODUCTION

Xi’an represents an interesting example of town planning. Having four distinct zones based around an economic and development zone, the Chamba ecological zone, a hi-tec industrial zone and the Qijiang tourism zone, Xi’an has emerged as an industrial and electronics power-house in China that tries to integrate, nature, history, retail and industrial development into a coherent whole.

The tourism zone itself three related zones based around the Han, Tang and Ming dynasties. The Tang dynasty in particular has been adopted to represent Xi’an, based in part on the exceptional terracotta warriors associated with the tomb of the first Qin emperor that gave birth to a unified China. The city thus attract both tourists and business people alike, many of whom enjoy the leisure parks and restaurant areas within the Qijiang zone based upon the Big Wild Goose Pagoda. Located within close walking distance of the Pagoda is the Shaanxi History Museum which attracts over 1 million visitors a year. It houses one of, if not the finest collection of Tang dynasty collection of artefacts including wall murals from various tombs that are carefully preserved in especially air conditioned display panels subject to light controls to preserve the remaining colours.

RESEARCH

The authors had previously undertaken one of the few independent surveys of visitors to the Shaanxi History Museum in 2011 (Hui & Ryan, 2012), and in 2015 sought to replicate the study to undertake a comparison between the years. A key issue in the earlier study had been the changes being encouraged in Chinese museum policies, including the introduction of free exhibitions, exhibitions for which charge could be made, and the need to offer souvenir and catering facilities in an attempt to bring Chinese museums to the same standards as their western counterparts. The Shaanxi History Museum had been a leader in this process, but is handicapped by a lack of space and in some ways by the very popularity of its offering as over-crowding is a continuing issue. The study sought to assess to what extent visitor perceptions had changed over the years as the Museum had introduced other changes.

RESEARCH METHOD

Prior to the original questionnaire a series of interviews with visitor had been undertaken to identify potential items. In 2015 a meeting with senior Museum staff of over 2 hours took place to confirm the usefulness of the questions and the survey. It was concluded that value existed in undertaking a replicative study to assess to what extent there might be changes over the intervening years. The questionnaire comprised sections on perceptions of the museum, issues pertaining to a willingness to pay for proposed exhibitions and socio-demographic data.

FINDINGS

The nature of the sample

The sample comprised 440 respondents, of whom 48% were male and 52% female. The age and gender distribution is shown in Table One. Of the sample over 80% were under the age of 45 years, a distribution reflected not only the large numbers of students visiting the museum, but also their greater willingness to answer the questionnaire. The age distribution was reflected in the income distribution
where 48% indicated that they possessed below average levels of income. On the other hand 10.5% indicated they possessed above average income. The educational levels of respondents were high with 70% possessing or studying for a degree and a further 12% possessing or studying for a post graduate qualification. Approximately 5% of respondents having visited more than 7 times in the last two years, and 19% who had 8 or more visits in total.

Determinants of visitor satisfaction

Drawing on past studies a number of items were identified as possessing potential importance for visitors to the museum. The scale used was a seven-point scale where 1 represents ‘very strongly disagree’ and 7 ‘very strongly agree’. In a check of reliability of the scale the alpha coefficient was found to be 0.877 with generally high item to scale correlations, indicating the rigor of the scale. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score of sampling adequacy was 0.838. The sample size also exceed the criteria of the Westland algorithm for subsequent SEM analysis assuming a power effect of 0.8 and 4 latent variables given that exploratory factor analysis suggested a four-factor segmentation would ‘explain’ 64% of the variance in the scale.

In a comparison with the earlier study it is evident that in the ordering of items there is a correlation that exists between the two sets of data. In both instances respondents strongly agree with the role of museums as guardians of human culture, and generally high levels of satisfaction exist as to the ticketing policies and modes of presentation. The lower scores (that nonetheless tend not to fall below the mid-point of the scale) tend to refer to ancillary services such as the restaurants and souvenir sales. In short the museum has sustained high levels of performance over the intervening years. While the score relating to ticketing policies tended to be marginally higher in the earlier period, it is suggested that some of this may have been due to the then recent innovation of such pricing, which is now a well-established part of the programme.

To establish the causes of the satisfaction, an exploratory analysis used ordinary least squares regression was used giving the rigour of that technique. The major determinant was the feeling that the respondent had learnt something. Five items, namely: ‘I felt I learnt a lot from my visit to the Museum today’ (β=0.486), ‘I find that I am now more willing to pay to see special exhibitions because of the policy of free entry to the Museum’ (β=0.110), ‘I believe that Museums are important as guardians of human culture’ (β=0.205), ‘Generally I do not think the galleries are too crowded’ (β=0.123) and ‘I thought the standard of displays in the Museum were very good’ (β=0.120) accounted for 66% of the variance in satisfaction. However, it should be noted that the data is subject to some degree of multi-collinearity (that is correlation between the items) and additional analysis is required, and will be undertaken by June.

CONCLUSIONS

Over the two periods there has been little change in visitor perception of the museum. Satisfaction remains high with 85% scoring five or more on a seven point measuring satisfaction where seven was the maximum score. Levels of satisfaction remain high yet from the data (and not analysed above) there remains room to further improve on ancillary services such as catering and souvenir sales. From personal communication with staff it is known that this finding is consistent with their own feedback and that it is acknowledged by Museum staff that further investment is required to improve these services, and such policies are being planned.

It is suggested that further research also be undertaken into the relationship between visitation and derivation of ancillary incomes from the sales of souvenirs and means of further strengthening relationships between the Museum and the more frequent visitors who may well act as ‘ambassadors’ for the Museum.

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MAKING LOCAL FRIENDS DURING A WORKING HOLIDAY EXPERIENCE IN AUSTRALIA

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INTRODUCTION

Interacting with locals and making new friends at a destination have been reported as important motivational factors for young independent travellers, and fulfilling these needs may influence their level of satisfaction with a particular trip (Cooper, O’Mahony, & Erfurt, 2004; Ryan & Mohsin, 2001). Although past tourism studies have investigated young independent travellers, there is limited research on those from Asian countries (e.g., Bui, Wilkins, & Lee, 2013; du Cros & Liu, 2013), in particular, their interactions with locals and how they make friends in a Western context.

This study focuses on young independent Asian travellers on the Australian working holiday maker (WHM) program, one of the rapidly growing cohorts in the Australian tourism market (Department of Immigration and Border Protection, 2014). The WHM program is a cultural exchange that provides young people from partner countries with an extended holiday experience in Australia to promote mutual cultural understanding (Tan, Richardson, Lester, Bai, & Sun, 2009). In fact, it is regarded as an important grass-roots exchange between Australia and partner countries (Wilson, 2008).

Although there is limited understanding of the Asian WHM market, a small number of past studies have provided useful insights. For example, the limited English language proficiency of Asian WHMs has been identified, along with a strong motivation to improve their language ability during their stay in Australia (Chen, Lu, & Chang, 2009; Lee & Lee, 2011). Bui et al. (2013) and Maksay (2007) reported a strong tendency for Asian WHMs to stay with other WHMs from the same country because of linguistic and cultural barriers. Paris (2009) argued that because of the development of online communication tools, independent travellers do not need to interact with locals to gain access to required information at a destination. However, it has been proposed that the levels of interaction with local communities may largely depend on the nature of the location (Ryan & Mohsin, 2001).

As noted earlier, limited studies have investigated the Asian WHM market and their experiences in Australia, although the number of Asian WHMs has been increasing. Therefore, this study attempts to expand current knowledge about this market. In particular, the study explores the interactions between WHMs and locals and how they make local friends during their stay in Australia.

METHOD

This study is part of a larger mixed methods study on Asian WHMs in Australia. In the first phase, six focus groups were conducted with 31 WHMs from major Asian source markets (Japan, South Korea and Taiwan) in South East Queensland, Australia, in early 2013. As part of the focus group discussion, the participants were asked to share their levels of interaction with locals and how they made local friends in Australia. The transcribed qualitative data were analysed using a thematic analysis approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

In the second phase, on-site surveys were conducted in South East Queensland, Australia, between late 2013 and early 2014. As with the first phase, WHMs from Japan, South Korea and Taiwan were recruited. On the questionnaire, the partic-
Participants were asked to indicate the number of local friends they made in Australia by selecting one of five options (None, 1–5, 6–10, 11–15 and more than 15) as well as answer other questions related to their personal characteristics and working holiday experiences. In total, 621 usable surveys were collected. The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 22.

FINDINGS

An analysis of the qualitative data indicated that some participants had been successfully interacting with locals and making local friends. However, many participants showed a strong tendency to stay with people who shared a similar cultural background. In fact, many participants did not have any or had very few local friends. They often expressed their willingness to make local friends, but they also acknowledged difficulties due to language and cultural barriers. Also, several participants stated a lack of opportunities to meet and interact with locals, although the majority of the participants had been in Australia for more than four months at the time of the focus groups.

An analysis of the quantitative data showed that 48.3% of the respondents had between one and five local friends and 12.6% had between six and ten local friends. Very few (2.9%) respondents had between eleven and fifteen local friends, but 11.0% of the respondents had more than fifteen local friends. However, 25.3% of the respondents did not have any local friends. In addition to the descriptive statistics, this study explored differences in the number of local friends based on some of the personal and trip characteristics of Asian WHMs. Mann-Whitney U tests were performed to compare the number of local friends for males and females, and low and high English language proficiency groups. The results of the analyses showed that there was no statistically significant difference in the number of local friends for males and females (U = 43565.50, z = -1.10, p > .05); however, the number of local friends was significantly higher in the high language proficiency group than in the low language proficiency group (U = 35677.00, z = -3.93, p < .01). Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed to explore the differences in the number of local friends based on the respondents’ nationalities and stages of working holiday. There were statistically significant differences in the number of local friends for nationality [X2(2) = 23.35, p < .01] and the stage of working holiday [X2(3) = 60.30, p < .01]. Post-hoc tests using Dunn’s approach indicated that Taiwanese WHMs had more local friends than the two other groups. In addition, respondents in the later stages of their working holiday experiences had more local friends than those in the early stages.

CONCLUSION

This study explored how Asian WHMs interact with locals, particularly focusing on making local friends during their stay in Australia. The analysis of the quantitative data indicated that many Asian WHMs made local friends during their working holiday experiences. In fact, WHMs in the later stages tended to have more local friends than those in the early stages. These findings support the notion that WHMs are contributing to grass-roots exchanges between Australia and partner countries. However, common challenges that Asian WHMs face when they try to make local friends were also observed from the qualitative data. Although the findings of this study add to the current understanding of the Asian WHM market in Australia, future research is needed to enrich this knowledge. Since this study was only able to use data collected from WHMs staying in Australia, conducting in-depth interviews with people who have completed their working holiday experiences would provide broader information on this topic and would extend the current study.

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KEY TYPES OF RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES TO EFFECT ON TOURIST POPULATION AND TICKET SALES IN NATIONAL FORESTRY RECREATION AREAS, TAIWAN

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INTRODUCTION

To increase tourist population and revenues, the Forestry Bureau developed many activities which divided into four categories: (1) social activity: including cultural activity, historical activity, and humane activity; (2) nature-experience activity: including specie-introduction activity ecosystem-introduction activity, and sustainable-concept activity; (3) educational activity: including physical activity, esthetical activity, musical activity, and others; (4) promotional activity: attracting tourist by discount, open ceremony, and advertising[1] [2] [3]. Therefore, the study would like to examine the effect of activity and define the importance of activity to increase tourist population and ticket sales.

METHOD

The data were collected from 2007 to 2011 in 18 Forestry Recreation Areas in Taiwan. Because the scale of activity was different, the study defined the large activity as the participants more than 100 people. On the other hand, participants were less than 100 would be defined as the small activities. The study classified the activities become8types, including frequency of large social activity(LSA), small social activity (SSA), large nature-experience activity (LNA), small nature-experience activity (SNA), large entertaining activity (LEA), small entertaining activity (SEA), large promotional activity (LPA), and small promotional activity (SPA). The multilayer perceptron analysis was used in this study to examine the effect of activity on tourist population and ticket sales.

FINDINGS

1. Effect of activity frequency on tourist population

The importance chart showed that the tourist population was dominated by the frequency of small social activity, followed by the frequency of large nature-experience activity, followed by the frequency of large nature-experience activity(figure 1).

2. Effect of activity frequency on ticket sales

The importance chart showed that the ticket sales was dominated by the frequency of large nature-experience activity, followed by the frequency of large entertaining activity, followed by the frequency of large nature-experience activity(figure 2).
1. **Effect of activity frequency on tourist population and ticket sales**

The importance chart showed that the tourist population and ticket sales were dominated by the frequency of large entertaining activity, followed by the frequency of small social activity, and followed by the frequency of large nature-experience activity (figure 3).

2. **The nature-experience activities play important roles on ticket sales and tourist**

The frequency of large scale nature-experience activities is the man factor to impact on the tourist population and ticket sales. The frequency of small scale nature experience activities also play the thirdly important factor to impact on the tourist population and ticket sales. Therefore, to increase tourist population, National Forestry Recreation Area should hold the large entertaining activity, such as concert, orienteering, and photographic exhibition. To increase ticket sales and tourist population, the managers in National Forestry Recreation Area should hold the large nature-experience activity, such as cleaning mountain event, taxidermy exhibition, seasonal flower festival, and driftwood sculpture DIY (table 1).

3. **Holding the small social scale activities also increased both tourist population and ticket sales.**

When the researchers defined increasing both tourist population and ticket sales at the same time, the frequency of the small social scale activities also played an important role. The cultural and historical
guided tours, special events for minority groups could attract more participants and increase ticket sales.

4. The frequency of different scales and types activities intergraded impact on tourist population and ticket sales.

The range of dot location was smaller in figure 6 than figure 2 and 4, which meant the prediction was better when activity influenced tourist population and ticket sales at the same time than separated. Tourist population and ticket sales were influenced by types and scales of activities.

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DOES CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY MATTER TO THE HOTEL GUEST? DO GUESTS KNOW ABOUT SUCH POLICIES? A STUDY OF CHINESE HOTEL GUESTS’ PERCEPTIONS AND INTENTIONS TO STAY.

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INTRODUCTION

The research question posed in this study was, just how important is any consideration of a hotel’s corporate sustainable policies to its guests. The core services supplied by a hotel have been stated to be a comfortable bed in clean surroundings including hygienic bathroom facilities, a good night’s sleep, in a convenient location at an acceptable price (Lockyer, 2005). At this basic level competition between hotels may be based upon location and price, and subsequently degrees of comfort. This has meant hotels have sought to distinguish themselves by differences in décor, standards of furnishing, sizes of rooms and the availability of different facilities. These largely tangible features form the basis of star accreditation schemes and subsequently branding by chains of hotels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

From this starting point hotels have sought to appeal to their clientele by a range of means that include ease of booking through web pages or on-line booking and evaluation agencies such as C-trip or TripAdvisor, the creation of loyalty schemes such as IHG, the development of bonus points to be earned by frequent guests. It has been argued that an additional means of attracting clientele is through engaging in and then disseminating information about good citizenship practices associated with corporate social responsibility (CSR). Bowen (1954) provided one of the earliest definition of CSR, writing: “It refers to the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society” (p. 6). Those values are usually classified as responsibilities to customers, employees, the local community, wider society and the environment (Gu, Ryan, Bin & Wei, 2013).

In China the hotel industry has increasingly engaged in CSR prior to and then more so since the introduction of the Green Hotel Scheme in 20xx. Just how important this was to clientele was however doubted when in a survey of hotel websites in 2012 it was found that few actually mentioned such practices (Zhao & Ryan, 2012).

THE RESEARCH METHOD

For this study a sample of 817 respondents was collected based on filtering questions that established that all respondents had stayed in a hotel at least once in the previous 12 months. As it happened 75% had actually stayed in a hotel on at least three separate trips during that period. Of the stays approximately 35% were related to business trips. The questionnaire contained items that related to past behaviours, a section that contained a seven-point Likert type scale where ‘7’ represented the highest value complete with a non-response option in case a specific service had not been used – which section measured evaluations of hotels and perceived importance of hotel attributes, and then a final section that sought socio-demographic data.
THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Of the sample 45% were male and 55% female. About half were between the ages of 26 to 35 years of age. About 60% of the sample were married. About 80% of the sample indicated they received a monthly income of more than 8,000 RMB.

The perceptual measures were subjected to the usual tests of reliability including an assessment of the role of missing responses. Using the missing value option within SPSS 22.0 showed missing responses to be less than 2% for all but two items, and even in those cases they represented less than 5% of the total sample. Or the purposes of this working paper these missing values were then calculated using the EM option, but there were little differences in mean values for each of the options provided by the software. The size of sample was sufficient using the Westland algorithm for assessing sample size for structural equation modeling using the default settings prior to any calculation of regressions, while the Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.947 for the perceptual scale. Corrected item to scale correlations were high (usually in excess of 0.7), and alpha coefficients remained high for the scale when items were individually subtracted from the scale. Under these conditions it is not unknown for scales to tend to homogeneity when examining pattern of variance.

The first stage was to examine the descriptive statistics. These show that the great majority of scores were between 4 and 5 with the standard deviations having values of about 1.1 to 1.3. Consequently there were no issues of kurtosis, and skew was minimal. Thus the requirements of normal distribution of variables to have a normal distribution for undertaking regression analysis was being met.

The highest values were associated with perceptions of hotel service, implying that guests valued more the provision of service for them as guests rather than aspects that related to the core aspects of corporate social responsibility in terms of a hotel relationships with the wider community and environment. Of course there is a conundrum here in that guests were being asked to assess policies of the hotel in an environment where many commented that they had relatively little knowledge of the hotel’s actual CSR policy. Thus for the items ‘I think the hotel actively promoted the ideas of green initiatives to guests’, the mean score was 3.77, implying that the respondents tended to disagree with this statement. Equally guests scored similarly as to the item about a hotel’s policies and activities relating to charitable undertakings. They separately also tended to disagree when asked about how often they heard about a hotel’s CSR policy (mean = 3.64) and to what extent they were familiar with a hotel’s policies (mean = 3.71). Yet when asked if they would prefer to stay in a hotel that had an active CSR programme, the mean score increased to 5.34. On the other hand when asked if they would stay at such a hotel if it meant paying a higher price, the agreement was reduced to a mean of 4.41 (std.dev = 1.55) implying that while overall there was a slight degree of agreement with such a proposition, many would not be prepared to make such a sacrifice.

In order to examine causal relationships among CSR components and guests’ purchase intention, a model was developed. As Figure 1 shows, this model comprises five antecedents, namely guest perceived CSR publicity, four CSR practices dimensions (employee, guest, environment and community), two mediating variables (perception of hotel expertise and guest satisfaction), and one dependent variable - the intent to purchase a subsequent booking at a hotel. Three types of relationships were tested: first, influences of each mediator on purchase intention; second, influences of each antecedent on both mediators; and third, direct influence of guest perceived CSR publicity on purchase intention.

Using Lisrel 7.80 and omitting a number of stages in this research note, the results shown in Figure 1 were obtained.
DISCUSSION

It is suggested that the results imply a current situation where the hotel industry is still a hardware oriented business in China rather than a service-oriented one. This is consistent with arguments proposed by Z. Gu (2003) and it also implies something about guest expectations and preferences. In short hotel guests are more oriented toward the tangibles of rooms, lobbies and restaurants than the quality of service provided by staff. Indeed, it is possible that expectations of good service may be low. Secondly, this finding may also imply that such preferences emerge from the current stage of development in the Chinese economy and levels of income, in that value for money is measured by those (photographed) facilities rather than the intangible service side. These suppositions do provide directions for future research.

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CONSTRUCTION ETHIC AND CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY - TAIWAN HOTEL INDUSTRY’S PERSPECTIVE

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INTRODUCTION

International enterprise norms promote the implementation of corporate social responsibility (CSR). Enterprises must no longer simply pursue commercial profit, but must give something back to their community, making the two interdependent. Therefore, ethics and CSR have attracted increasing research attention to promote the sustainable development of society.

Since the growing phenomenon of global warming in recent years along with changes in the external business environment, companies face increasing stakeholder demands and pressures, environmental degradation, global climate change, and other factors. Enterprises must consider social morality, employment, social stability, environmental protection, consumer safety, brand, and competitiveness. CSR in the hotel industry has gained considerable research attention (Lane 1982; Stuckey and Jones 1996; Woods and Berger 1989; Holcomb et al. 2007). Manaktola and Jauhari (2007) focused on measures of environmental protection in Indian hotels and observed that consumers' willingness to pay more was not related to all the elements of CSR. Ayuso (2006) investigated Spanish hotels and observed that the main driving force for operators to take action was the pressure of individual consciousness, customers, and cost saving. Some scholars believe that CSR is related to ethics (Mintzberg 1983; Jones 2003; Moore 2003; Groves and LaRocca 2011). CSR has many definitions. Usually it refers to the company's activities, policies, and programs for developing an economic, social, and environmental-friendly society, which favors businesses and shareholders and is in line with the law (Carroll 1999; Holmes and Watts 2000; McWilliams and Siegel 2001; Tsoutsoura 2004). Carroll (1979) states that there are four aspects of CSR: economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic activities. Carroll’s definition of CSR has been modified in many studies (Harrington and Dennis 2001; Schwartz and Carroll 2003; Galbreath 2010; Lee et al. 2012; Smith, Wokutch, and Lee et al. 2013).

If a business does not receive support from its related community resources, it cannot operate smoothly. Therefore, the existence of the enterprise and its community environment are interdependent. A sustainable community development can not only create consumer demand, but also provide an enterprise with essential public assets and a favorable business environment (Porter and Kramer 2011). Studies have suggested that CSR with and financial performance are positively correlated (Rodriguez and Cruz 2007; Thomas and Eden 2004; Henderson 2007; Jones, Comfort, and Hillier 2006; Tsai et al. 2011). When undertaking CSR, a business easily connects with consumers; thus consumers are more inclined to be a part this enterprise (Sen and Bhattachary 2003).

The hotel industry today has to not only improve service quality and provide excellent accommodations, but also to include ethics and CSR into the corporate culture, making them the core values of policy management. When earning profits for shareholders and investors, the hotel industry can create economic and social value, and enhance corporate image, brand, and consumer recognition.
to create business continuity.

METHOD

Since previous studies to explore for Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility inked in almost all levels of focus on financial figures. (Rodriguez and Cruz 2007; Thomas and Eden 2004; Henderson 2007; Jones, Comfort, and Hillier 2006; Tsai et al. 2011). The industry can face up to its effectiveness in the face of non-financial performance, and take the initiative to show to the public the relevant indicators seriously. There is no generally accepted measure of consistency index for the hotel industry's "Ethical and corporate social responsibility".

The study takes qualitative research study designed to document research for qualitative analysis, conceptual architecture literature review and depth interviews, development of hotel industry ethics and corporate social responsibility; to analyze and confirm hotel industry hotel industry ethics and corporate social responsibility the framework and indicators, in order to learn guesthouse for between ethics and corporate social responsibility of the dimensions and guidelines affect the relationship. This study develops a new concept of consciousness from the perspective of the hotel industry's ethical values and CSR. Enhancing the relationship between CSR in internal and external environments for the employees and customers and the community helps to develop a more sustainable society.

This study, which interviewed 17 Taiwan tourist hotel industry executives, academics and relevant government officials, attempts to analyze the importance of ethics and CSR as crucial factors in long-term business value. The study takes qualitative research design and applies it to qualitative in-depth research interviews to confirm the CSR dimensions and indicators that the hotel industry should possess with Nnivo 10 analysing.

FINDINGS

The results of this study to develop a "hotel industry architecture Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility", comprises four facets and 16 criteria, see as Fig.1 Construction Ethic and CSR

![Fig.1 Construction Ethic and CSR](image)

1. Ethics and corporate social responsibility situational factors, including: ethical leadership, corporate ethical values, corporate ability. Respondents who have many years of hospitality experience have particular attention "to lead by example." They mostly played roles as facilitator, communicator and performer and lead by example and become subordinate model shape leadership style. Each tourist hotel has different core ethical value.
2. Ethics and Corporate Social Responsibility judgment, including organizational commitment, organizational trust, corporate (organization) culture.

In internal organizational culture, mutual respect for each other, we must be from our built mutual trust. We trust each other. Otherwise I cannot make my own teamwork.

3. Ethics and corporate social responsibility intentions and behavior, including: economic responsibility, environmental responsibility, philanthropic responsibility, education responsibility.

Most respondents believe that companies "taken from the community and giving back to the community". So, in addition to the donation, there are different themes in different types of activities every year.

4. Ethics and corporate social responsibility influence, including: corporate reputation, corporate brand equity, job satisfaction, turnover intention, customer loyalty, customer satisfaction.

Corporate practices ethical and CSR for internally (Corporate, employees) external influence (customer) arising corporate reputation and a good impression to the public arising from employee job satisfaction reduce the turnover rate, increase consumers, and improve the provision of services in line with expectations

CONCLUSION

This study explored the impact of ethics and corporate social responsibility use depth interviews of qualitative research methods with key people in industry. This study concluded that the induction of enterprises to implement the implementation of "social responsibility". It can indeed enhance corporate reputation and brand. On the one hand, it makes specific recommendations to the community that the spontaneous order allows enterprises to corporate citizenship as the goal. It suggested three considerations of acceptance, feasibility and validity should be given to industry. So that the different stages of the development of enterprises, according to their own specific situation to play, and implementation of "corporate social responsibility", effectively reduce the learning curve and the gap between competitors and potential competitiveness.

CSR is no longer only about donating money or maintaining public relations. An organization can devise a long-term strategy to generate profit. This study of ethical values was based on past literature, business leaders who use CSR and corporate behavior which has an impact on profits. This study is based on hotels industry in Taiwan engaging in CSR, the media that reinforces the CSR message and other information required to understand this phenomenon. The concept of ethics and corporate social responsibility of this research for development of hotel industry, this architecture is used to measure the reference standard of ethics and CSR to the stakeholders in the value of profits earned by the economic and social value of the important reference.

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THE INFLUENCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY, ABILITY, REPUTATION, AND TRANSPARENCY ON U.S. HOTEL GUESTS’ LOYALTY: THE MODERATING ROLE OF GENDER

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University of Missouri

INTRODUCTION

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is an important topic for both scholars and practitioners in recent decades. The literature has considered the inclusion of CSR in loyalty behavior models. A socially responsible image can differentiate a brand and enhance customer loyalty. Corporate ability (CA) is an important differentiator in a competitive business environment. Consumers may believe that a company that invests more in CSR compromises its CA development. Consumers use trade-off standards between CSR product features and corporate ability (Pomerling & Dolnicar, 2009). Corporate reputation (CR) has been connected to the term “corporate associations” (Brown & Dacin, 1997). The repute of hotels is related to the execution of CSR actions (Benavides-Velasco et al., 2014). Su et al. (2015) suggest that customer-perceived CSR events and CR are two intangible resources that might offer a viable benefit to a hotel. Recent studies indicate that the importance of transparency in ensuring effectiveness of companies’ CSR initiatives (Bhaduri & Ha-Brookshire, in press).

Building a loyal customer base is important because customer loyalty is important for a company’s growth (Kotler & Armstrong, 2008). It also underlies sustainable competitive advantages (Dick & Basu, 1994). The hospitality literature is replete with research on customer loyalty and its antecedents. Although there is a proliferation of studies on the antecedents and consequences of CSR, limited studies have investigated the integrated model including variables (i.e., corporate social responsibility, corporate ability, corporate reputation, and transparency) in the lodging industry. This research is an attempt to fill this void in the literature by investigating CSR initiatives in the hotel context. The aim of this research is to explore if four independent variables and how these influence customer loyalty within the hotel context. It also aims to explore how hotel customers differ in terms of corporate social responsibility, corporate ability, corporate reputation, and CSR related transparency across genders.

LITERATURE REVIEWS

The impacts of CSR and CA on customer loyalty
Brown and Dacin (1997) divided the dimensions into two types of corporate associations: corporate ability associations and corporate social responsibility associations. Corporate associations may help a company sustain a competitive advantage (Aaker, 1996). Corporate associations are related to a company’s commitment to its societal obligations, and CA is defined as “the company’s expertise in producing and delivering products and services” (Brown & Dacin, 1997). Customer evaluations and customer loyalty can be influenced by their perceptions of a company’s CSR efforts. Direct links between corporate ability and customer loyalty have been described (Hyun, 2010). Based on these findings we posit the following hypotheses:

H1. Perceived corporate social responsibility has a positive influence on overall customer loyalty toward a hotel.

H2. Corporate ability has a positive influence on overall customer loyalty toward the hotel.
The impact of corporate reputation on customer loyalty

In this research, we define corporate reputation as an independent metric (Melo and Garrido-Morgado, 2012). Reputation has been shown to positively affect behavioral outcomes (Gounaris & Stathakopoulos, 2004). A company’s reputation can increase customer loyalty (Caruana et al., 2004). We therefore propose:

H3. Corporate reputation has a positive influence on overall customer loyalty toward hotel.

The impact of CSR related transparency on customer loyalty

Transparency is defined as visibility and accessibility of information regarding business practices (Merriam-Webster, 2010). CSR performance motivates voluntary disclosure of CSR (Lyon & Maxwell, 2011). Customer loyalty is likely influenced by consumer perception toward a company’s efforts to be transparent (Kang & Hustvedt, 2014). Based on the above discussions, we propose the following hypothesis:

H4. CSR related transparency has a positive influence on overall customer loyalty toward hotel.

Gender differences in CSR, CA, CR, and transparency

There has been a quite heated debate over if and how gender differences may influence consumer responses to company social and environmental responsibility (Aouina et al., 2013). Hospitality researchers delineate gender similarities and differences in consumption behaviors (Kwun, D.J.-W., 2011). In addition, literature indicates that females are more easily affected by external information than males (Meyers-Levy, 1989). Compared to females, males will be less affected by information transparency (Bhaduri and Ha-Brookshire, 2015). We therefore propose:

H5. CSR, CA, CR, and transparency will be different across genders.

![Figure 1. Conceptual Model](image-url)

METHOD

The questionnaire and Data collection

The questionnaire used for this research was designed using established scales for all relevant constructs. Respondents were required to rate their perceptions for every item using a Likert-type scale that was anchored at 1 for (strongly disagree) and 5 for (strongly agree). The 490 responses from potential U.S. guests were collected, and 487 complete and usable responses were received.
FINDINGS

Sample profile
The demographic profile of respondents is presented in Table 1. Of the respondents, males and females were 49.1% and 50.9% of the sample, respectively. Respondents aged 25-34 accounted for 48.3%; the next largest age group was between 35-44 years in age (25.1%). Respondents’ ethnicity was primarily White/Caucasian (79.7%) followed by Asian (7.0%) and African American (6.4%). Nearly 16% of the respondents earned $30,000-39,999/year. Around 42.9% of respondents had some college education or an associates (two-year) degree.

Hypotheses testing
To research cause and effect, we conducted multiple regression model to evaluate the influence of four independent variables on customer loyalty. A t-test was run to determine whether the genders differed significantly on the study variables. CSR (b = .356, t = .516), CA (b = .190, t = .399), CR (b = .225, t = 1.515), and transparency (b = .235, t = .220) appeared to have significant effects on customer loyalty ($R^2 = .476$).

Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 are confirmed. The result reveals the value of CSR initiatives in terms of customer allegiance and further supports the assumptions from earlier work (e.g., Galbreath, 2010). Hypothesis 2 is consistent with previous contributions that demonstrate the importance of quality management in the hospitality industry to support and improve its competitiveness (Wang et al., 2012). In hypothesis 3, empirical studies have confirmed that corporate reputation has a positive influence on overall customer loyalty toward the hotel. In terms of Hypothesis 4, research has shown that CSR-related transparency has a positive influence on overall customer loyalty toward the hotel, which is consistent with prior findings. For Hypothesis 5, gender differences in our independent variables were found ($p < .001$).

DISCUSSIONS

In conclusion, CSR is not merely a core attribute of a hotel’s service offering to differentiate their images and keep the loyalty. Thus, this research contends that corporate ability and reputation, transparency, as well as CSR could be simultaneously implemented by hotel organizations to develop a valuable company strategy that provides a sustainable competitive advantage. These findings have several notable theoretical and practical implications. This research contributes to the hospitality literature and industry because their interests and executions are increasing in terms of hotel’s CSR activities. We will address more details of the findings, theoretical and practical implications, as well as limitations and suggestions for future research in our final paper.

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STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY ON HOTEL EMPLOYEES, TURNOVER INTENTION: ORGANIZATION IDENTIFICATION AS AN INTERMEDIARY

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INTRODUCTION

The Sixth Plenary Session of the 16th Central Committee adopted the "Several issues on CPC Central Committee on building a harmonious socialist society," according to the requirements, the effective way for enterprises to enhance competitiveness is establishing scientific outlook, carrying out Sustainable Development Strategies and realizing the comprehensive, coordinated and sustainable development of enterprises, society and environment. As an effective way for enterprises to enhance competitiveness and to build a harmonious society, CRS becomes more and more important. With the upgrading importance of human capital in the enterprise, human resources has become an effective way to enhance the competitiveness of enterprises. As a labor-intensive industries, the hotel industry is facing "labor shortage" and "rising labor costs" difficulties, high staff turnover rate always puzzles the HR managers and the hotel managers. Meanwhile, International, SA8000 and SA6000 CSR standard prevailed. In China, "Labor Law" and "Labor Contract Law" unveiled, the voice of protecting the interests of employees is growing louder and higher, which force the hospitality industry to face CRS correctly and to take the responsibility seriously.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Corporate social responsibility has close connection (March & Simon, 1958; Farooq, Payaud & Valette-Florence, 2013; Sites & Michael, 2011), and organization identification has significant impact on staff turnover (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004; Pratt, 1998). The influence factors on staff turnover have been studied by various literatures (Smion Booth, 2007; Henry Ongori, 2007), however no uniformed results has been reached (Deniz, 2013). Existed studies on hotel industry turnover intention were mostly concentrated on human resources perspective, studying the factors, turnover model, empirical research and suggestion, and the recommendations were focus on recruitment, career development and promotion, training and performance management system etc., which was not very significant. How to reduce staff turnover, control HR costs in hotel industry is a worthy study and urgent problem. Then, Xiangjin Li (2012) had found ways to help manufacturing industry out of the "labor shortage" and "rising labor costs" woods from the perspective of social responsibility, and came to the following conclusions: Firstly, corporate social responsibility effort can significantly affect the perception of its employee turnover intention and job performance. Secondly, the degree of company’s effort to fulfill CRS that employees perceived has a significant negative effect on employees’ turnover intention; Thirdly, the above conclusions always exist, in spite of the company’s different work strategy. Yumei Lu (2015) found a significant negative correlation between private enterprise CRS and employee turnover behavior through the interaction of CRS and turnover behavior. Yingdian Miu (2010) found that the legal dimension, economic responsibility and discretionary dimension of CRS and turnover intention have a negative correlation, though a survey of 210 Honda dealership staff. Koy S (2001) found that stakeholders have a negative impact on the employees’ turnover intention. Baptiste Bourdeau (2006) found that CSR have negative correlation with turnover intention. Thus, employee corporate social responsibility can
effectively enhance the organizational identification of employees, and reduce employee turnover (Turker, D., 2009). The above studies give us a new perspective, and this paper attempts to use the CSR prospective in hospitality industry, and to study the effect of CSR on turnover intention and to discuss the mediating role of organizational identification. Then try to provide effective management recommendations from empirical research. (Note: In this article CSR refer to enterprise internal staff social responsibility).

METHOD

Random sample research method has been used in this paper. Questionnaire instrument includes three parts namely corporate social responsibility (Kim, 2010; Roeck, 2012; Amann & Stachowicz-Stanusch, 2013; SA8000), organizational commitment (Maeland Ashfor, 1992) and staff turnover (Mobley etl, 1978). A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed with a response rate of 74.1%. The surveyed hotel staff are from hotels covering different types of hotels including luxury, medium, boutique and economic hotels. The subjects were from 10 cities, 53 hotels, including first-line departments and supporting departments. Quantitative techniques were used to test hypothesis using SPSS20.0 software. Independent samples T Test, One-way ANOVA and LSD have been used to analyze the different perceptions of CRS, organization identification and staff turnover from six dimensions between different sample.

FINDINGS

Firstly, our statistical results support the positive relationship between CRS and organizational identification, and negative relationship between CSR and turnover intention. The organization identification intermediary effect has also been supported.

Secondly, for the Hypotheses, The working condition dimension and participation in the management dimension have been supported. However, the human right guarantee dimension/system guarantee dimension/ attention to vulnerable dimension and fair and justice dimension were not supported.

Thirdly, different types of staff have different perception of the dimensions of corporate social responsibility.

Fourthly, different personal characteristic have different effect on organizational identification and turnover intention.

Finally, the high staff turnover rate in hospitality industry is not only a hotel issue, but also an industry issues.

SUGGESTIONS:

Based on the empirical study, it is suggested that:

Firstly, Pay great attention to employee’s corporate social responsibility, enhance employee Organizational identification.

Secondly, improve working conditions and encourage employees to participate in management.

Thirdly, combine the personalized management and the standardized management together.

Finally, Adhere to the "people-oriented management philosophy to enhance the attractiveness of the hotel industry.

Keywords:
Corporate Social Responsibility, Turnover Intention, Organizational identification, Hotel industry

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REFERENCES


ADAPTIVE CAPACITY OF THE LGUs ON CLIMATE CHANGE IN SELECTED TOURISM DESTINATIONS IN CAMARINES SUR

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INTRODUCTION

Climate change and adaptive capacity are two concepts that are rigorously studied by many researchers today. People need to be prepared when natural disasters happen. In tourism destination areas, the effects of climate change are felt and have been observed to hamper the development of the destinations and much more if it results to destruction of existing facilities. Climate change has a great effect on tourism destinations. The Stern Review stressed that it is economical to take proactive measures than reactive measures. (WTO and UNEP, 2008)

Camarines Sur is often visited by typhoons. Its location in the eastern seaboard of the Philippines makes it vulnerable to the typhoons that brew in the Pacific. In this situation, the tourism destinations are always affected by the occasional typhoons that visit the province, and the flooding and landslide that result. In effect, tourism cannot progress and cannot maximize its potential to contribute bigger revenue to the Local government where the destinations are located. Hence, while their tourism destinations are distinct, they are at risk.

This study has significantly looked into the adaptive capacity of the 16 Local Government Units of the Metro Naga Development Council (MNDC) where the tourism destinations are located and are basically disaster prone areas. Adaptive capacity is defined as the "ability to design and implement effective adaptation strategies, or to react to evolving hazards and stresses so as to reduce the likelihood of the occurrence and/or the magnitude of harmful outcomes resulting from climate-related hazards" (Brooks, Adger, and Kelly, 2005 as cited in climate-decision.org). Since the LGUs are the permanent structures that make decisions in the community, they are the key players in climate adaptation. LGUs and the locals may already have identified the hazards but addressing them remains to be the biggest challenge. Resources have to be analyzed the entire system in the community must be considered. CARE pointed out that resources affecting the adaptive capacity may be human, social, physical, natural, and financial. And “it is important to note that adaptive capacity can vary over time based on changing conditions, and may differ in relation to particular hazards”. www.careclimatechange.org

Mendis, S. et.al in 2003 suggested a process in conducting adaptive capacity assessments outlined in four phases. These are: developing the research strategy; developing a community-based set of indicators; data collection and analysis; and dissemination of results and policy formulation. Basically a strong linkage with the communities is needed to determine the community capacity to adapt on climate change. The MNDC member municipalities were involved in the study which is currently considering tourism as a potential economic driver. Further, through LED-LGSP, they have formulated their own Municipal Tourism Development Plan (MTDP) which needs to be implemented. The study perceives that the implementation will be sustained if the local players have a strong adaptive capacity.

OBJECTIVES, METHODS, AND FRAMEWORKS

OBJECTIVES

The study will primarily determine the extent of adaptive capacity of the LGUs in protecting the tourism destinations against climate change. Specifically, this study will:
1. Identify the tourism destinations in selected Municipalities in Camarines Sur.
2. Describe the climate hazards/risks in the tourism destinations as perceived by the locals.
3. Discuss the adaptation measures and approaches of the Local Government Units (LGUs)
4. Identify the common basic factors of adaptation measures in its planning and implementation.

**METHODS**

The study has used Participatory Action Research (PAR) which can be traced from the works of Paulo Freire and others in Latin America which emphasized on participation, capability building, ownership of knowledge and empowerment. It is basically an extractive and intellectual exercise in the local communities to bring real, visible organizational structures, effective local advocacy, and a durable change in power relations. The experience of IISD showed that the PRA approach has the most potential of all the methods described to secure the resources for sustainable livelihoods.

Specifically, Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and Key Informant Interview (KII) in the selected LGUs was undertaken for the information and data gathering procedure. About 5-10 key people were gathered to answer the focus questions prepared by the researchers.

The three selected LGUs namely Minalabac, Calabanga and Bula are members of the Metro Naga Development Council (MNDC) which is composed of 16 municipalities in Camarines Sur. The researchers decided to select the MNDC member municipalities because of the LED-LGSP they formulated their Municipal Tourism Development Plan (MTDP).

Primary and secondary data were used in the study. Primary data are those that have been generated from the FGDS and secondary data was taken from references in the LGUs and some internet sources relevant to the study. The Municipal Tourism Development Plan (MTDP) of the municipalities was also used as a secondary source.

**THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The study adopted the original framework of the Community Capacity Theory. The theory was introduced by Sharmalene Mendis, et. al in 2007 for the capacity of communities in ecosystem management and or sustainability of Biosphere Reserves. The framework, as early as 2003, also considers two concepts that are important in community capacity: these are community stability and community-well being. The theory further introduces approaches to community assessment to inform understandings of a community’s ability to adapt to climate change. It provides a framework for a more holistic understanding of concepts related to the social elements of climate change: vulnerability, resilience, and adaptive capacity.

The study of Mendis et al focused on 4 capitals: Ecological, Economic/Built in, Human, and Cultural and Social. Ecological capital refers to the natural endowments and resources of a region, including the stock of natural resources (e.g., trees, soil, genetic resources) and environmental services (e.g., nutrient cycling, carbon sequestration) (Deutsch et al. 2000; Schiller et al. 2001). The financial resources of a community, such as municipal budgets, along with its built infrastructure, such as utilities and business properties, comprise the economic-built capital of an area (Deutsch et al. 2000; Flora 1998). The study limits the economic-built capital to municipal budgets, and tourism infrastructures. Human capital concerns the skills, education, experiences, and general abilities of individuals, encompassing formal and informal education, traditional and local knowledge, job experience, health, entrepreneurship, and leadership (Côte 2001; Flora et al. 1992). Social and cultural capitals were collapsed under the rubric of social capital, which refers to relational aspects of society. In the context of ecosystem management, it is defined as “those features of social life—networks, norms, and trust—that facilitate citizen association and enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue shared objectives” (Cortner and Moote 1999, 92). Social capital is considered both a capital stock and a mobilizing force for collective action that includes associational relations within a community that bond, bridge, or link family, friends, community members, and even those beyond the reach of individual communities (Woolcock 2001).
The study modified the capitals by focusing on the Human, Social, Environmental, and Economic. The human capital includes the education of locals, their capacity, experiences in tourism related works such as tour guiding, food preparation and serving, making souvenir, involvement in transport services, etc, and their skills/general abilities. Social will be comprised of structures locally established, community projects developed to sustain tourism, local organizations (tourism related) created, and linkages developed. The environmental includes tourism destinations, level of uniqueness, destination competence, infrastructures developed in the tourism destinations. And lastly, the economic are the municipal budget, policy on tourism revenue/sharing of income from destinations established, proceeds identified.

Figure 1. Community Capacity Theory
(Adapted and modified from the study of Mendis-Millard, S. et.al., 2003 and 2007)

Figure 2. Conceptual framework of the study
The study have independent, intervening, and dependent variables. Independent variables are the Tourism destinations and climate hazards. Intervening variables are the factors and readiness of the LGUs along social, environmental, and economic aspect. Dependent variable is the adaptive capacity of the LGU which will be measured along ecological, economic/built-in, human, and social and cultural capital.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Three Municipalities were selected for the study; these are Minalabac, Bula and Calabanga in Camarines Sur. It was noted from the focused group discussions and interviews conducted, the presence of a Municipal Tourism Development Plan (MTDP) in the abovementioned municipalities which was formulated through a planning workshop in 2014. However, the lack of budget hinders the implementation of tourism development plans which obliged those Barangays with Community-based Tourism sites to initiate and adopt their own tourism procedures. Despite the limitations, one remarkable information the researchers found out was the local’s level of awareness on the importance of environmental education in particular the natural hazards and the potential future effects of climate change.

Calabanga is known for Busay Falls in Harubay and Kawit Island in Cagsao however the latter is the most visited which is likewise recognized for its mangrove and coastal ecosystem. Most of the fishes, fresh and dried sold in the Calabanga Public Market comes from Barangay Cagsao. The Barangay Captain said that the tourist arrival has increased in number when the scenic Kawit Island owner permitted the entrance for those who intend to visit the island. This provided additional income for the boatmen especially during summer where local tourists flock to Calabanga for an islet/island hopping and visit to the mangrove forest in Cagsao.

Among the three municipalities, Calabanga is the most advanced in terms of capacities of the locals to adopt to climate change. To ensure the continued growth of the mangrove seedlings, the locals themselves have been vigilant in monitoring the mangrove forest ensuring as well that illegal cutting of mangrove trees will be prevented. Some academic institutions has also tied up with Barangay Cagsao for the mangrove reforestation project, to name, Mariners’ Polytechnic Colleges Naga and Ateneo de Naga University that sends students to participate in the annual coastal clean-up drive and tree planting as part of their community outreach activity. In addition, the LGU Calabanga was able to sustain their partnership with NGOs such as CARE Netherland and Assistance and Cooperation for Community Resilience and Development (ACCORD) which projects implemented focuses on Disaster Risk Reduction and Climate Change Adaptation. ORIX Metro, a leasing and finance company is the newest partner of Calabanga in monitoring the mangrove forest.

The situation in Minalabac is quite different as compared to the two municipalities. The laid-back and rustic nature of the coastal towns in Minalabac has maintained its beaches unspoiled. Bagolatao, a distant Barangay in Minalabac is now one of Camarines Sur’s summer destination. Unlike other beaches, Bagolatao beach is unique for its pebbly nature and crystal clear water. Just recently, the Barangay officials discovered a fish sanctuary which is potential for diving spot.

Of the three municipalities, LGU Minalabac is the most problematic in addressing the concerns of the local officials in Bagolatao where the number of informal dwellers along the shore lines has increased from 34 households in 2013 to 75 in 2015 which faces high risk to natural disasters such as typhoon and storm surge. Proper waste disposal is also a raised concern of the residents. For years, the Barangay Bagolatao has been requesting the help of LGU Minalabac to relocate the informal settlers to a much safer place. To date, a relocation site was already identified but LGU Minalabac is still negotiating persistently with the land owner particularly on the land cost. Above all, the most crucial issue LGU Minalabac has to address which is considered as repeatedly mentioned by the informant, a longtime struggle in the municipality, is the political situation which impedes the potentials of Bagolatao as a tourist destination in Camarines Sur. Because of its highly-politicized nature, several plans and programs have not been pushed forward nor implemented including those on tourism and DRRM which the researchers think is a setback for the local government officials for they were not able to provide what is due to the people of Minalabac.

Bula, Camarines Sur is famous for its rich marine resources, huge rock formations and caves.
Itangon is a far-flung coastal barangay in Bula where the caves and rock formations “Masereta” and “Bagodilla” and Itangon Island can be found. Accessibility is the main problem in Itangon the locals sees as the cause of underdevelopment in terms of economic, social and physical aspect. Communication is also difficult since network signals are very limited. The researchers learned that as far as the Barangay Captain can remember, no one has ever been to Itangon to provide on-site trainings or seminars for the community, not even once. As Barangay official, it was a great privilege for them to be invited as participant/s to trainings or seminars sponsored by the Local Government Unit of Bula or a certain government agency.

Since Camarines Sur is regularly visited by typhoon which is prone to storm surges, flooding and landslide, residents living along the coastal lines of Calabanga, Minalabac and Itangon has always been prepared and in fact take on some simple mechanisms in responding to natural disasters. In Cagsao, Calabanga, a bell is used as a warning device to inform residents of the water level. Gabions were gradually constructed along the shores to prevent flooding and reduce the possible damage of storm surge. The local government of Bagolatao, Minalabac and Itangon, Bula on the other hand makes sure that during strong storms and typhoons, residents along the shorelines most especially the informal settlers have already been evacuated to the designated areas for evacuation.

It can be noted too that these municipalities does not have Municipal Tourism Officers yet which is mandated in the RA 9593 or the Tourism Act of 2009. Most importantly, each LGU should have climate proof policies for tourism activities which is deemed important not only to promote tourism, document tourist arrivals but for a more coordinated response between and among the local officials and tourists as well under any circumstances.

**Implications**

With the findings presented, implications for non-compliance to the mandates may have effect to the delivery of services specifically in this study on the LGUs capacity to implement methods or procedures to the changing environment. The earth’s climate is changing and is unpredictable. Not one will be spared by its effect especially those who are living in high risk areas. The Local Government Units should not only incorporate tourism in their DRRM plans and programs but must be serious in its implementation. If the LGUs will continue to be complacent with this concerns, this may cause unwanted consequences. Informal settlers in Bagolatao, Minalabac, should be relocated before another strong typhoon occur. From the records presented where the number of squatters or informal settlers continue to rise every year, the number could still double in few years’ time creating more threats to the coastal ecosystem and compromising their safety to natural disasters. Health is at risk with poor sanitation and hygiene, given that waste are not properly disposed, and until now some of the household does not have toilet and potable water yet that may cause illness and other diseases.

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<th>Calabanga</th>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>Analyzing potential changes in tourist flows, adapt products, marketing, and positioning rather than waiting for the arrival to decline</td>
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<td>Strengthen enabling environment for tourism adaptation measures</td>
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<td>Locate new tourist facilities in low risk areas</td>
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<td>Promote environment mgt practices to protect natural ecosystems</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


Table 1 shows the Local Government Units response to climate change through the provision
of environment and tourism related programs, projects and activities in each locality. The researchers have also looked into the availability of documents such as resolutions, ordinances, executive orders, and other related documents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human</th>
<th>Calabanga</th>
<th>Minalabac</th>
<th>Bula</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Education is a priority program of LGU</td>
<td>increasing number of youth going to school</td>
<td>-distance is an obstacle for some youth to pursue their schooling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locals capacitated</td>
<td>-Calabanga active CSOs capacitated</td>
<td>-requested to have more trainings on environmental awareness especially for the informal settlers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiences in tourism related work-tour guiding, food preparation and serving, souvenir making, involvement in transport services, etc.</td>
<td>-needed more skills training on tourism and food service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skills/general abilities(same with above)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structures locally established</td>
<td>Mangrove reforestation</td>
<td>Clean up drive</td>
<td>Clean and green program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community projects developed to</td>
<td>Transport, youth, women, fisherment</td>
<td>Transport, youth, fisherment</td>
<td>Women, fisherment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sustain tourism</td>
<td>Academe</td>
<td>academe</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local organizations (tourism related) created</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linkages developed</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environmental</th>
<th>Mangrove forest, island/islets</th>
<th>Fish sanctuary Beach</th>
<th>Rock formations, caves, beach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism destinations</td>
<td>Accessible none</td>
<td>Accessible none</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of uniqueness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination competence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructures developed in the tourism destinations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Not priority</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Not priority</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion in the Municipal budget</td>
<td></td>
<td>Not yet established</td>
<td>none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy on tourism revenue/sharing of income from destinations established</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proceeds identified</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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tourism/publications/community_capacity.pdf.


IMAGE OF THAILAND AS A BUSINESS TOURIST DESTINATION FROM THE PERCEPTION OF BUSINESS AND LEISURE CHINESE TOURISTS

Bongkosh Rittichainuwat
Siam University
Judith Mair
University of Queensland
Dong (Bruce) Yang
 Qingdao Vocational and Technical College of Hotel Management

INTRODUCTION

While Chinese tourists are the top tourist arrivals to Thailand, many Thai service providers and residents perceive that the large number of Chinese tourists to Thailand does not significantly contribute to the local economy. Since Chinese tour operators tend to use the Chinese suppliers in Thailand, local Thai suppliers do not benefit from the Chinese market due to leakage. Moreover, some tourist behavior of Chinese tourists such as speaking loudly in public areas and violating privacy by taking photos of local residence without permission have annoyed local residents. Consequently, Minister of Tourism and Sports of Thailand announced strategies to increase more quality instead of quantity of Chinese tourists to Thailand by promoting Thailand to Chinese business travelers. This study aims to assess whether there is any difference in the image of Thailand as a business tourist destination from the perception of leisure and business Chinese tourists to Thailand.

LITERATURE REVIEWS

Taking photos of famous places appear to be common activities of leisure tourists (Pearce 1982). In other words, taking photos, going to famous places, and only staying briefly in one place are stereotypes of common activities of both tourists and travelers (Pearce 1982, Pearce 2005). In addition, activities such as taking photos in front of major overseas landmarks and showing them to their friends and relatives link back to travel motivations by satisfying an individual’s need for increased self-esteem, given that outbound travel is often considered to be status oriented (Wong and Lau 2001). In the Asian context, outbound travelers on group tour packages have been found to prefer traveling in groups and taking lots of photos (Kim et al. 2009). However, the seemingly clear links between activities preferred that are visible in the leisure tourism market are far harder to discern in the business travel market. Business events such as Meeting, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE) are a major segment of the international tourism market and of economic significance to many countries worldwide (Dwyer and Tanner 1999; Getz 2008; Kim and Chon 2009; Lee and Back 2007; Mestilis and Dwyer 1999). However, to date scant attention has been paid to understanding why particular destinations motivate business delegates to visit them, or how MICE delegates choose to spend their free time at a destination. Business tourists are traditionally ‘time-poor’ (Jago and Deery 2005). Their perception toward leisure activities at a host destination may be different from leisure tourists. Hence, this study aims to assess whether there is significant difference in the perception towards a host tourist destination between leisure and business tourists.

METHODLOGY

To test the hypothesis, Thailand was used as a host tourist destination whereas Chinese tourists were used as the subjects. The instrument of this study was a self-administered survey questionnaire. The questionnaire contained three sections: travel behavior, the image of Thailand from the perception
of Chinese tourists and demographic profile. The respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each of the 18 image attributes on a 5-point semantic differential scale that ranged from 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent). The last part of the questionnaire contained questions to establish a demographic profile. The data collection took place at Bangkok International airport. A total of 204 returned and completed questionnaires were included in this study. Regarding the data analysis, ANOVA was used to assess any significant difference in the image of Thailand from the perception of Chinese leisure and business tourists.

RESULT

ANOVA found a significant difference between leisure and business tourists on easy to get visa to Thailand (F=5.662, p < 0.018) and immigration (F=5.86, p < 0.016) in which leisure Chinese tourists had higher rating. This implies that Chinese leisure tourists were more likely to perceive that it is easier to get a tourist visa to Thailand and passed through the immigration than Chinese business travelers. The result is in line with the current practice of Thai immigration bureau in issuing a non-tourist-visa to Chinese tourists. Since there are many Chinese tourists who migrate to Thailand to open business and settle down, Thai customs immigration has issued strict business visa for Chinese business tourists than leisure tourists. Meanwhile, Thai government wants to increase more number of business tourists with short stay such as MICE. Hence, the result of this data can be used to design strategies to entice more business Chinese tourists to Thailand.

REFERENCES

METEORIC CHANGE OF CHINESE CRUISE MARKET AND PROSPECTS ON JAPANESE DESTINATIONS - A CASE STUDY OF FUKUOKA BETWEEN 2010 AND 2015-

Ryoji Maeshima

JTB Kyushu Corp.

INTRODUCTION

Source market of cruise in P.R. China grew up to 697,316 persons in 2014. (CMC2015,p.28) Especially development of East Asian cruise since 2006, especially, leads obvious explosion with the growth of 79% (2013-2014). Among its main destination "Japan", Fukuoka (Port of Hakata) is in the ideal geographical location from Shanghai and Tianjin for operating 5days to 7days short cruise products, and suddenly came up to the Japanese top port accommodating foreign cruise ships in 2010. Gaining 115 port calls in 2014, 259 in 2015, over 400 wharf reservations are already requested in 2016, and most of them are the megaships from mainland China.

Consumption amount of Chinese cruise passengers is calculated as from US$190 (Think-Nagasaki 2007) to US$375 (URC 2011) per person per day, and it boosted not only cruise port promotion and improvement of port facilities by local governments but also simplification of immigration procedure and visa waiver for cruise passenger in the national government level. On the other hand, the over capacity demand spew our wrong influences as like "shortage of coaches", "illegal parking and traffic jam around tourist facilities and shopping facilities caused by coaches","guiding by illegal workers" and "benefit shift to the high-commission souvenir shops" in Fukuoka and other destinations in Kyushu. Those are brewing recent allergic reaction of local resid-ents and tourism stake holders to Chinese megaships. Cruise passengers themselves may already have negative feelings and "dissatisfaction" to the destination and Japan. In the circumstances under more megaship assignments by new participants as like MSC, Carnival and Aida in 2016 and after, the situation seems to go worse.

The purpose of this paper is to implicate coming market change of the Chinese cruise market and its influence to Fukuoka, then to propose necessary actions to Japanese cruise destinations.

METHOD

Author, with career in in/outbound travel product bundling and strategy for more than 25 years at Japan Travel Bureau Corp., makes "a product bundling model" of typical shore excursion in Fukuoka. In the comparison of 2010 and 2015, the paper finds changes of "tour operator", "tour itinerary", "product items to be bundled", "cost estimation and quality of each product item" and "profit making structure".

Insight interviews were done to local shore excursion stake holders for finding important changes and causes on "operational problems" and "economic value evaluation". Also looking through the capacity increase from Chinese ports and changes in business conditions, the author tried to find principal causes of market change from the outbound end.

For implicating future changes, application of "the information asymmetry theory" by Chen, Y. Schuckert, M., Sing, H and Chon, K.(2015) was chosen as the most suitable recent academic finding.

FINDINGS
Table 1. Shore Excursion Product Bundling Model in Fukuoka and Profit Simulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Travel Agent</th>
<th></th>
<th>Profit per coach</th>
<th>Total Cost</th>
<th>COM-1</th>
<th>coach</th>
<th>guide</th>
<th>lunch</th>
<th>addmission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>Payment</td>
<td>COM-1</td>
<td>COM-2</td>
<td>from TAI</td>
<td>from shop</td>
<td>from shop</td>
<td>TO</td>
<td>Payment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(JPY 8,000)</td>
<td>to TAI</td>
<td>from TAI</td>
<td>from shop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>to TAI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 Case-1</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015 Case-1</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>420,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010 Case-1</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>620,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>600,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Ships from the Seas 2010-2015 Quantum of the Seas 2010-2015
Case 1: under the setting with "appointed shop pays @$500/person to tour operator."
Case 2: "Travel Agent pays @$400/person to tour operator."
Case 3: under the setting with "travel-agent require commission @$500/person from tour operator."
Case 4: "travel-agent require @$10,000/person from tour operator."
In 2015, tour operator implicated to be enforced to get @$20,000-15,000/person from the shop.

Table 2. Comparison of Typical Shore Excursion; 2010 and 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Itinerary</th>
<th>admission</th>
<th>Passenger satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>8 hours</td>
<td>Port / Dazaifu (Dazaifu Tenmangu-Shrine, Kyushu National Museum) / lunch / Fukuoka Tower / Free Shopping at Tenjin (2-3 hours) / Port</td>
<td>JPY220 / JPY460</td>
<td>Total: 90.1% (n=805) fully yes : 39.8% partially yes : 59.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>8 hours</td>
<td>Port / Dazaifu (Dazaifu Tenmangu-Shrine, Kyushu National Museum) / lunch / Fukuoka Tower / Free Shopping at Canal City shopping mall including TAX Free souvenir shop (2-3 hours) / Port</td>
<td>JPY220 / JPY460</td>
<td>not available</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Items marked with "**" can be skipped according to the condition between Chinese travel agents and tour operator.
In 2015, over 90% of cruise departures are chartered by Chinese travel agents and shore excursions are directly arranged to the Chinese tour operators in Fukuoka.

Table 3. Change of the Problems on Cruise Industry; 2010 and 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Speed of immigration procedure</td>
<td>• Shortage of coach and driver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Low profile of Fukuoka (only 23.3%, n=660)</td>
<td>• Last minutes cancelation of coach reservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• VISA procedure and cost</td>
<td>• Traffic jam at Dazaifu and around shopping mall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Negative feeling to China (77.8% negative)*</td>
<td>• Shopping shift to a few commissionable shops</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Shortage of licensed guides</td>
<td>• Increase of non-licensed guides and illegal workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Necessity of new guid license system</td>
<td>• Negative reaction by local residents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Chinese language at tourist facilities and shops</td>
<td>• Negative reaction by tourism state holders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Coach parking space at Tenjin</td>
<td>• Increase of full-booked days of wharves</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2010 - URC 2011, 2015 - interview from tour operator, coach company, port authority, tourism organization and guide company.

Table 4. Chinese Cruise Market Change in East Asian Cruise; 2010 and 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All P.R.China passengers</th>
<th>East Asian Cruise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cruise lines</td>
<td>ships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>216,700 (2012)</td>
<td>2*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>697,316 (2014)</td>
<td>10***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** = Costa, RCL, Princess (USA), SkySea (RCL+C-Trip), HNA (China), Bohai (China);
*** = Costa3, RCLx3, 1 for rest 4 cruise lines, **** except Japanese ships and world cruises.
Capacity calculated with lower beds basis.

Most significant change of shore excursion itinerary is the shopping place from "Tenjin" area to "Canal City" shopping mall. (table.2) New factor is "high commission able TAX Free souvenir shop" operated by overseas Chinese capital at Canal City.
The shop plays most important role of minimize operational cost in the product bundling model (table.1) by maximize shopping commission to the tour operator. As comme-nted in the table3, Chinese mainland travel agents tend to contract with
tour operators with requirement of US$45 - 80 person without paying any tour cost. Tour operators are enforced to compensate minus account with shopping commission, and also cont-ract with tour guides, most of them are illegal, and pay guiding fee according to the shopping amount. Since operational rules and pricing are quite strict in Japan on the tour coach, coach chartering cost is secured to be paid without any discount and co-n-siders to share almost 25% of the product bundling cost in the 2015 model. (table.1) Tour operators are now strongly depend on the shopping commission and enforced to hedge from any financial risk by reducing each product item cost.

On the day when two megaships, Costa Serena (3,780 passengers) and Quantum of the Seas (4,180 passengers) for example, embark at Hakata Port, more than 200 of coaches will drive into the city downtown for shopping. There happens heavy traffic jam and illegal parking for getting on/off. Local residents feel unhappy to bear these and also former cruise business stake holders get negative to the Chinese megaships.

Cruise passengers are controlled to minimize shopping time at Dazaifu where a lot of traditional shops are located and enforced to buy highly marked up items at "high commissionable TAX Free souvenir shop". This makes quite large "Information Asymmetry"(Chen, Schuckert, Sing, Chon 2015), between cruise passengers' expectation and tour operator's products supply. And it is considered to cause high risk of hinder-ance of cruise tour consumption in Chinese market.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Past researches suggest that the most of product bundled package tours which is often used for strategical new destination development are replaced by individual type travel products as like skeleton type (transportation and hotel) and individually arran-ged travel eventually in not a few countries including Japan. (Chen, Schuckert, Sing, Chon 2015; pp.8-11) East Asian megaship cruise has been strategically utilized as the product bundled package providing "short" and "cheap" Japan for Chinese emerging international travel market. Japanese destinations have been strongly interested in cruise pas-sengers' "Bakugai (explosive purchasing)". However, recent strongly competitive market circumstances caused higher profitability in shore excursions for compensating tour price reduction in China, and caused obvious degradation of the tour products. It caused a large "information asymmetry" between expectation of 87% first time fo-reign travelers(URC 2011) and supplied low quality shore excursion and dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction on the shore excursion is considered to enlarge under coming capacity expansion in 2016 and after by new participants as like MSC, Carnival and Aida.

Dissatisfaction in the cruise market may pull the trigger accelerating "individual-ization" of traveling. The author implicates following three types and the shore excursions strongly depend on the high commissionable souvenir shops will face the end.

① individualization of cruise tour consumption and development of direct selling
② increase of individually conducted tourism and shopping behavior in destinations
③ development of skeleton package (air & hotel) and LCC oriented individual travel

Japanese cruise destinations must prepare for situation ② from now on. As the majority of the cruise passengers are first time foreign travelers (URC 2011) and 63% are 30s to 50s.(CMC 2015), the key is to minimize "information asymmetry" between passengers' expectation and land contents. Within the limited landing time, the new systems which realize passengers expectation, as like "language support", "transporting system to major tourism and shopping facilities", "enlarging tourism contents line-up", are strongly recommendable for getting repeating travelers both in cruise and airline travelers. Also in advance information supply must be very important to avoid wrong or too much expectation growth.

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ESTABLISHMENT OF TOURISM CENTER IN BATAAN PENINSULA STATE UNIVERSITY

Joanne Lobrino
Bernadeth Gabor
Anne Regina Lim
Bataan Peninsula State University

INTRODUCTION

The Theory of Knowledge is first and foremost theory to be considered in terms of knowledge. Travis Smith stated six categories of the general theory of tourism that includes learning, eating, buying, seeing, doing and meeting. Gray’s travel-motivation theory, gives two motives why people go to natural settings. The first motive is the desire to go from a known to an unknown place, called in Gray’s theory “wanderlust”. Secondly, a place “which can provide the traveler with specific facilities that do not exist in his or her own place of residence”, referred to as ‘sun lust’.

PROJECT OBJECTIVES

The output of the study will be focused on the following areas:
• To identify the perception on travel and tourism of both the BPSU community and the tourism industry in general.
• To analyze the needs of respondents on travel and tourism as a basis for the establishment of a University Travel and Tourism Center.
• To be able to produce travel and tour packages to different colleges in the BPSU – Main Campus based on the needs identified.
• To offer training programs to B.S. TM students based on the needs analysis conducted.
• To recommend viable areas for development in the Proposed Tourism Center to ensure efficiency as an income-generating project of the university.

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

The needs of each college were assessed in terms of their field exposure to competitively offer travel and tour packages that will be beneficial to them. This will be more accessible and convenient for the coordinators and their respective deans. Factors such as well-organized tour packages, curriculum-based tours and considerable prices will be given to prospective clients once the center has been established.

The training programs for the students will be useful as they can apply the knowledge and skills in their practicum during their terminal year in the university. The project components aim to provide additional income for BPSU.

METHODOLOGY

The proponents used descriptive method of research and distributed more than 1,000 survey questionnaires using purposive sampling technique to the target population mainly students, faculty members and deans of different colleges in BPSU – Main Campus. The retrieved questionnaires numbered 1059.

The gathered data were treated statistically using IBM’s Statistical Programs for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0.

FINDINGS

The following presents the profile of the respondents. One thousand and fifty-nine (1,059) questionnaires were retrieved and majority of the respondents are students of BS Hotel and Restaurant Management and BS Tourism Management students (a total of 594 respondents coming mainly from the Main Campus; other respondents came from campuses with HRM programs such as Orani, and Dinalupihan campuses). A bulk of respondents were female (81%) with an average age of 17-18. In terms of monthly family income (MFI), the average is 12,000-15,000.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>858</td>
<td>81.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>Unit</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Bagac Campus</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>College of Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>College of Business and Accountancy</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>College of Engineering and Architecture</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>College of Information and Communications Technology</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>College of Nursing and Midwifery</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>College of Education</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>College of Social and Behavioral Sciences</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>Dinalupihan Campus</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>6.2</td>
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<td>29</td>
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<td>.2</td>
<td>Orani Campus</td>
<td>87</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>Program</td>
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<td>32</td>
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<td>B Elementary Education</td>
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<td>33</td>
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<td>36</td>
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Travel and Tourism as a Concept

Travel and tourism is not a new concept for many Filipinos. However, the knowledge on tourism is understood only in terms of visiting or going to a new place. Travel and tourism is wider in scope. Other than transporting people to new places, travel and tourism other services such assistance with accommodation and helping with sightseeing and activities. The jobs also include travel agents, wholesalers, tour operators, reservations consultants, hotel staff and a variety of executive positions. (travelindustrycareers.org, 2015).

Perception on Field Trips

The level of agreement of respondents on school field trips as beneficial in effective learning, promotion of qualities among students, and benefits for society and individuals. Experiences is central to schools’ educational mission: schools exist not only to provide economically useful skills in numeracy and literacy, but also to produce civilized young men and women who would appreciate the arts and culture, nature, real-life settings, and other related venues through the conduct of field trips or educational trips.

The External Needs Analysis respondents also view the importance of field trips in effective learning, promotion of quality education, and its eventual benefits to society and individuals as shown in the solid “Strongly Agree” responses.

Importance of Tourism Center

A visitor center or centre visitor information center, tourist information center, is a physical location that provides tourist information to the visitors who tour the place or area locally (Uzumaki, 2010). As such, the importance of tourism information center or travel and tourism center is also evaluated among the internal respondents. Specifically, the respondents were asked on the importance of such center if established inside the BPSU campus.

Features of Travel and Tourism Center

Travel and tourism center is a hub for multiple services for management of travel plans and tourism itineraries. The proposed center for BPSU as assessed by the internal respondents (Table 18A) need to primarily focus on the following areas once established: (1) making travel arrangements for clients, (2) travel ticket booking and reservations, (3) Hunting for the best prices on services from travel tickets to hotel accommodations and even event tickets, (4) Creating travel itineraries according to their clients’ interests, and (5) Hotel booking and reservations.

CONCLUSION

The establishment of a University Tourism Center poses high viability. Its huge potential as training ground for Tourism Management and Hotel and Restaurant Management students of BPSU as well as an income-generating project (IGP) could be tapped, guided by the internal and external needs analysis presented in the above discussions.

Key areas for development in the proposed Travel and Tourism Center include the high need for information campaign on tourism education, inclusion of tourism education in the university’s curriculum, positive perspective on field trips, the perceived importance of travel and tourism in both training and social/economic areas, as well as the expected/considered attributes of destinations must be analyzed and included in the center’s core services.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the needs analysis results discussed in the results of the study, the following are strongly recommended:

1. Establish a Tourism Center as an efficient training ground and a viable educational income-generating institution of the University. This center would serve a number of purposes including but not limited to:

   a. A space which would promote the tourist attractions/services and contribute to an increase in visitors to the province. This would include information on various historical attractions in the province and other related activities;
   b. A designated departure point for visitors to the province;
   c. Space for visitors to meet and shelter prior to a trip;
   d. A retail outlet for tickets and permits to various local destinations;
e. Space for arts, educational and interpretive material.

2. Information dissemination campaign of travel and tourism is an identified need. All forms of information dissemination must be utilized in order to tap the vast potential of tourism industry in the province, as well as to market the services of the center. The core roles of the information dissemination shall be:

a. Provide visitors with free and impartial information and advice on tourism opportunities;
b. Book tourism operators product (accommodation, activities and attractions, rental cars, motor homes, tours and transportation); and Provide advertising opportunities for the tourism industry.

c. Provide visitors with face to face and digital interaction and play a role in encouraging visitors to expand their understanding of a destination, what it has to offer, purchase tourism experiences, and can act as a key contact point that encourages visitors to stay the location longer and become advocates for the destination once they arrive back home.
d. Provide preliminary costings for the options;
f. Identify risks, opportunities, costs and benefits;
g. Identify potential finance and ownership models potential sponsors and partners;
h. Recommend a preferred option.

3. The perceptions of tourists and a look at the tourists preferred attributes for destinations must be included in the center’s over-all plan. The needs analysis reveal that a marketing plan will need to be put in place that markets the center to all kinds of tourist, students and the academe in particular.

4. In addition to this needs analysis, a feasibility study should be conducted to:

a. review the rationale for a visitor centre or gateway for BPSU;
b. identify the needs and aspirations of key stakeholders;
c. identify the market and demand for a visitor centre;
d. identify and assess potential locations;
e. identify and assess potential build options;
f. identify design parameters.

REFERENCES


SAN MIGUEL DE MAYUMO’S PASTILLAS DE LECHE PABALAT
(BORLAS DE PASTILLAS): A “DYING” CULTURAL HERITAGE?

Shirley V. Guevarra
University of the Philippines

INTRODUCTION

This is a cultural study on what is considered as a “dying” cultural heritage of San Miguel de Mayumo in Bulacan town north of the Philippines - the production of the pabalat (wrappers) of the pastillas de leche, a candy made from curdled carabao’s milk and sugar. The pabalat is a product of the traditional art of making cut out wrappers for this sweet delicacy and is believed to have been facing extinction (Santos, 2010). Despite the rich history that accompanies the pabalat of the pastillas, the current generation of local folks in San Miguel appears to have increasingly lesser involvement in the industry. Thus, the study aims to investigate this claim by historicizing such tradition of making pabalat and situating its relevance in the lives of the local folks. It also finds significance from its attempt to help create awareness on the importance of preserving the San Miguel de Mayumo’s traditional pastillas de leche and its pabalat. Hopefully, this study will specifically cultivate an appreciation by the locals of the role and significance of this cultural heritage in defining their identity and the food culture of their municipality.

Considered as a fading industry and art tradition, probably affected by commercialization and modernization, the result of the study will provide a baseline data for the government such as the local government of San Miguel, the Department of Tourism and the National Historical Institute in effecting a renewed campaign or effort to preserve and revitalize it. The study will also provide classroom materials to academics particularly those who teach courses in tourism, hotel and restaurant management, and business management and social science. It also seeks to help create awareness among the stakeholders on the importance of this unique tradition and catalyze efforts toward its preservation. Stakeholders include the locals, the consumers, the community and, the local government unit and its agencies, among others.

Specifically, the study aims to: 1) Trace the roots of the traditional way of making San Miguel de Mayumo’s pastillas de leche’s pabalat; 2) Interpret the meanings and symbolism conveyed by the pabalat designs and how these relate to the lives of the stakeholders; 3) Situate the art form’s role and significance in the lives of the locals and San Miguel de Mayumo as seen from the lens of the locals, the producers and the consumers; and 4) Establish the current interest and/or efforts of the locals and the local government unit in sustaining the art of making the pastilla’s de leche’s pabalat.

RELATED LITERATURE

San Miguel de Mayumo

San Miguel is considered as one of the farthest yet more progressive towns of Bulacan, a province located north of Manila. The official website of Bulacan (http: www.bulacan.gov.ph/sanmiguel/history.php) describes that the town connects Bulacan and the nearby Pampanga, being at the fringes of the former. The town was named Miguel in honor of the Miguel Pineda and mayumo, a Pampango term for “sweet” or sugar, the town being once a part of Pampanga (Fernando,1993, p. 59). The people affixed the word, “San” to the name as a form of reverence to the discovery of the image of Arcangel by a local. Thus, the town was named, San Miguel de Mayumo. With a land area of approximately 20,856.5 hectares and 49 barangays, the town is bounded on the north by the plains of Gapan, Nueva
Ecija, in the northeast by Dona Remedios Trinidad, Bulacan; in the southeast by San Ildefonso, Bulacan and in the northwest by the swamps of Candaba, Pampanga. Among its major sources of livelihood are food/food processing, garments, marble/marble processing and metal craft. Major products include sweets and delicacies, bakeries, ice cream, marbles, balut (boiled duckling) and juices (http: www.bulacan.gov.ph/sanmiguel/history.php. Fernando (1992, p.59) enumerates these sweets as yema (sweet confections from eggs and milk), tocinodel cielo (custards), banca-banca (tarts), suspiros (meringue), petit fours (tea cakes) and turrones (fried rolled confections with fillings like nuts, sweetened banana, etc). However, the town claims to be the home of the pastillas de leche that was made famous by its pabalat or wrapper.

San Miguel’s Pastillas de leche and its Pabalat

Pastillas de leche is a milk candy that is traditionally made from two ingredients namely: pure carabao’s milk and white sugar. Fernando (1992, p. 59) describes the cooking as laborious, slow cooking over charcoal with a long bamboo paddle as stirrer. The author also identified variant flavors such as dayap (lime), cheese or ube (purple yam). These days however, this product evolved into the more commercialized version made of condensed milk or full cream powdered milk. San Miguel’s traditional pastillas de leche boasts of its unique wrapper or pabalat, a paper cut out of Japanese paper or papel de japon. No written account exists on how this product originated. It was just handed down from generation to generation among the local families (http: www.bulacan.gov.ph/sanmiguel/history.php.). The wrappers are hand-crafted from Japanese paper and made distinct because of its delicate and varying colors. A pabalat is wrapped around each pastillas and twisted on both ends. Fernando (1992, p. 60) refers to the candies as having “exquisite tails” laden with designs such as “anahaw leaves, bahay kubo (native hut), harps, flowers and words of felicitation like “Recuerdo” (remembrance).” Choudhury (1997) further describes this tail as about 15-20 centimeters long and depicts ornate designs of flowers, leaves, birds and landscapes.” Alejandro, Gamboa and Santos (2003, p.3) posit that the pabalat is an “expression of the Filipinos’ sentimental longings.” The authors also explain that is “a fusion of ancient Chinese art of paper-cutting and European fin-de-siecle art nouveau.” Archaeological diggings in China revealed paper cuts which dated back to the 4th century. The Chinese brought the art to the Philippines with the surviving version found in San Miguel de Mayumo.

METHOD

This research used the case study method and the qualitative approach in collecting data. Specifically, the research used the key informant and participant-observation methods. The latter was conducted during the production of the pabalat to validate the responses.

The respondents were selected through convenience sampling. The participation of the establishments will depend on their willingness to be disturbed/interviewed. The researcher started gathering data last December 2015 in San Miguel and Sta. Maria, Bulacan. The customers were interviewed in Quezon City and Manila.

Separate semi-structured questionnaires used for the face-to-face interview are composed of two parts: the first section established the socio-demographic profile of the respondents (age, educational attainment, income, number of years in the pastillas de leche industry) and the second part, their personal thoughts about the pastillas de leche pabalat. This set of questions were also used for customers except for some additional information like occupation, no. of years as patrons of the product, how much is spent per transaction, how many times product is bought per year. Second part of the questionnaire aimed to determine their awareness and perception on the importance and role of the product in their lives (for locals). The guide questions for the key informants aimed to extract information on the industry’s history, its contribution to the economy and the existing efforts and future plans of the local government’s agencies on its sustainability.

To date, the interviewed respondents include six key informants, three pabalat artists and three (3) major customers. Key informants include a San Miguel Tourism Officer, a Tourism Staff, and an Assistant Librarian. Also interviewed were the three
children of one of the popular manufacturers of pastillas, led by her daughter, a retired teacher and a sister of the Tourism staff. An original pabalat artist and her sister-in-law and nephew were also interviewed. Two customer-respondents were equally prominent, one of which is a National Artist, a Professor Emeritus and Commissioner of the Sentro ng Wikang Pilipino (Center for Filipino Language). The other one is a famous restaurant owner. Almost 200 pictures of various items - pabalat, pastillas-making, actual preparation of pabalat including tools and exhibits were documented. Secondary sources were also be used to validate the results.

**DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

**Origin of Pastillas Wrapper**

No one among the interviewees can remember when the art form started. One of the customer-respondents, Philippine National Artist, Professor Emeritus and a Philippine Commissioner of the Sentro ng Wikang Pilipino, claimed that the art could have probably started before World War II (personal interview, February 10, 2016).

“Nag-umpisa sa before the war pa. panahon pa ni Quezon. (It started even before the war, during (President) Quezon’s time.).

He added:  
“Bata pa ako sa San Miguel, ginagawa na.” (The wrappers are already being done even when I was still young.”).

“Nag-umpisa sa sweets: kundol, singkamas, santol na may designs (The art started with sweets-preserves: white gourd melon, turnips and cotton fruits carvings).

The National Artist explained that the art evolved from the fruit carvings that were cooked in syrup and bottled. He recalled that the pabalat were used as decorations of the plateria (platters) in the family’s glass display cabinet. Fernando (1992, p.59) relates that the town is also famous for making preserves and wrapped candies from mangoes, pomelos, kamias (bilimbi or cucumber tree), dayap (lime), santol (cotton fruit), tamarinds and guavas. The National artist also shares the same comment by the son of Eufrocenia Domingo or Inang Sinang (one of the pioneer-makers of pastillas de leche in 1961), that it was not the owner of Sevilla sweets who started the pabalat craft. Instead, Mrs. Sevilla was the one who created a wider mileage for the pabalat when she marketed the pastillas de leche with the pabalat wrappers in the 1960s. Lita explained that while there was also a standing debate on who between Mrs. Sevilla and another artist, Luz Ocampo started the art, she supported the claim of Inang Sinang’s daughter that the former only ordered the pastillas and the pabalat from the pabalat artists then packaged these as part of her Sevilla Sweets product line. She sold these in her souvenir shop in San Miguel.

The oldest surviving pabalat artist, Lourdes “Lita” Libunao, claimed that it could have started as early as 1946 based on the prototype of the pabalat that she has on file. Alejandro et al., (2003, p.26) posit that the art form is of Chinese influence. The Chinese who traded and eventually settled in the Philippines were believed to have brought the art to the Philippines with the surviving version found in San Miguel de Mayumo.

**Crafting the Pabalat**

Fernando (1992, p. 59) posits that paper cutting was once the old maids’ pre-occupation who used papel de hapon (Japanese paper), “cutting it by heart and effortlessly, while rocking on their chairs and gossiping away.” The steps in making the pabalat include, cutting the Japanese paper, a pencil, a cuticle scissors, a sharp knife, a staple and a pattern. The paper is cut into small rectangular sheets that is folded into four (4) parts. Each wrapper is about 4 inches wide x 9.5 inches long, 6 inches of the length bears the design. The pattern of the design is placed and stapled on top of the folded Japanese paper. The pattern is traced on top of one of the folded parts. The artist then starts cutting the sheets following the design. Other tools used include a narrow, pointed metal stick, or a large needle or a bus conductor’s ticket puncher. The metal stick is used to etch a tiny hole where the scissors can be inserted to facilitate the cutting of very small spaces or holes. Modern-day pabalat artists use the ticket puncher to bore bigger holes. Lita was observed by the researcher to have been using already a pattern which she adeptly cut with
with a pointed scissors. She claimed that she can finish one design in two hours.

**Continuing the Tradition of Pabalat: The Ramos and Libunao Family**

The art form runs the risk of not being handed down to the next generation. As of this writing, the oldest among the considered two legendary artists on the art, Luz “Neneng” Ocampo, passed away on February 20, 2016 at the age of 92. The author was not able to interview her although her daughter was reported to have continued the art and has trained several workers in her employ.

The only surviving legendary pabalat artist, Lourdes “Lita” Libunao, 81 years old, credited to her mother, Priscilla Gatchalian Ramos, the involvement of her family to the art of pabalat. Priscilla is a *mananahi* (dressmaker) of Ready-to-Wear clothes who produced the pabalat wrappers to augment her family income (Personal interview, December 30, 2015). It was Lita’s three (3) brothers, Benito (eldest), Juan (second son) and Amado (5th son) who took to the craft. Lita, the 3rd member among her siblings, claimed that she learned the craft when she was six (6) years old. However, while she has been practicing the art for 50 years, she considered herself a late bloomer since she started doing the pabalat when she was already 30 years old. She decided to continue the art when her brothers died and their regular clients sought them out. Initially, her third child and only daughter Cecille, 46 years old, managed the orders though the latter is now based in Metro Manila.

However, Lita claimed that no one among her children seriously embraced the art form as a means of livelihood. Cecille and her daughter, a Fine Arts graduate, took interest to it but only as a hobby. Surprisingly, too, her grand children from a niece in Canada learned the craft from their mother and have been sending their works to her and their grandmother. Her sister, a spinster, also knows how to cut the pabalat but does not involve herself in its production. These days, Lita is assisted by three young male neighbors in making the cut-outs with one especially in charge of cutting the designs bearing texts like a name of a person (usually a birthday celebrant) and/or words of felicitations or describing occasions like “recuerdo, happy (18th) birthday, merry Christmas, happy new year, happy fiesta, happy anniversary, etc.”

Lita mentioned Noel Ramos, 33 years old, as her only nephew who seriously made the craft as an additional source of livelihood. Noel seriously started making pabalat when he was in high school (personal interview, December 23, 2016). Noel is the son of her brother Benito. Noel’s mother, Teresita Ramos, 80 years old, also picked up the art from her brother Benito after their marriage. She claimed that her husband learned the craft from his mother, Priscilla, who she described as one of the best pabalat artists in town (The Junior Mayumo, 2006, p.6). Tessie, as she is called, claimed to have inherited most of the patterns from her husband. She proudly said however, that through the years, that she was able to develop her own designs. She has also conducted demonstration lessons for high and college school students. She also performed before conference participants in the University of the Philippines. She said that together with her sister-in-law Lita, she has produced pabalat for Mrs. Imelda Marcos who usually ordered in bulk and for a presidential candidate and his famous broadcaster-wife. Lita explained that Mrs. Marcos’ patronage of the pabalat dated back to her mother Priscilla’s time in 1970. This relationship was captured in a picture of Mrs. Marcos and Priscilla, with the former’s autograph.

Noel’s wife Teresa, 31 years old, has also learned the art and is now helping him produce wrappers. Together, they can finish about 1,000 to 3,500 pieces of pabalat in five (5) days. Unfortunately, the couple’s young and only son has no interest in learning the art and instead, is usually glued to his iPad.

While Lita admitted that she is doing it as a hobby: “Katuwaan lang” (I do it just for fun)

Moreover, she sometimes misses doing the cut out so she does not stop as long as there are orders even her eyesight sometimes fails her. She added that,

“May pera sa papel.” (There is money in “paper”)

referred to the Japanese paper from which
the wrapper is made of. However, due to the seasonality of the orders, she admitted that it is not practical to depend on it for livelihood. Despite this, Lita patiently continues to produce cut outs. She remarked that one has to be patient in cutting through the intricate designs. Tessie also shares the same, stating that it takes a lot of patience to make the pabalat. Both ladies remarked that one has to love the art to withstand the long hours of producing the cut outs.

Finding Meanings in the Pabalat

The pabalat is a reflection of the everyday living of the townsfolk. Designs include flowers, birds, carabaos (water buffaloes), mountains, Sampaguita flower, farmers and trees. Fernando (1992, p. 60) describes the pabalat as “exquisite tails” bearing designs of anahaw leaves, bahay kubo (nipa hut), harps, flowers and words of felicitation such as “recuerdo” (remembrance) and “Mabuhay” (local greeting). Modern-day designs contained greetings for special occasions, based on the requests of customers such as “Merry Christmas”, “Happy Birthday”, and “Happy Fiesta.” Some pabalat also bear the celebrator’s name. Ms. Libunao claimed that to her, there are no special meanings attached to the designs which she in fact, revises every now and then. However, she explains that the designs are a reflection of daily scenes in the locality during the early days, usually farm life. Alejandro et al., (2003, p.26) describe these designs as a reflection of the Filipinos’ ingenuity. Unfortunately, these scenes are also slowly vanishing nowadays with the changing of the town’s demographics. Most of the agricultural lands which inspired most of the scenes of rice harvest and which serve as habitation for the maya bird (a popular design) are slowly converted into subdivisions and/or commercial centers. The pabalat pieces serve as centerpieces of the landlord’s table (Fernando,1992, p. 59). This was supported by one of the respondents in the succeeding paragraph, who recalled seeing the pabalat adorn his family’s display cabinet during his younger years.

Patronizing the Pabalat ng Pastillas

The pabalat boasts among its patrons, former First Lady Imelnda Marcos, who usually ordered through an emissary. She ordered the wrappers in bulk for Malacanang functions. Malacanang is the official residence of the Philippine President.

The National Artist, 70 years old, also orders the pastillas candy with the pabalat usually on his birthday or during Christmas and New Year which he gives out as gifts to friends. He also considers that the designs on the pabalat wrappers are manifestations of the people’s daily lives.

As described earlier, the latest prominent patron is a high-ranking government official, who as of this writing, is running for the Philippine presidency. He and his wife, served as dessert during their wedding, over a thousand of pastillas de leche garbed with the pabalat wrappers bearing their names. The pastillas candies were elegantly arranged in tiers to prominently display the tail of the pabalat wherein their names were intricately etched.

The restaurateur, 67 years old, also orders the candy with the pabalat for family occasions. Her biggest order was during a homecoming in a prominent Club House and which earned rave from those who tried the product. The restaurateur related that those most of the guests were smitten with the exquisite beauty of the pabalat wrappers such that they took the wrappers home as souvenirs. She claimed that the art has also inspired her artist-daughter to dabble in the manufacture of paper cut outs using another type of design and paper. During the 30 December 2015 interview of the pabalat artist in the restaurateur’s famous restaurant, the hanged cut out decors were her daughter’s work. Her daughter also frames these cut-outs and presented as gifts to friends. The restaurateur claimed that she patronizes the pabalat not only because of its beauty but also because she values the role of the hand in the creation of things. She advocates its preservation as a cultural heritage

Another regular patron is the town’s bishop who usually orders as much as 1000 pieces in one transaction.

In 2015, the art form was featured in an exhibit at the Museo ng Pambata (Children Museum) in Manila. The two artists, Lita Libunao and Neneng Ocampo, were also featured several times in exhibits, popular magazines and in TV
shows. A few students also worked on the paballocation for their term papers or masterial theses.

**Economic Contribution of the Paballocate to the Locality’s Economy**

Because of the highly-seasonal orders received for the product, its contribution to the town’s economy is not strongly felt. For example, a hundred pieces cost only about $7.50 (Php 47 to $ 1). This does not compensate the long hours spent by the artists on every design. A four-fold Japanese paper produces four wrappers. Despite the very low cost of acquiring the paballocate by the manufacturers of the pastillas de leche candy, their final product is very prohibitive to the ordinary consumer. The cost of a jumbo pastillas candy with the paballocate is about 10 cents as compared to a little over $ 3.00. This explains why the local folks patronize the ordinary pastillas de leche.

It is perhaps because of this that the town does not give due recognition to the art form as a town’s mark of identity based on the personal interview (December 21, 2015) of its Tourism Officer. In fact, the municipal library has only one reading material about the art form which is a two-page article in a coffee-table book on the municipality of San Miguel (personal interview of the Asst. Librarian, December 21, 2016). The book was published by the Department of Environment and Natural Resources.

In fact, there were only a few occasion that the paballocate was featured such as in the Agricultural Trade Fair during the Singkawang Festival by the government in the 80s as claimed by the Tourism Officer. In 2008, the Pastillas Festival was also held. Unfortunately, the Tourism Officer claimed that there is no available documentation of the festival. Last Christmas 2015, giant paballocate wrappers adorned the ceiling of main church like drop banners. Several were also pasted on the front walls of the church. The paballocate adornments are also apparently featured during fiestas. Surprisingly however, the LGU does not include the art form in its tourist attractions. The researcher saw an old, faded picture of the pastillas candy with the paballocate alongside some of the town’s tourist attractions. What was clear is the LGU’s concentration more on its natural tourist spots like the Madluan National Park where the Biak-na-bato, a historical mountainous area whose big caves served as hiding places of the “Katipuneros”, is located. “Katipuneros” were the famous Filipino guerrillas who revolted against the Spaniards and Americans when they colonized the Philippines. One of the caves also served as a seat of President Emilio Aguinaldo, who headed the Philippine Republic at that time.

The lack of government support and the irregular production of the paballocate dictated by special occasions, the art form undoubtedly faces extinction. The National Artist shares this:

“It is a dying tradition. Medyo nawawala na (It is slowly facing extinction). Today, ginagawa nang design na pamparol tulad nung sa SM [a popular mall in the Philippines] (It is being now used as a design for Christmas lanterns such that in SM).

**Charting the Future of the Paballocate Art**

Various factors are considered to affect the preservation and/or sustainability of San Miguel de Mayumo’s pastillas paballocate. These include the recognition by the locals and the community in general, of its historical value or cultural significance of this tradition in their lives. It is important that the various actors have a deep appreciation and personal attachment to this tradition so that they will continue to practice it. Do they consider the paballocate a mark of their identity and character as a people? Does it represent their values and aspirations? Likewise, is the economic benefits that the industry provides to the families which depend on it as a livelihood substantial enough to create a big impact on their commitment to continue practicing it?. What is the government support in the form of funds, and programs that will harness its potential as an income generator but not succumbing to commercialism. The National Artist mentioned the big potential of the paballocate in tourism. There should also programs that will ensure its propagation to the young members of the community as its inclusion in the academic curriculum starting in pre-school under Home Economics and/or Industrial Craft, and Voc-Tech (Vocational-Technical) track in Senior High. The National Artist related that her sister taught the rudiments of the craft to elementary and high school students in her Home Economics. There has to be
advocates in the community who will safeguard the art from the influence of modernization and commercialization. The advent of technology can be used to replace the creative hands that have nurtured this famous product through the years. The artists should not be attracted by the influx of various types of materials so as not to dilute the authenticity of the pabalat. Lastly, customers’ patronage provides a market-driven demand for the product. It is imperative therefore, that efforts are expended and directed towards market awareness on the pabalat are continuously being done. The dynamic interplay of these major factors will contribute to the perpetuation of this unique tradition.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

Based on the above findings, the pabalat is an art form that has been part of the food culture of San Miguel de Mayumo, Bulacan, which dates back to the pre-war days based on the oral narratives of the respondents. It is thus, considered as a cultural heritage, a unique art that requires an unusual talent, patience and interest. Most of the designs symbolize the town’s landscape and the local folks’ daily activities.

The respondents, particularly the artists and the owners of the pastillas considered the art very important to them and to the identity of San Miguel de Mayumo. However, it appears that the acceptance of the craft by the new generation shops manifests their lack of appreciation of the role of the art in their culture.

It is unfortunate however, that the art might face extinction since it is not ordinarily used and is ordered on a seasonal basis. Also, the remaining pabalat artists have not been successful in perking up the interest of their children or other family members. While the art has not yet been marred by technology and remains handcrafted, the lack of interest to take it up as a means of livelihood.

This probably explains why the LGU neither have any program to market nor to preserve it. It is therefore not surprising if this cultural heritage will finally vanish.

To realize the economic benefits of the pabalat not only from patronage of locals but also by tourists, the LGU can harness its potential for the One Town One Product (OTOP) program. The various designs depicted on the pabalat, being symbols of the community, make the product “iconic and captures the typical nature of the place” (Bessiere, 1998; Urry, 1990 in Sims, 2009, p. 322). The product can truly be considered as the spirit of the place.

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TRAVELLING TO SOUTH KOREA: 
EVALUATION OF CRUISE SERVICE

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INTRODUCTION

The Chinese outbound tourists have travelled all over the world, such as Europe, USA, and Australia. Among all the tourism destinations, South Korea has become one of the most popular destinations abroad. The data from Korea Tourism Organization indicated that more than 6.1 million people visited South Korea in 2015, contributing 1.6% of the GDP of South Korea. The signature of China and South Korea Free Trade Area may launch a new era for tourism development among the two countries.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Travelling to South Korea, cruise ship has become popular in recent years. The development of cruise tourism has been impressive, and has launched more attention in the research area. Apart from the development process of cruise tourism (Weaver, 2003; Wood, 2000), some researchers have explored the impacts of cruise tourism, such as economic impacts (Andy, Fiorella, & Lawrence, 2007; Braun, Xander, & White, 2002; Diakomihalis, 2007; Mescon & Vozikis, 1985), environment impacts (Butt, 2007; Johnson, 2002), and safety impacts (Lois, Wang, Wall, & Ruxton, 2004).

Tourists’ attitudes and activities play decisive role in promoting cruise tourism. Thus, many studies have been conducted to investigate tourists’ motivation of cruise tourism (Qu & Ping, 1999), influencing factors to perceive cruise service (Duman & Mattila, 2005), as well as their revisit intention (Gabe, Lynch, & McConnon, 2006; Petrick, 2004) and perceived value (Petrick, 2004; Petrick, Tonner, & Quinn, 2006). Although there have been many studies exploring cruise development and activities, it is rare to explore tourists’ expectation and satisfaction of cruise tourism, as well as the gap between their expectation and satisfaction. This study, therefore, aims to explore in detail the expectation and satisfaction of Chinese outbound tourists on the cruise ship sailing to South Korea.

METHOD

Research design

This study investigated the evaluation of whole process of cruise ship travelling, including the service of immigration, customs, and cruise ship. Both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies were used in this study. First, twenty-three in-depth interviews were conducted to explore the items measuring cruise ship service. A total of fourteen items were developed, including the tidy, safety, entertainment, food quality, and service. Second, a pilot test was conducted to obtain feedback on the wording of questions in the questionnaire. Finally, the main survey was conducted based on convenience sampling with target samples of Chinese outbound tourists travelling to South Korea by cruise ship or ferry.

Participants were asked to rate each of the importance and performance twice in a paired manner: (a) to rate, according to the importance they attached to the attribute, the importance level of each items on a Likert-type scale of “1” (not at all important) to “5” (very important) and then (b) to rate, according to their performance level of each of the same attributes on a scale of “1” (very dissatisfied) to “5” (very satisfied).

Measurement items

This study evaluated the satisfaction and importance of immigration, customs office, and cruise service. Tourists expectation and satisfaction index items of immigration and customs were adopted from the study of Song, van der Veen, Li, & Chen (2012). The measurement scale of cruise service was used by items developed in this study. Sample items include “Tidy of the cruise ship”, “High quality
dishes”, “Safe environment”, and “Prompt service of employees”.

Data collection

Several methods were used to collect data. First, questionnaires were distributed on the cruise or ferry sailing to South Korea, targeting the Chinese outbound tourists. Second, with the help of travel agency, survey was conducted among tourists who have been to South Korea by cruise. Finally, a total of 248 valid questionnaires were collected and analyzed.

Data analysis method

The importance-and-performance (IPA) method was used in this study to explore the satisfaction of Cruise travelling. IPA method was first proposed by Martilla and Janes (1977), and was widely accepted by numerous researchers. The tool allows the simultaneous analysis of attribute importance and performance. Given its simplicity, ease of applicability, and visual attractiveness to decision makers, IPA method has been widely used in numerous research fields, such as management (Baloglu & Love, 2003), psychology, tourism and hospitality (Kong, Song, Dou, 2015).

FINDINGS

IPA analysis of immigration

The study first investigated the perceived importance and performance of immigration, which is the first step of cruise travelling. The most important item of immigration was that queuing time for clearance less than 30 minutes (4.86), followed by clear signage to clearance counters for visitors (4.85), and clear instruction of immigration procedures at the border (4.85).

The outbound tourists were also asked to rate the performance of immigration service. The mean scores for all the statements ranged from the lowest of 3.69 to the highest of 4.72. All the mean scores of performance were lower than that of perceived importance, indicating that outbound tourists were not satisfied with the immigration service. The highest performance was clearance counters for visitors, and clear instruction of immigration procedures at the border (4.72), and the least satisfied item was less than 30 minutes queuing time for clearance (3.69).

The biggest gap between importance and performance was the queuing time less than 30 minutes (-1.17), followed by the gap of language and communication skills (-0.57), and proper attitude of immigration officers (-0.42). The results indicated that there is much room for communication skills training, and it was also important to enhance the service quality of immigration officers.

Table 1. Perceived Importance and Performance of Immigration Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 clear signage to clearance counters for visitors</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Pleasant environment of the queuing area</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 clear instruction of immigration procedures at the border</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 less than 30 minutes queuing time for clearance</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>-1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 language and communication skills of the staff</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 proper attitude of immigration officers</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>-0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Mean</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IPA was used to evaluate the proper allocation of each item based on the mean. Data of the survey were used to construct a two-dimensional matrix. In this matrix, attribute importance was depicted along the x-axis and attribute performance was depicted along the y-axis. The means of performance and importance divided the matrix into four quadrants, and the results were plotted in the IPA grid. Figure 1 shows the IPA analysis of immigration service.

Quadrant I means “Keep up the good work”, indicating that the attributes were both high in importance and performance. Two items were located in the 1 quadrant, and they were clear signage to clearance counters for visitors (1), and clear instruction of immigration procedures at the border (3).

Quadrant II means “Possible Overkill”, indicating that the attributes were low in importance but high in performance. Two items fell into this quadrant, and they were pleasant environment of the queuing area (2), and proper attitude of immigra-
tion officers (6).

Quadrant III means “Low Priority”, which indicated the attributes were low in both importance and performance. As shown in Figure 1, no attribute was identified in the “Low Priority” quadrant.

Quadrant IV indicates “Concentrate here”, which means that the attributes were high importance but low performance. The “Concentrate here” quadrant had two items, and they less than 30 minutes queuing time for clearance (4), and language and communication skills of the staff (5). The results indicated that shortening the waiting time and enhancing staff’s communication skills were two areas to be enhanced.

![ IPA analysis of Immigration Service ]

IPA analysis of customs service

The importance and performance of customs service was analyzed, and the Figure 2 shows the IPA analysis of customs service.

The “Keep up the good work” quadrant had four attributes. These attributes were clear instruction of customs regulations, thorough yet courteous security checking at the counter, less than 15 minutes of queuing time at the customs (for all type of crossings), and proper attitude of customs officers (polite and patient). The survey indicated that these items were high both in importance and performance, and thus should be kept up the good work.

The “Possible Overkill” quadrant captured 1 attribute, which indicated the language and communication skills of customs officers. It means that the performance was high and importance was low. That is, tourists’ satisfaction was higher than their expectation.

The “Possible Overkill” quadrant had two items, which indicated that these items were low in importance but high in performance. These items were clear signage to the customs area for visitors, and pleasant environment of the customs area.

There was no attribute fell into the “Concentrate here” quadrant.

![ IPA analysis of Customs Service ]
IPA analysis of cruise service

Table 2 shows the results of tourists’ evaluation of cruise service. The most important item of cruise service was good language and communication skills of staff (4.96), followed by comfort accommodation (4.93). Three items ranked the third importance with the same mean score of 4.91. They were the comfort of the inside of the cabin, good quality of foods/dishes on the cruise, and effective boarding service.

In terms of the performance of the cruise service, the most satisfied one was effective boarding service (4.93), followed by the comfort of the inside of the cabin (4.88), and Prompt service upon request (4.82).

The biggest gap between importance and performance was the effective service of handling ticket booking, canceling, and confirming (-0.86). The smallest gap existed in the importance of performance of prompt service upon request (-0.02).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Importance</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Tidiness of the seat</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The comfort of the inside of the cabin</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Entertainment facilities of the cruise</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Good quality of foods/dishes on the cruise</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Good selection of foods/dishes on the cruise</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Enough time for food supply</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Comfort accommodation</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Safety of the cruise ship</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>-2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Good language and communication skills of staff</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>-0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Proper attitude of frontline staff (polite, patient and attentive)</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>4.73</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Prompt service upon request</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Effective boarding service</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Effective service of handling ticket booking, canceling, and confirming</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>-0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 The proper attitude in complaint handling</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>-0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>-0.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the mean scores of cruise service, IPA was also used to evaluate the proper allocation of the items surveyed. Data from the survey of importance and performance were used to construct a two-dimensional matrix. In this matrix, attribute importance was depicted along the x-axis, and attribute performance was depicted along the y-axis. The means of performance and importance divided the matrix into four quadrants, and the results were plotted in the IPA grid (see Figure 3).

As shown in Fig.3, five attributes fell into the “Keep up the good work” quadrant, indicating the attributes were both high in importance and performance. These items included the degree of comfort of the inside of cruise, enough time for food supply, comfort accommodation, proper attitude of staff, effective boarding service.

Three items were identified in the “Possible Overkill” quadrant, which indicated that these items were low in importance but high in performance. That is, the following aspects performed better than tourists expected. These items were tidiness of the seat, entertainment facilities, and prompt service.

The “Low Priority” quadrant had two attributes, which indicated the attributes were low in both importance and performance. These items included the handling of ticket booking, canceling, and confirming, as well as the proper attitude in complaint handling.

The “Concentrate here” quadrant captured four attributes, which indicated they were high importance but low performance. Chinese outbound tourists cared more on the food quality, variety, safety of the cruise ship, as well as the good communication skills of cruise staff. However, tourists were not satisfied with the performance in these four aspects. Thus, it should be the focus of further enhancement.
IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicated that cruise ship is an important ways for Chinese tourists traveling to South Korea. Although tourists were in general satisfied with the services provided by the immigration, customs, and cruise, there is still a gap between perceived expectation and satisfaction. The findings may provide both theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretically, this study contributed to the literature on three parts. First, the findings of this study may enrich the knowledge of cruise tourism by developing the measurement items of cruise service. Second, this study may provide useful findings of cruise tourism by investigating the expectation and satisfaction of outbound tourists. Third, this study may shed lights on outbound tourism and cruise research, and serves as a foundation for future research.

Practically, this study may benefit both outbound tourists and tourism practitioners. First, this study provided the initial exploration of tourists’ satisfaction of cruise service. The findings may help to know more about the update situation of cruise tourism, and further to enhance the management and promotion. Second, the evaluation of cruise service may provide useful guidance to cruise management. Finally, the expectation and satisfaction results may also help to develop effective strategies to enhance the cruise service, so as to attract more tourists.

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AGRITOURISM: GOVERNMENT MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL THROUGH SUSTAINABILITY AND TOURISM ECONOMIC STABILITY IN THE PHILIPPINES

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Far Eastern University

Agri-tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the eco-tourism industry. There is nothing new about this form of travel, which involves staying on a farm or other agriculture-oriented property and perhaps even sampling the day-to-day lifestyle of the people who tend the crops or livestock. On some farms that welcome tourists, however, the goal is less about providing a unique vacation and more about fostering a deeper understanding of the farming process through education and hands-on experience.

The Philippines is the largest archipelago in the world. It consists of around 7,100 islands and covers an estimated 30 million hectares, with about 11 million hectares being agricultural lands. The Philippines offers diverse conditions for agri-tourism. This is evident from its diversified and unique agri-tourism sites, including the vast pineapple and coffee plantation in Bukidnon, strawberry and organic vegetable farms in Benguet, as well as the farms in Batangas. With these varied offering, this niche tourism segment has been a hit with agri-tourists; bringing much revenue to these agri-companies and farmers.

Recently, Philippines was named to be one of the top 8 agri-tourism destination in the world, one of the two countries in Asia mentioned with Taiwan the only county in Southeast Asian region by Mother Nature Network.

The research will serve to enhance their framework on the management style and control of government in pursuing sustainable and stable agri-tourism industry. This will assist as guide in assessing government intervention effect to all stakeholders of agri-tourism industry.

Aiming to obtain as more relevant primary data and notions as possible, the Nevertheless, there is vast potential for agri-tourism in the Philippines, thanks to the country’s favorable geographical features. The Philippines agri-tourism sector may also spawn imitators across Asia, as other countries seek to tap into their mature agricultural sectors to grow the economy and nurture high quality jobs in rural areas.

From the point of view of Local Government Unit (LGU) and Non Government Organization (NGO), present one of the factors in sustainable and competitive development of rural tourism.

The survey interview was conducted during January 15-20, 2016 in the government agency in control of this industry such as Department of Tourism (DOT) and Department of Agriculture (DA). In the selected organic farm in the Philippines involving 20 certified organic farms with organic restaurant in the same location. The list of organic farms was obtained from the accredited organic certification agencies. A rigorous research of historical data and laws that has been transpired over 2 decades was presented in this research. Local and foreign tourists interested in experiencing life on a farm first hand may soon add farm visits to their travel itinerary after House Bill 3745 becomes the Farm Tourism Act.

Agri-tourism has been present in the Philippines since the 1990s, but was not institutionally defined then. In those early days, most agri-tourism farms were either privately owned or managed. In 1991, the Philippines Department of Tourism (DOT) and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) came together and formulated the Philippine Tourism Master Plan
(TMP); aimed at developing tourism on an environmentally sustainable basis. Executive Order 481 (EO 481) - EO 481 Executive was approved by President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo on December 27, 2005. It hopes to promote organic agriculture as a farming scheme especially in rural farming communities; forge effective networking and collaboration with the stakeholders involved in the production, handling, processing and marketing of organic agriculture products; guarantee food and environmental safety by means of an ecological approach to farming. This legal instrument also goes with the creation of Bio-organic Farming Authority under the Office of the President.

The government has increased investment in this sector by 13.6 percent, from PHP196 billion as of 2010 to PHP222 billion in 2011. The Agri-Tourism Promotion Act was also put in place in 2010 to promote agri-tourism.

As the agri-tourism sector is still largely private-sector-driven in the Philippines, the BOT (Build Operate Transfer) Law amended by Republic Act authorizes the financing, construction, operation and maintenance of infrastructure projects to drive the growth further. The Department of Tourism also provides incentives to fuel growth.

Academic Institution and tourism Professionals are tapping on the potential of agri-tourism to alleviate poverty and promote agriculture courses in schools and universities. Central Bicol State University of Agriculture (CBSUA) are currently involved in research and development efforts, and are contributing to the promotion of Laguna agri-destinations, such as the Costales Nature Farms.

Experts estimate that the Philippines could create a total of 14.6 million new jobs this year, since the country adopt various reforms geared towards improving the business environment, particularly in the sectors of agriculture and tourism.

The influx of agri-tourists has brought in revenue and created a more ecologically sustainable environment. This will generate employment in rural areas, where the employment is often most needed, to avoid excessive migration and slum-formation in urban areas.

The agri-tourism sector in the Philippines is not necessarily a bed of roses. It is particularly vulnerable to natural disasters such as earthquakes and typhoons.

Nevertheless, there is vast potential for agri-tourism in the Philippines, thanks to the country’s favorable geographical features. The Philippines agri-tourism sector may also spawn imitators across Asia, as other countries seek to tap into their mature agricultural sectors to grow the economy and nurture high quality jobs in rural areas.

There was a time when the Philippines was considered the second wealthiest nation in East Asia, next to only Japan. Agri-tourism is now seen as a rising star that will contribute to the economic development of the Philippines in the long-term. No doubt the country’s state planners hope to recapture this lost economic glory.

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THE INFLUENCE OF FILM ON TAIWANESE TOURIST BEHAVIORS: 
THE INVOLVEMENT CONSTRUCT

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Yen Ju Chen  
Tai Yi Huang  
Bailey M. Moody  
University of North Texas  
Tsong-Zen Liu  
National Kaohsiung University

INTRODUCTION

Film-induced tourism, which is a segment of 
tourism wherein people’s travel motivations are 
influenced by popular film, movies, and television, 
is a growing phenomenon throughout the world, as 
evidenced by the abundance of literature on the topic 
(Kang & Park, 2015; Kim & Richardson, 2003; Im 
& Chon, 2008; Tasic, 2009; Josiam, Spears, 
Pookulangara, Dutta, Kinley, & Duncan, 2015).

The ever increasing level of outbound tourism 
stemming from Asian countries is also influenced 
by film. However, few studies have examined the 
effects of outbound film tourism from this area. Due 
to the lucrative nature of this large market, more 
research needs to be conducted regarding this travel 
segment, especially considering that the fourteen 
thousand square mile country of Taiwan generated 
twelve million outbound tourists who spent over 
eighteen billion USD in a single year alone (Statista, 
2015; Tourism Bureau, Republic of China, 2015).

Consequently, “a strong link between tourism 
and popular culture has been recognized, and there 
has been an increase in academic research relating 
to the effects” of film on tourism (Iwashita, 2008). 
However, few of these studies have addressed the 
effect of film on actual tourist behaviors once at 
a destination, and fewer still have studied how film 
affects outbound tourism, especially in non-western 
markets. The present research intends to fill these 
gaps by analyzing the effects of film on outbound 
Taiwanese tourist behaviors.

OBJECTIVES

1. To examine the demographic profile of 
   Taiwanese tourists
2. To determine the level of involvement that 
   Taiwanese nationals have with international travel
3. To examine the level of engagement and 
   enthusiasm that Taiwanese nationals have with film
4. To determine the motivations of Taiwanese 
   tourists to travel abroad to destinations featured in 
   film
5. To determine the propensity of Taiwanese 
   tourists to participate in film-related activities at foreign destinations

METHODOLOGY

This study employed a convenience, snowball 
type sampling method. All participants were at least 
eighteen years of age and completely anonymous; 
they also received no incentive to participate in this 
study. This research was conducted in Taiwan via 
email, online survey, and in-person interviews.

The questionnaire utilized in this study was 
adapted from existing literature concerning the 
involve ment construct. The involvement scale for 
this study was modeled after the one that Josiam, 
Kinley, and Kim adapted from the original 
Zaichkowsky model; the simplified, ten item, 
Likert-type scale allows for better understanding on 
the part of respondents. All other items featured 
in the survey were evaluated on a five point 
Likert-type scale, ranging from one, strongly 
disagree, to five, strongly agree.
FINDINGS

A total of 386 viable surveys were collected. Seventy-two percent of the sample was female, and nearly half of all respondents fell into the 18-21 year old age category. The majority of respondents were 25 years of age or younger. Additionally, 87% of respondents were unmarried, and about 70% of all respondents had a monthly income of less than 39,999 NTD. With regard to foreign travel, over 75% of respondents had traveled abroad at some point.

Nearly 85% of all survey respondents fell into the high involvement category, with regard to foreign travel, with only about 15% of the respondents falling into the medium involvement category. No respondents were considered to have a low level of involvement. These results can likely be attributed to the aforementioned statistics regarding outbound Taiwanese travel; in 2014 alone over half of all Taiwanese nationals traveled out of the country. Using crosstabs to determine the presence of any potential differences, the categories of age, gender, employment status, education level, monthly income, marital status, and engagement with foreign travel were analyzed across the levels of involvement. Results showed that the majority of respondents who fell into the high involvement category were single, educated, aged 18-25 years old, and had an average monthly income of less than 39,999 NTD per month. These findings are likely the result of a young, single lifestyle; those individuals who do not have familial obligations have more freedom to travel abroad. This is especially true of young singles in Taiwan; until they get married, most young Taiwanese nationals continue to live at home with their parents, which gives them more discretionary income to spend on travel.

Respondents’ level of engagement with film was also measured; according to this data, nearly 75% of respondents seek information or gossip about movies before they premier, and 67% of the respondents watch movies as soon as they are released. Additionally, almost half of all respondents considered themselves to be movie “fanatics” or “aficionados” of film. Similar levels of engagement were found regarding television shows. To examine the relationship between involvement with foreign travel and engagement with film, a correlation analysis was conducted. The data support a weak but positive correlation between Taiwanese film engagement and their involvement with international travel. There was a significant relationship between high involvement with foreign travel and those respondents who are “film fanatics” who watch film soon after the release date.

In order to determine respondents’ motivations to travel to international destinations featured in film, they were evaluated on a four item Likert-type scale. Nearly 60% of respondents want their lifestyle to be more like the storylines of film, and over 75% of respondents claimed they wanted to know more about the countries portrayed in film. Additionally, about 40% of respondents travel abroad to film-related destinations in the hopes that something from the movies would happen to them, or that they would have a “movie moment.” Correlation analysis was used to display a positive relationship between the motivations; as involvement increases, motivation to visit destinations featured in film also increases. This is not surprising; those individuals who are already highly involved with international travel are more likely to be motivated to visit foreign destinations they see in film, and are thus more influenced by it. All motivations were found to be significant at some level, which testifies to the power of film and how it influences peoples’ travel motivations.

Survey participants were also asked about their travel behaviors once at a foreign destination. Correlational analyses indicated a weak yet positive relationship between the levels of involvement with international travel and the film-related activities that participants partake in at while at a film-related destination. ANOVA results indicated that those individuals who are highly involved with foreign travel are more likely to visit filming sets/sites, travel to specific destinations in order to emulate film stars, participate in activities that film characters participated in, reenact scenes from film, and engage in festivals or events featured in film. The results of this study support previous research regarding Taiwanese travel motivations; while they are not likely to travel abroad to specific destinations solely because they were featured in film, they will
in order to participate in culturally oriented activities. The fact that these destinations and activities are portrayed in film simply serve as a source of information that can influence travel motivations and behavior once at a film-related destination.

**IMPLICATIONS**

Due to an increase in gross domestic product, along with the rise of dual income families, the Taiwanese population has far more discretionary income than in the past; therefore, they are traveling much more. In fact, from 2002 to 2014 Taiwanese outbound travel increased by about sixty percent (Tourism Bureau, Republic of China, 2015). This study investigates the relationship between the Taiwanese involvement with foreign travel and their engagement with film. Currently, no studies have examined Taiwanese travel motivations under the lens of the involvement construct and with regard to their engagement with film, which means that the present study offers significant contributions to the literature.

The findings display a high level of involvement with international travel for the vast majority of the Taiwanese populace; most of those individuals who travel abroad from Taiwan are female, unmarried, and young. Although the majority of this segment has a monthly income of less than 39,999 NTD, they are still willing to spend money on international travel. Additionally, a large portion of the Taiwanese public is highly engaged with film and consume it with gusto; consequently, film has greatly influenced their travel motivations and tourist behaviors.

Based on the findings of this study, travel agencies and destination marketing organizations should focus on more culturally-poitant travel activities in order to engage and attract Taiwanese tourists. Furthermore, many Taiwanese travelers are motivated to travel by film; destination marketing organizations should be aware of this and understand how to capitalize upon this concept. This would be beneficial, as the Taiwanese population is highly educated, mobile, and very involved with international travel. Additionally, as aforementioned, this is a rather large and lucrative market who enjoys spending their discretionary income on international travel; destination marketing organizations would do well to attract these segments of travelers, especially since they share similar motivations and behaviors to other Asian travelers, which is an even larger and even more lucrative segment of tourists who are also influenced by movies and television.

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THE PERCEPTION OF SUSTAINABLE, VALUE EVALUATION AND DESTINATION CHOICE

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INTRODUCTION

In the past two decades, researchers in sustainable tourism have examined why and how tourism and hospitality organizations increase performance and achieve their goals through the encouragement of tourists’ motivation and increasing value perceptions (Knollenberg, McGhee, Boley, & Clemmons, 2014; Park & Yoon, 2009; Prebensen, Woo, Chen, & Uysal, 2012). Although traditional tourism research has focused on the impact of sustainability practices (Bell & Morse, 2013), from the marketing strategic perspective, sustainable research emphasizes bundles of motivation mechanisms, often concerned with encouraging tourists’ learning about sustainability and feeling relaxation and excitement from a sustainable experience (McKenzie-Mohr, 2013). A burgeoning body of sustainable research has shown that the use of the mechanism of motivation is intended to enhance tourists’ overcoming challenges to reach difficult goals, to keep physically fit, and to increase excitement and enjoyment in sharing an activity with friends (Buckley, 2012); furthermore, the opportunity to contribute is associated with positive outcomes such as perceived value (Prebensen et al., 2012), environmental attitudes (Chang, 2014), revisiting intention (Chang, Backman, & Huang, 2014), and destination images (Nicoleletta & Servidio, 2012).

Given these critical issues, the objective of this study is to develop a novelty and integrative conceptual model of the mechanisms mediating sustainable tourism intention and behavior intention of satisfaction through motivation and value perception analysis approaches. Drawing on the behavioral perspective of motivation and value-evaluation views of tourists, we aim to extend and refine the existing sustainable tourism literature by exploring multiple mediating paths and differentiating among the effects of sub-dimensions of the motivation and value evaluation process for tourist sustainability behavior and intention.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the intention-motivation-satisfaction model of sustainable tourism, tourist behavior characteristics can be conceptually divided into intention, motivation, and satisfaction with consumption experience (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Schofield & Thompson, 2007); motivation is the most critical mediating factor for the tourist travel decision process that has been examined in the tourism literature (e.g., Lin & Wong, 2014). In line with the literature, this study focuses on the mediating roles of motivation in the sustainable tourism experience and perspective for tourists. As previous research suggests, motivation is depicted as the driving force behind all behavior, which can be viewed as a combination of tourists’ feelings, learning, arousal, interests, or drive evoked by a tourism product or service. Several researchers have viewed motivation as a critical intermediate outcome. Savinovic et al.(2012) suggested that tourists' motivation is an immediate antecedent of likelihood of attendance intention and overall satisfaction with the ethnic minority cultural festival. With pleasure, the sustainable tourism experience implies that tourists can learn and feel relaxed while developing greater environmental awareness, thus increasing their satisfaction (Miller, Merrilees, & Coghlan, 2015).
Hypothesis 1. The relationship between sustainable tourism intention and tourist satisfaction will be strengthened through motivation.

Hypothesis 2. The relationship between sustainable tourism intention and tourist satisfaction will be strengthened through value evaluation.

Hypothesis 3. The relationship between relaxation and a tourist’s excitement will be strengthened through novelty value.

Hypothesis 4. The relationship between relaxation and a tourist’s learning will be strengthened through novelty value.

Hypothesis 5. The relationship between a tourist’s novelty value and overall value will be strengthened through excitement.

Hypothesis 6. The relationship between tourist’s novelty value and overall value will be strengthened through learning.

METHODOLOGY

The target population for the research included tourists from different regions of Taiwan who had sustainable tourism experience. An on-site survey was conducted for visitors who had a sustainable tourism experience or visited the natural resource conservation zones, using the convenience sampling method. The self-administered intercept survey was conducted by six well trained research assistants (e.g., MBA and college students) from the Ming Chuan University College of Tourism. In the data collection period, those research assistants introduced themselves first, then explained the purpose of the study, and solicited visitors’ verbal consent to fill out the surveys. After collecting the surveys, research assistants checked the questionnaires to make sure all the items were answered. The survey was administered on Saturday and Sunday throughout the observed period of the event so that as representative a sample as possible was obtained in the selected natural resource conservation zones. Of the 800 questionnaires distributed, 158 tourists declined or had many missed values in the survey, resulting in a response rate of 80.25%. The research assistants were adept at face-to-face methods of collecting data, which may have increased the response rate, and at answering questions or providing clarification while the surveys were being completed.

RESULTS

The results of the chi-square test ($\chi^2$) for hypothesized model was significant at $p < .001$. The values of the rest of the indices indicated that the model fit the data well ($\chi^2$=2149.667; IFI = .892, CFI= .891, GFI=.822, RMSEA=.076). These results provide evidence that the hypothesized model achieved good fit and further examination of the structural model is justified. This study tested the proposed multiple mediation effects by examining the significance of the indirect effects using the bootstrapping approach that has been widely used and suggested by Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009). Using AMOS 18, we resampled 2,000 times and obtained the estimates and the 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the indirect effects.

Following the suggestion of Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009), the alternative models should be examined to confirm the hypothesis model is a better fit than the other models. Thus, this study examines the direct, indirect, and total effects in all of the alternative models and drawn in the alternative models, the original hypothesis model’s values are represented as the best model fit compared with alternative models, which confirmed the hypothesized model is fit for examination because it is more parsimonious.

The results of testing different hypotheses that include direct and indirect effects of this study. The findings integrated with each of these indices revealed findings consistent with those reported earlier. That is, these results support the robustness of the initial findings and gave insight into a broad variety of tourists’ sustainable tourism activities and their behaviors, which helps to better explain that various attributes of value evaluation and motivation do affect their satisfaction in sustainable tourism.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we introduced and tested an integrated model that used tourist’s sustainable
tourism behavior as a tool for explaining the relationship between motivation, value evaluation and satisfaction. Our results most clearly show that motivation and value evaluation are more important as critical bridges that connect the relationships between sustainable tourism intention and satisfaction. That is, tourists who engaged in inspirational motivation, overall value evaluation, and individualized consideration of sustainable behaviors perceived higher levels of satisfaction. We had reasoned that tourism organization managers could "manage sustainable meaning" by encouraging tourists’ motivation and additional value to frame their expectation and increase their overall satisfaction (Liu et al., 2015). This management of sustainable meaning provides one explanation for the association observed of tourists’ sustainable tourism experience in our data.

REFERENCES


EVENT TOURISM: AN EXAMINATION OF VISITORS’ MOTIVATION, LEISURE BENEFIT, AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTION

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INTRODUCTION

Event tourism has played an important role since the 1980s (Getz, 2008). Through holding events (e.g., festivals, special events), it brings economic benefits to the community (Allen, O’Toole, McDonnell, & Harris, 2002; Getz, 2012; Li, Huang, & Cai, 2009) as well as bring up conservation concepts for sustainable development (Backman, Backman, Uysal, & Sunshine, 1995; Li et al., 2009).

This study targeted visitors who attended the Xinshe Sea of Flowers event in Taiwan. Since the Xinshe event has been held for a decade, exploring the visitors’ behavior may provide valuable insights. The original purpose of the Xinshe Sea of Flowers event was to educate people about how the field functioned during nonharvest seasons. Surprisingly, it became popular and has attracted many tourists every year.

Past research suggested that tourists’ motivation has a positive influence on tourists’ satisfaction, leisure benefit, and behavioral intention (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Baker & Crompton, 2000). Nowacki (2009) verified a model for variables such as quality of visitor attractions, satisfaction, benefits, and behavioral intentions and found that there were positive relationships among them. Therefore, the present study proposes the following hypotheses: (H1) tourists’ motivation will have a positive influence on leisure benefit, (H2) tourists’ motivation will have a positive influence on behavioral intention, and (H3) tourists’ leisure benefit will have a positive influence on behavioral intention.

METHOD

Since this study adopted the structural equation modeling method, the required sample size was at least 200 (Barrett, 2007; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009; Kline, 2011; Loehlin, 2004; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The study population was tourists who participated in the Xinshe Sea of Flowers event in 2015. A total of 310 questionnaires were distributed in the Xinshe events held between November 7 and December 6, 2015, and 300 (96.7%) were completed. The survey questionnaire included four parts: (1) motivation measurement, (2) leisure benefit measurement, (3) behavior intention measurement, and (4) demographic items.

FINDINGS

The analysis of the study consisted of two steps: a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to examine the constructs. Composite reliability (CR) has been recommended for measuring the factors for each construct and refers to the internal consistency of indicators of the underlying factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results of the first step revealed that the following three variables had adequate reliability: motivation (CR = 0.84), leisure benefit (CR = 0.84), and behavioral intention (CR = 0.75). For the research model fit indices: the chi-square value was 678.655 and normed chi-square value was 5.85. Schumacker and Lomax (2010) suggested that the chi-square value should be between 1 and 3. Furthermore, other indices were GFI = 0.737, RMSEA = 0.127, SRMR = 0.08, NNFI = 0.730, and CFI = 0.770. Generally, a good fit model satisfies the following requirements: (1) GFI, NNFI, and CFI should be greater than 0.9, and RMSEA and SRMR should be lower than 0.08. However, the original research model did not satisfy these requirements. Thus, variables with low factor loading were removed from the constructs. The results of the modified model are shown in Table 1.
Table 1. Research Model Fit Indices (The modified model)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model fit</th>
<th>Research model Fit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MLE X2</td>
<td>59.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Normed chi-sqr (X2/DF)</td>
<td>1.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI (NNFI)</td>
<td>.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>.981</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adjusted goodness of fit tests showed that the chi-square value was 59.456 and normed chi-square value was 1.802. Other indices were GFI = 0.959, AGFI = 1.123, RMSEA = 0.052, SRMR = 0.031, NNFI = 0.968, CFI = 0.981. Compared with the original research model, the modified model was improved and allowed adequate interpretation. Table 2 shows the parameter estimates of the structural model, and these implied that (H1) tourists’ motivation had a positive influence on leisure benefit and (H2) tourists’ motivation had a positive influence on behavioral intention. However, (H3) the positive influence of tourists' leisure benefit on behavioral intention was not statistically significant (Figure 1).

Table 2. Parameter estimates of structural model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path coefficient</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>t- Statistics</th>
<th>p Value</th>
<th>R-Square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation → Leisure Benefit</td>
<td>.872</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>25.995</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation → Behavioral Intention</td>
<td>.630</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>3.734</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure Benefit → Behavioral Intention</td>
<td>.203</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>1.170</td>
<td>.242</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Results of modified model

CONCLUSION

The modified model supports part of Nowacki’s hypothetical research model. Only one of the hypotheses was not supported, i.e., leisure benefit did not have a positive influence on behavioral intention. Since Nowacki focused on visitors’ attractions in Poland, his findings might not apply to event tourism in other cultures.

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EXPLORING TOUR LEADERS’ JOB CRAFTING

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INTRODUCTION

In Eastern Asian countries, the group package tour (GPT) is one of the primary modes of outbound travel (Luoh & Tsaur, 2014; Wang, Jao, Chan, & Chung, 2010). According to Tourism Bureau statistics (2015), the total number of people who took travel time abroad was 11,844,635 in 2014; of these, 32.1% of the tourists authorized travel agencies to arrange their tours, and almost half of the sightseeing tourists participated in GPTs. The most distinctive feature of the GPT is the presence of the tour leader, who provides various services for the tour participants and has the opportunity for long-term contact with tourists (Wang, Hsieh, & Chen 2002). The tour leader is a crucial person in GPT (Wong & Lee, 2012). The tour leader’s performance within the service encounter not only affects the company’s image, but also customer loyalty and word-of-mouth communication (Heung, 2008).

For decades, studies on how employees experience their jobs have centered largely on the effects of job design on employees’ attitudes and behaviors (Parker, Wall, & Cordery, 2001). Job design is a critical issue in human resource management. Job design refers to ‘how jobs, tasks, and roles are structured, enacted and modified and what the impact of these structures, enactment, and modifications are on the individual, group, and organizational outcomes’ (Grant & Parker, 2009). Traditionally, job design theory has focused on the top-down process of managers designing jobs for employees (Campion & McClelland, 1993). However, more recently, researchers have suggested that employees play a role in the design of their jobs, highlighting the proactivity of these efforts (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010).

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) proposed the construct of job crafting, which is described as the active role that individuals play in altering the boundaries of their jobs and shaping actual work practice. Leana, Appelbaum, and Shevechuk (2009) stated that job crafting can be classified in two categories: individual crafting and collaborative crafting. Individual crafting describes the active role that employees play in altering the boundaries of their job and shaping actual work practice. Collaborative crafting involves a joint effort among employees in the service of changing the work process. Tour leaders are the front line staff who provide the moment of truth for tourists. Previous studies indicated that a tour leader plays several roles in a tour, such as instrumental role, social role, interactional role, communicative role, dealing with emergency role, and care role. Tour leaders possess high job autonomy because they may have to make adjustments to an itinerary because of unforeseen situations that can arise during tours (Tsaur, Yen, & Yang, 2011). They are also required to coordinate and interact with the front-line employees of these travel-related organizations to complete a favorable tour experience, and frequently encounter spontaneous situations. Thus, a tour leader may engage in both individual crafting and collaborative crafting. Job crafting enables tour leaders to shape their work identities and roles through the personal construction of their jobs and the execution of their work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Therefore, job crafting behaviors can shape how they understand the purpose of their work and define themselves as tour leaders, which is essential to enhancing tourist satisfaction.

This study define tour leaders’ job crafting as the physical and cognitive changes tour leaders
make in the task or relational boundaries of their work to play good roles on a tour. Although many studies have explored the construct of job crafting in different domain, previous studies seem to suggest ambiguous and inconsistent explanations on the construct of job crafting. More importantly, the job characteristics of tour leader are different from the general employees in organization. Consequently, a deeper understanding of tour leaders’ job crafting is warranted. Given the above premise, the purpose of this study is to fill this gap conceptualizing tour leaders’ job crafting in order to understand the implications, constructs, and contents. The results of this study can suggest strategic directions for travel managers in terms of organizational behavior and human resource practice.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Wrezniewski and Dutton (2001) indicated that crafting a job involves shaping the task boundaries of the job (either physically or cognitively), the relational boundaries of the job, or both. Changing task boundaries refers to modifying the form or number of activities one engages in while working, whereas altering cognitive boundaries means changing how people view their jobs. Changing relational boundaries refers to exercising discretion regarding with whom one interacts when working. By changing any of these elements, employees alter the design of their jobs and the social environment in which they work. Tims et al. (2012) recently defined job crafting as the changes employees make to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs. Job demands refer to the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of a job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (i.e., cognitive and emotional) effort or skills. Job resources refer to aspects of the job that function to achieve work goals, reduce job demands and associated physiological and psychological costs, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). This conceptualization uses the job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) as a starting point. According to Tims et al. (2012), job crafting can take the form of three types of behaviors: increasing (structural or social) job resources, increasing job demands or challenges, and decreasing job demands.

A tour leader can also be called a tour manager or a tour escort and may sometimes need to undertake the tasks of a tour guide (Luoh & Tsaur, 2014). According to the World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (WFTGA), it defines a tour manager/tour director or escort as “a person who manages an itinerary on behalf of the tour operator ensuring the program is carried out as described in the tour operator’s literature and sold to the traveler/consumer and who gives local practical information” (WFTGA, 2003). A tour leader plays several instrumental roles, mediatory roles, interpretative/sustainability roles, and functions in a tour, such as the leader, communicator, organizer, salesperson, consultant, entertainer, and representative of the travel agency (Ryan & Dewar, 1995; Weiler & Black, 2014). The function of the tour leader within the group is considered to be indispensable by the tourists themselves (Wang et al., 2010). However, how tour guides perform their roles in actual practice varies amongst guides and amongst tours (Weiler & Black, 2014). Consequently, tour leaders’ job descriptions are complex.

Tour leaders require various skills and face numerous challenges. The tour leader not only has to understand the related information of travel locations, but also possess good expression, communication, crisis handling and English skills. The skills needed by the tour leader are therefore diverse. Because they are under considerable pressure during service encounters, tour leaders must have patience and diligence when performing tasks (Bowie & Chang, 2005). Although the tour leader is bounded by company regulations and tour contracts, the tour leader can make adjustments to itineraries depending on the situation (Tsaur et al., 2011). As a result, substantial efforts are required for the tour leaders to fulfill the work tasks (Wong & Wang, 2009). Based on these studies, tour leaders’ work situations require particularly high levels of skill variety, task complexity, and work discretion. Furthermore, the outbound GPT is generally a long and continuous process entailing long working hours. The tour leader is expected to offer a twenty-four-hour service throughout the entire tour (Luoh & Tsaur, 2014). During the entire itinerary, the tour leader mediates the interactions between tour participants and host
destination and works long and irregular hours, thus the job nature of tour leader demands a high degree of emotional labor (Wong & Wang, 2009). That is, the job characteristics and function of the tour leader is different with others jobs. Therefore, a method of altering the tasks and relational boundaries inherent in their occupation has become an issue of considerable concern for tour leaders.

METHOD

Purposive sampling was used as the sampling method in selecting the participants, whose insights would be relevant to the issues being studied (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Job crafting may vary with the different characteristics of the tour leaders. In order to explore the events of tour leaders’ job crafting extensively, the following requirements were set for the population of interviewees: (1) the percentage of both genders was approximately equal; (2) four age groups of 21-30, 31-40, 41-50 and above 51 were covered; (3) permanent and freelance tour leaders were included; (4) the years of guiding tours were covered across three ranges: less than five years, 6-14 years and above 15 years.

This study conducted semi-structured in-depth interviews to collect data. Semi-structured interviews are often the sole data source for a qualitative research project and are generally organized around a set of predetermined open-ended questions, with other questions emerging from the dialog between interviewer and interviewee/s. Likewise, the individual in-depth interview allows the interviewer to probe deeply into personal matters (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

Content analysis is a research method for subjectively interpreting the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Also, content analysis, which is one of the numerous research methods used to analyze text data, provides a condensed and broad description of the phenomenon. This research aims to identify the job crafting of tour leaders and content analysis can be used to find specific patterns in the data.

Two coders (one is a professor who is familiar with content analysis, the other is an experienced tour leader) were invited to perform content analysis. They read the data repeatedly to become familiar with the interview texts. Subsequently, each coder individually screened the job crafting events concerning the interviewees to determine the unit of analysis. Varied from large to small, the units of analysis may have been a message, paragraph, thematic unit, sentence or an illocution (Rourke, Anderson, Garrison, & Archer, 2001). The thematic unit used by this study is the most useful unit of content analysis because issues, beliefs, and attitudes are usually discussed in this form. The coder must be able to reduce the sentence to its component meaning before it is placed in the proper category (Kassarjian, 1977).

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THE STUDY OF BRAND ATTITUDE IN FACTORY TOURS

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism factory has existed in Europe and the US for many years. In the 20th century, factories abroad such as crystal, glass, foodstuff, winery etc. have combined with the tourism industry to successfully develop international tourism, truly the pioneers of tourism factories (Industrial Technology Research Institute, 2016). Tourism factory project initiated by the government in Taiwan encourages the traditional manufacturing companies with unique, industrial history, and culture to transform into tourism factories since tourism industry has become a new leisure industry of the twenty-first century (Shirali-Shahreza, 2008; Nabilou et al., 2011; Alqatan et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2012; Tsai et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013).

Since 2003, tourism factory was initiated by Tourism Factory Project by Industrial Development Bureau of Ministry of Economic Affairs in Taiwan and the major purpose is to transform the traditional manufacturing companies into tourism industry (Tsai et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013). Taiwan government has actively promoted the amalgamation of local industry culture and tourism, in order to bring the benefit of tourism to the manufacturing industry (Industrial Technology Research Institute, 2016). By becoming a tourism factory, companies can establish a bond between consumers and the brand, generate additional income from entrance tickets and on-site sales, and eventually add values for service innovation (Tsai et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013). Now, there are more than one hundred and thirty tourism factories around Taiwan and tourism factories have become one of the hottest trends that traditional manufacturing industry can receive the benefits of tourism by combining local industry culture and tourism (Li and Chen, 2009; Li, 2012).

Pine (2004) observes that as the experience economy matures, a shift is identified towards authenticity. Consumers decide to buy or not to buy, based on how real they perceive the product/service offering to be Lee et al. (2008) showed that positive environmental cues lead to positive attendee behaviors: if the programme content is interesting, staffs are polite and professional or if the overall environment of a festival is pleasant, attendees’ re-patronizing behavior will increase. The degree of destination loyalty is frequently reflected in tourists’ intentions to revisit the destination and in their willingness to recommend it (Chen and Tsai, 2007; Oppermann, 2000). Moreover, visitors may have the purchase intentions to buy the merchandise produced from the factory tours and improve the attitude toward the brand.

By understanding the relationships between authenticity, facility, staff, brand attitude and future purchase intention, factory tours’ managers would better know how to build up an attractive image and improve their marketing efforts to maximize their use of resources. Hence, the purpose of the study is twofold. The first is to confirm that authenticity, facility and staff would affect positively and significantly. The second is to examine the relationship between visit experience and brand attitude and purchase intention in their prediction. A better understanding of these relationships can provide
factory tours' managers insights into knowing visitors' visit experiences, behavioral intentions, and adjust their service to meet visitors' needs.

**METHOD**

3.1 Research Construction

This research is to understand the correlations between authenticity, facility, staff, visit experience, brand attitude, and purchase intention when visiting factory tour and use that information to construct the correlation mode of authenticity, facility, staff, visit experience, brand attitude, and purchase intention. The research construction is as below:

H₁: The authenticity of factory tour will positively influence the visit experience in factory tour.
H₂: The facility of factory tour will positively influence the visit experience in factory tour.
H₃: The staff of factory tour will positively influence the visit experience in factory tour.
H₄: The visit experience in factory tour will positively influence the brand attitude of visitors.
H₅: The visit experience in factory tour will positively influence the purchase intention of visitors.
H₆: The brand attitude of visitors will positively influence the purchase intention.

3.2 Questionnaire Design

This questionnaire is basic on the authenticity, facility, staff, visit experience, brand attitude, and purchase intention of visiting factory tour by reviewing related literature. This research divided the questionnaire contents into two parts:

3.2.1 Authenticity, facility, staff, visit experience, brand attitude, and purchase intention

This part used the Likert 5 point scale to measure the tourist thinking of this factory tour including authenticity, facility, staff, visit experience, brand attitude, and purchase intention. There are 36 questions in total.

3.2.2 General information of visitors

To make a survey on the gender, age, occupation, educated level, personal monthly income, the way of getting information about the factory tour, partners and transportations. There are 8 questions in total in this part.

3.3 Sample

Study data were gathered via a structured questionnaire survey. The samples of this research survey focus on Shu Shin Bou Wagashi Museum tourists traveling around. It investigates Shu Shin Bou Wagashi Museum tourists' travel authenticity, visit experience, brand attitude, and purchase intention. The site of surveys is in Shu Shin Bou Wagashi Museum. This research progressed by distributing questionnaires between 10th January to 16th January in 2016 and using convenience samples to get questionnaire surveys from visitors who were leaving Shin Bou Wagashi Museum. There are 210 questionnaires and 200 valid questionnaires in total; the effective response rate is 95.2%.

**FINDINGS**

4.1 The analysis of tourists characteristics

Firstly, we separately analyzed the interviewees by gender, age, occupation, educated level, personal monthly income, the way of getting information about the factory tour, who does come together, and transportations. The result shows that the number of female visitors visited Shu Shin Bou Wagashi Museum is more than male, the percentage are 62.6% of female and 37.4% of male. The distributions of age are evenly assorted in all ages and the age of visitors ranged in 30 to 49 is the greatest number with 24.7%.

The largest portion of occupation is from service industry with 28.8%, and housemaker, student, manufacturing industry, retired, military officer and public servant, and agriculture industry in sequence. They have the percentage of 21.7%, 21.2%, 9.1%, 9.1%, 5.1%, and 2.5% in order.

The most number of educational levels is university and college which have 43.4%. The next levels in order are high school, junior high and under junior high, and post graduate and higher with the percentage of 38.4%, 14.1%, and 4%.

The most of personal monthly income is under NTD 20,000 and it is about 48.9%. In sequence of percentage from high to low is NTD 40, 000-60, 000, NTD 20, 000-40, 000, NTD 60, 000-80, 000, and over NTD 80, 000 with the percentage of 23.3%, 19.4%, 6.1%, and 2.2%.
The way that visitors get the information of factory tour is mostly from their relatives and friends with 52.3%, and then newspaper and magazine, website, radio and media, tourism bureau, and walk in are the percentage of 15.0%, 14.5%, 9.3%, 4.7%, and 4.1% in order.

Tourists mostly went to factory tour with their families and the percentage is about 44.3%. Friends, classmates, tour, colleague, and go alone are in order of 30.2%, 8.9%, 8.9%, 6.8%, and 1.0%.

The transports that visitors used is mostly by driving car with 56.6%, and then motorbike, tour bus, city bus, on foot, bike, taxi with 16.8%, 12.8%, 10.2%, 2.6%, 0.5% and 0.5% (Table 1).

Based on the analysis above, visitors went to Shu Shin Bou Wagashi Museum are mostly female, aged 30-49 years old, work in service industry, educated with university and college level, personal monthly income under NTD 20,000, the way they got information is from relatives and friends, went together with family, and went there by car.

4.2 Mean of different dimensions

In Authenticity, “It is important for me to see how this product produces. (M=4.01)” is what tourists valued about. It can highlight the important of actual experience in tour factory.

In Facility, “Shu Shi Bon provides detailed information. (e.g. tour instruction)” has the highest item mean(M=3.87). The second is “Shu Shi Bon provides well hard facility or experience facility. (M=3.84)”, “Shu Shi Bon has enough space for tourists to do activity. (e.g. D.I.Y. area) (M=3.82)” and “Shu Shi Bon have enough space for tourists to rest (e.g. seat area)” show the detailed information has a significant impact on tourists. In staff prospect, “Shu Shi Bon’s staffs have well professional knowledge. (M=3.82)” has the highest mean, shows staffs’ professional knowledge has impact on tourists feel (Table 2).

In the Visit Experience prospect, “Shu Shi Bon made me curios and wanted to know about this brand. (M=3.78)” has the highest mean, the second “Shu Shi Bon stimulates my feels and emotions. (M=3.69)” and “Shu Shi Bon presents interesting and attractive in sense. (M=3.68)” show that when visiting experience, brand would stimulate tourists’ curios, sense and emotions. The final result is interesting and attractive.

In Brand attitude, “I have a positive brand attitude to Shu Shi Bon. (M=3.87)” shows most of the tourists get positive brand attitude to tour factory.

In Purchase intense, most of them have purchase intense “I will purchase Shu Shi Bon’s product. (M=3.82)”. As this we can see, most of tourists will have purchase intense to the products after visiting tour factory.

4.3 Reliability Analysis

To measure the study subject has the enough consistency in each prospect, Cronbach’s α is to examine its internal consistency. If a prospect’s α is higher means it is more stable. And Item to Total Correlation is to examine the relative of each prospect. According to Hair et al. (2010), he thought that Cronbach’s α > 0.7 shows high reliability. If Cronbach’s α > 0.6 is acceptable. However, α in the total table should higher than 0.8. If is higher than 0.9, its reliability would be better. Each prospect Cronbach’s α is between 0.656 to 0.918 shows this study has an internal consistency.

4.4 Analysis of different background of tourists in different dimension

From different background to calculate variables with authenticity, facility, staff, visit experience, brand attitude and purchase intense to do the t test or One-Way ANOVA Verification analysis. A Scheffe comparison was used to identify notable differences (Table 4).

4.5 Socioeconomic differences factors analysis of each dimension

In terms of gender, through independent samples t-test analysis showed that the respondent’s gender has significant differences to the personnel dimension (Table 5).

Through One-Way ANOVA (one-way analysis of variance) we found out that different age of personnel, visit experience, brand attitude and purchase intension has significant differences to the
dimension. Post-hoc analysis: the tourist whose ages are more than 60, they have significant feeling at visit experience than the tourist whose age is under 20. In the same manner, tourists whose ages are more than 60 have significant feeling at purchase intention than the age which is under 39.

Different educations respondents for visiting factory tours have significant difference between personnel dimension and purchase intention. Post-hoc analysis: education level is under junior high school’s tourists, have significant feeling at personnel dimension than the tourist whose education level is graduate school.

4.6 Analysis of Authenticity, Facilities, Personnel, Visit experience, Brand attitude and Purchase intention dimensions relationship model

In the correlation analysis of authenticity, facilities, personnel, visit experience, brand attitude and purchase intention dimensions (Table 6) all six dimensions have significant relevance, after the establishment of the correlation coefficient, the regression analysis to discuss the cause and effect relationship between variables was done.

The first regression analysis was based on visit experience dimension as measure dependent variable; the authenticity, facilities and personnel are as measure independent variable (Table 7). Three independent variables have significant positive effects, which affect facilities dimension, because the standardized Beta value is 0.383. Personnel dimension also has significant effect, the standardized Beta value is 0.257. In addition, authenticity also has significant effect, standardized Beta value is -0.103. After the VIF test, VIF value of three variable have less than 10, which indicates no significant overlap between the independent variable, while the overall explanatory power is 40.0%.

The second regression analysis was based on purchase intention dimension as measure dependent variable; the visit experience and brand attitude are as measure independent variable (Table 8). Two independent variables have significant positive effects, which affect brand attitude dimension, because the standardized Beta value is 0.652. In addition, visit experience also has significant effect, standardized Beta value is 0.160. After the VIF test, VIF value of two variable have less than 10, which indicates no significant overlap between the independent variable, while the overall explanatory power is 50.2%.

The third regression analysis was based on purchase intention dimension as measure dependent variable, the visit experience as measure independent variable (Table 9). The independent variable has significant positive effect. The standardized Beta value is 0.374. After the VIF test, VIF value’s variable has less than 10, which indicates no significant overlap between the independent variable, while the overall explanatory power is 14.0%.

CONCLUSION

5.1.1 Tourists profile

Among tourists visit tourism factory, they are mostly women, 30-49 years of age from mainly tourists, service industry as mostly career, university (college) diploma as educational degree, individual with monthly income of less than NTD 20,000, to obtain related information by informing friends and family, and most of one’s family to accompany by car. The study of Tseng (2014) indicated that tourists visiting Guoyuan Yi tourism factory ages ranging from 21-39 years up to the rest of the findings of the present study less.

5.1.2 Analysis in each dimensions

Authenticity includes three variables, “For me, it is important to actually experience how this production be produced” is the highest. Among the eight variables in the device, “Shu Shin Bou provides detailed information (for example: the navigation instructions),” is the highest. Among the four variables in staff, “The staffs of Shu Shin Bou have adequate expertise,” is the highest. Among the 13 variables of visiting experience, “Shu Shin Bou this brand would make me curious to realize it,” is the highest. Among the four variables of brand attitude, “Shu Shin Bou holds positive brand attitude for me” is highest. Among the three variables of purchase intention, “I would buy products and souvenirs from Shu Shin Bou” is highest.
However, from the study of Tseng (2014) indicated that among the “equipment” variable, “tour factory provides the perfect hardware equipment or practical equipment experience,” is the highest. Among the “staff” variable, “the staffs of tour factory are polite,” among the “Visitors Experience” variable, “the brand of tour factory presents interesting and attractive sense” and “the tour factory makes me have immersive experience feelings.”

5.1.3 Analysis of authenticity, facility, staff, visit experience, brand attitude and purchase intention

H1: The authenticity of tour factory may impacts visit experience of tourists to tour factory, therefore, which did not supported H1.
H2: The equipment of tour factory may impacts visit experience of tourists to tour factory, therefore, which supported H2.
H3: The staff of tour factory may impacts visit experience of tourists to tour factory, therefore, which supported H3.
H4: The visit experience of tour factory may impacts brand attitude of tourists to tour factory, therefore, which supported H4.
H5: The visit experience of tour factory may impacts purchase intention of tourists to tour factory, therefore, which supported H5.
H6: Tourists to the brand attitude of tour factory may impacts purchase intention to tour factory, therefore, which supported H6.

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DESTINATION BRAND EQUITY MANAGEMENT: BUILDING, MEASURING, AND EXAMINATION OF NIGHT MARKET TOURISM

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INTRODUCTION

Night market tourism can be broadly defined as tourism undertaken to view or encounter local culture and to experience different nightlife opportunities (Hsieh & Chang, 2006). This type of tourism takes place in a range of settings; in the Asia region, Taiwan has an abundance of unique, natural and diverse cuisines, and these distinguishing features are represented in its night market. This form of tourism is becoming increasingly popular, especially for foreign tourists from different cultural backgrounds who enjoy arranging novelty trips, recreation, and shopping activities.

The first goal of this research is to analyze the process by which novelty influences travel intention by examining two potential mediators. Using the theoretical foundation of brand equity theory (Aaker, 1996), we argue that novelty influences travel intention through two paths: enhancing positive brand equity that tends to expand one’s travel decision and encouraging a tourist’s motivation to transform thought to action. We capture this travel intention decision perspective in our study through the influence of positive brand equity and intrinsic motivation on the perception of a tourist’s new and different experience in the Taiwanese night market. The second goal of our research is to examine the direct effects of novelty on travel intention and motivation by investigating whether brand equity has a greater influence on travel intention and motivation. Past research supports both of these findings in different samples, but the results are inconsistent and the relative strength of the influence of the foreign tourist and the special tourism destination has yet to be examined in a systematic fashion. Furthermore, we aim to examine the total effects (direct and indirect) of the three directions of novelty influence, travel intention and motivation through brand equity, and the influence of travel intention through intrinsic motivation to determine whether the same pattern of relative strength holds.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Novelty in tourism refers to tourists who search for new or different tourism experiences, novel stimuli, risks, and new environments (Lee & Crompton, 1992). Previous studies defined degree of novelty as its present perception compared with past experience (Dhurup, 2014). Jang and Feng (2008) proposed a definition in which visit intention is the outcome of the subjective evaluation about novelty seeking. Thus, novelty seeking theory has been found to be particularly important in explaining travel destination decision behavior. Indeed, tourists seeking novelty experiences may have decreased motivation to return to the same places often (Assaker, Vinzi, & O’Connor, 2011), such as the Taiwanese night market. While novelty has been found to be a significant antecedent of travel intention, familiarity of the destination is also a critical attribute that influences travel intention. Hosany and Prayag (2013, p. 731) suggested that tourists prefer familiar destinations with virtually no element of adventure or risk-taking during their travel; thus, we suggested that the higher level of the novelty of a destination may have a diminishing effect on tourist travel intention.

Hypothesis 1. The novelty of night market activities is negatively related to the tourist’s travel intention.

Hypothesis 2. The novelty of night market activities is positively related to the night market brand equity.

Hypothesis 3. The novelty of night market activities is positively related to the tourist’s in-
trinisc motivation.

Hypothesis 4. Night market brand equity is positively related to the tourist’s travel intention.

Hypothesis 5. Night market brand equity is positively related to the tourist’s intrinsic motivation.

Hypothesis 6. The tourist’s intrinsic motivation is positively related to travel intention.

Hypothesis 7. The night market brand equity mediates a positive relationship between the novelty of night market activities and the tourist’s travel intention.

Hypothesis 8. Intrinsic motivation mediates a positive relationship between the novelty of night market activities and the tourist’s travel intention.

METHODS

Overview of the research process

This study uses a sample from foreign visitors to Taiwanese night markets for several reasons. Seven research assistants were hired and trained to assist in interviewing the owners in night markets. A total of 650 foreign visitors were surveyed via interviews with the owners in these night markets. After eliminating some incomplete questionnaires, the final sample comprised 466 valid responses. The response rate was 71.69%. In our sample, the share of female tourists (46.1%) was similar to that of males (53.9%) from Japan (6.5%), Hong Kong (8.2%) or China (33.3%), with a college level of education (63.2%), under 50 years of age (66.6%) and with the main purpose of visiting (31.8%).

RESULTS

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to examine the hypothesized model. The advantage of SEM over OLS regression is that it provides a simultaneous test of an entire hypothesized model and enables assessment of the extent to which the model is constant with the collected data (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). The result shows that the chi-square test ($\chi^2$) was significant for the model fit. Other fit indices should also be taken into consideration. The values of the remaining indices indicated a good fit to the data ($\chi^2$=567.67, $p<.001$; CFI =.94, TLI =.93, RMSEA=.08). These factors provided evidence that the proposed model fits the data well. In terms of the path coefficient for testing hypotheses. Our results supported this proposition ($\beta = -.64$, $p < .001$). In addition, the mediation effect from value to loyalty through image is significant. The bootstrap analysis provided estimates of mediation effects and a confidence interval. The mediation effect is $\beta$= 0.30 ($B= 0.38$, $p<0.001$) with a 99% bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval that was entirely above zero (0.16 to 0.66).

DISCUSSION

This study examines the foreign travel decision-making process in which the novelty of night market activities influences travel intention. We show that brand equity is an explanatory mechanism of the relationship between the novelty of night market activities and tourists’ travel intention. The brand equity of the Taiwanese night market can encourage intrinsic motivation because it can provide an unforgettable tourism experience and attract tourists’ travel intention. A higher level of novelty in night market activities provides favorable images for tourists, with positive tourism brand bases for brand awareness, brand image, perceived quality, and brand loyalty, which in turn increase the tourists’ travel intention and intrinsic motivation. However, travel intention may be related to familiarity; the novelty seeking component for foreign tourists with less familiarity with the Taiwanese night market may have a diminishing effect on the tourists’ visit intention (Assaker, et al., 2011).

We find that competitive intensity completely mediates racial diversity’s effect on market share gain. Thus, our study provides empirical support for previously untested assumptions that brand equity influences foreign tourists’ motivation and travel intention. We also tested for the mediating effect of intrinsic motivation between novelty and travel intention, but found no support for this conjecture. Although the results do not support the mediation effects, our results suggest that more novelty activities or new services or products may encourage tourists’ intrinsic motivation for shopping. Creativity and innovation services enable night market vendors to compete intensively in high-growth tourism industries and to provide other new shop-
ping experiences for foreign tourists to encourage their motivation and enhance their travel intention.

This Structural Equation Modelling examined and extended the theoretical model linking brand equity with tourist travel intention (Bianchi, et al., 2014). We illuminate the process in which novelty in tourism management is related to brand equity and intrinsic motivation by increasing a foreign tourist’s travel intention and gaining advantages in the high-competition, high-density night market in Taiwan. Brand equity is an especially critical mediating attribute that connects novelty and a tourist’s travel behavior. Thus, managerial brand equity represents a tourism organization’s potential and possibility for survival that enables it to discover and exploit opportunities for developing new services and products that gain tourists’ Word-of-Mouth (WOM) reputation and earn brand equity. In addition, novelty activities in tourism management enhance the vendor’s capability to develop new competitive actions in competitive tourism environments with high growth potential.

REFERENCE


THE STUDY OF LEISURE CONSTRAINTS OF TAIWANESE PEOPLE

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INTRODUCTION

Leisure activities play a major role in people’s lives (Brajsa-Zganec, Merkas, & Sverko, 2011). Many scholars have documented leisure participation as an essential factor contributing to an individual’s social, psychological, and physical well-being (e.g., Caldwell, 2005; Trost, Owen, Bauman, Sallis, & Brown, 2002; Warburton, Nicol, & Bredin, 2006). Low-effort activities (e.g., watching television) as well as more active forms of leisure can foster positive affective states and relaxation before going to sleep (Sonnenntag, 2001).

According to a survey conducted by the Tourism Bureau of Taiwan (2014), hot spring bathing has become one of the popular leisure activities among Taiwanese people. That said, Jiaoxi in Yilan County and Beitou in Taipei City that are well-known for their hot springs have attracted a substantial number of visitors. While these two places provide a great deal of recreational opportunities, Taiwanese people may experience constraints that hinder their visit or leisure participation in these two destinations. Concurrently, the Tourism Bureau (2014) examined the reasons for Taiwanese people not undertaking any leisure activities, revealing that the major reason (44.9% of respondents) was that they don’t have the time to go even if they are willing to do some leisure activities. The second and third major reasons both consisting of 17.9%, indicated that they are not interested in taking part in any leisure activities and they don’t have a good health condition even if they are willing to conduct some leisure activities. Other reasons including the difficulty of being able to afford the expenses associated with leisure activities of interest and having difficulty to find company to go with. While leisure-related practitioners and the government bears the responsibility to enhance quality of leisure or tourism experiences in Jiaoxi and Beitou, it is imperative that they realize what people would do and what would discourage people’s visit to these two areas.

Thus, the purpose of the current study was to examine leisure participation and constraints of visitors to Jiaoxi and Beitou hot springs in Taiwan, and their differences in terms of leisure constraints and participation. Guided by leisure constraints theory (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991), we assessed three dimensions of leisure constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints. Alternatively, as cultural and natural landscapes and infrastructure may differ between Jiaoxi and Beitou areas, leisure opportunities available to people may differ. By the same token, people who visit these two areas may experience different constraints. Therefore, four research questions arise:

1. What leisure activities do Jiaoxi and Beitou visitors do?  
2. What leisure constraints do Jiaoxi and Beitou visitors have?  
3. Do Jiaoxi and Beitou visitors differ in their leisure constraints?  
4. Do Jiaoxi and Beitou visitors differ in their leisure participation?

Guided by the latter two research questions, we proposed the following hypotheses:
H1: Visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi Hot Springs differ in their leisure constraints.
H2: Visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi Hot Springs differ in their leisure participation.

METHOD

Sample and procedures. A cross-sectional survey research design was adopted. Convenience sampling was employed to recruit pedestrians at the Taipei Main Station in Taiwan. Out of 200 distributed questionnaires, 150 were completed and returned, yielding a response rate of 75%. Females consisted of 66% of the sample. The majority of the respondents who have visited the two hot spring attractions aged between 19 and 25 (50.7%), were students (52.0%), and had monthly income of less than NT$18,000 (53.3%). Nearly 73.3% of the respondents were unmarried. Respondents who have visited Beitou hot spring accounted for 38.0%, and those who have visited Jiaoxi hot spring accounted for 62.0%.

Instrumentation and analytical strategy. Existing scales were used to measure respondents' leisure constraints (Crawford et al., 1991) and participation (e.g., Kang, Huang, & Lien, 2008; Sun, 2008). Leisure constraints were measured on a five-point Likert scale, including five items for intrapersonal constraints, two items for interpersonal constraints, and six items for structural constraints. Descriptive analysis, reliability analysis, one-way ANOVA and t-tests were performed to address the proposed research questions.

FINDINGS

Leisure participation. We assessed visitors’ leisure participation in terms of locations of leisure activities, types of leisure activities, frequency of participation in leisure activities on weekdays, and frequency of participation in leisure activities during weekends. Table 1 summarizes the results of descriptive analyses. The results indicate that most tourists participate in leisure activities outdoors (54.2%). The main outdoor recreation of leisure activities is shopping (25.1%). The main cultural recreation is visiting historical sites (33.2%) followed by seeing theatrical performances and exhibitions (32.2%). Tasting delicacies is the majority hobby (50.2%). Viewing the scenery (27.1%) and hiking (22.7%) are the two majorities of entertainment. Social gathering (35.8%) is the majority of socializing followed by KTV (25.0%). Participation in leisure activities on weekdays and weekends primarily ranges from 0 to 3 times.

Leisure constraints. We assessed respondents’ leisure constraints along its 13 items (see Table 2). Overall, no companions to go with is ranked the most pronounced leisure constraint (M = 2.75), followed by lack of opportunities to participate in leisure (M = 2.73) and cost of money (M = 2.73). Therefore, it suggests the importance of companionship, time, and financial wealth in leisure participation.

We used Cronbach’s α value to test the internal consistency of leisure constraints (Table 3). If the α coefficient value is high, it represents the facets dimension is more stable and it has more degree of correlation between the Item to Total Correlation and other items dimension. According to Hair et al. (2010), if Cronbach’s α value is greater than 0.7, it indicates higher reliability. If the value is above 0.6, it is also acceptable. However, the α value coefficient in the overall scale is suggested to be higher than 0.8. If the value is above 0.9, it means the reliability is excellent. The Cronbach's α value of each dimension ranges from 0.799 to 0.920, it indicates that each dimension of the study scale has an internal consistency.

Differences between visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi hot spring in relation to leisure constraints. Independent T tests were used to analyze differences between visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi hot spring in terms of intrapersonal constraints, interpersonal constraints and structural constraints. The results indicated that visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi hot spring did not significantly differ across different dimensions of leisure constraints.

Differences between visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi hot spring in relation to leisure participation. Chi-square analysis was performed to assess differences between visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi hot spring in relation to participation in leisure activities (see Table 5). The results show that most visitors of Beitou chose outdoor as their location for leisure.
Regarding outdoor recreation, visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi mostly went shopping or visited recreational or scenic areas. As far as knowledge and culture oriented leisure was concerned, visitors of Beitou mainly watched theatrical performances and exhibitions, while those of Jiaoxi preferred seeing historical sites. Visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi indicated shared interest in tasting delicacies as their primary hobby-type of leisure activities. Furthermore, most visitors of Beitou went sightseeing as their primary entertainment activity, whereas those of Jiaoxi preferred sightseeing and hiking. Socializing with friends and relatives also emerged as a major leisure activity for visitors of both Beitou and Jiaoxi.

T-tests were used to examine whether visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi would differ in the frequency of leisure participation on weekdays and over weekends (see Table 6). The results suggest that there is a significant difference in the frequency of leisure participation during weekends. More specifically, visitors of Beitou participated in leisure activities during weekends more frequently than those of Jiaoxi.

CONCLUSION

Our empirical efforts explored in which leisure activities visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi frequently engaged and what leisure constraints inhibit their leisure participation. Overall, the most frequently engaged leisure activities were found to be outdoor recreation. Specific activities such as shopping, visiting historical sites, seeing theatrical performances and exhibitions, tasting delicacies, viewing beautiful scenery, hiking, social gathering with friends and relatives, and KTV emerged as popular leisure activities among visitors of both Beitou and Jiaoxi. The findings also suggested that no companions to go with, lack of opportunities to participate in leisure, and cost of money could be the most common constraints. Such findings mirror the results of a survey conducted by the Taiwan Tourism Bureau (2014). As for frequency of leisure participation, our results indicate that the majority of people engage in zero up to three times of leisure activities on both weekdays and weekends, implying that limited time available for people to undertake leisure activities on weekdays.

We also examined whether visitors of Beitou and Jiaoxi would have different perceptions of their leisure constraints and different patterns of leisure participation. While the results suggested no significant difference between these two groups with respect to leisure constraints, the data yielded different patterns of leisure participation. Such findings have implications for tourism practitioners and the government to promote Jiaoxi and Beitou and improve quality of these two destinations. For example, visiting historical sites was a popular culture oriented leisure activity for visitors of Jiaoxi, while watching performances and exhibitions was popular for visitors of Beitou. Both places could capitalize on their cultural resources to attract visitors.

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THE EFFECTS OF COUNTRY IMAGE ON QUALITY AND VALUE OF CRUISE TRAVEL PRODUCT

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INTRODUCTION

Amongst tourism products cross country borders, the cruise vacation has been gained a notable popularity in tourism sector, especially in Asia. According to Cruise Line International Association Asia Cruise Trends Report (CLIA, 2014), the number of cruise passengers has been increased significantly from 775,000 in 2012 to 1.4 million in 2014. Almost half of the 1.4 million were Chinese passengers (679,000). To accommodate the growing market, more port calls have been developed. In 2015, more than 950 port calls (34% increase from 2013) served cruise passengers. The fastest growth in developing new port calls were seen in Hong Kong, India and Japan. Over 90% of the Asia cruise travelers took a short sailing (less than seven days) within Asia region, and port calls in Japan and Korea accommodate the most passenger destination days (CLIA, 2014).

Previous studies have shown that country image plays major role in evaluating product attributes and purchase intentions (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Hong & Wyer, 1990; Johansson & Thorelli, 1985; Lee & Lee, 2011). Although much empirical research has focused on consumer products (Han & Terpstra, 1988); the concept of country image has not extensively been explored especially for tourists’ evaluation of international tourism products crossing borders such as cruise travel. Depending on what type of image one has for a county, tourism products he or she purchases may be evaluated differently. When a country is highly regarded by a tourist, the quality and value of the tourism products is likely to be rated higher than when a country is regarded negatively. The same concept can be extended to tourists’ attitude and behavioral intention, as they are also known to be the major part of product evaluation (Johansson & Thorelli, 1985).

This study aims to empirically test the effects of country image on quality and value of cruise vacation as a tourism product and further on the cruise passengers’ attitude toward cruise travel and further behavioral intentions. The results of this study can offer the cruisers and countries more theory based approach to measure the passengers’ evaluation and address the significance of the cruise market in Asia. The proposed research model and hypotheses illustrate the main points of the current study (see Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Proposed Model](image-url)
Hypotheses
H1: Country image has a positive direct influence on cruise travel quality.
H2: Country image has a positive direct influence on cruise travel value (functional and emotional).
H3: Country image has a positive direct influence on individual’s attitude towards cruise travel.
H4: Cruise travel quality has a positive direct influence on cruise travel value (functional and emotional).
H5: Cruise travel quality has a positive direct influence on attitude towards cruise travel.
H6: Cruise travel value (functional and emotional) has a positive direct influence on attitude towards cruise travel.
H7: Attitude towards cruise travel has a positive direct influence on future behavioral intention.

METHOD

A self-administrated survey was designed in Korean first and then translated to Chinese which was examined by Chinese graduate students. Then, it was back-translated to Korean to ensure the accuracy of translations. The Chinese version was also revised and edited a few times by a professional editor. A pilot test for each version was also conducted with either Korean or Chinese students at a university. No significant difference was found between two versions.

Each of the constructs included in the study was measured by multiple items based on an extensive review of the literature and specifics of cruise travel. First, the country image was measured by seven items (Han, 1990; Martin & Eroglu, 1993; Martinez & Alvarez, 2010). For cruise quality, seven items were measured (Crompton & and Love, 1995; Yoon, Lee & Lee, 2010). Cruise value was measured by seven items which divided into two dimensions; functional and emotional (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; William & Soutar, 2009). Attitude toward cruise travel was measured by four items (Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003) and additional four items were included for future behavioral intentions (Cronin, Brady & Hult, 2000; Patterson & Spreng, 1997). All items were measured by 5-point strongly disagree – strongly agree Likert-type scales. Respondents’ socio-demo-graphics along with the frequency of their trip to Korea were also included in the questionnaire.

Data was collected from Chinese cruise vacationers from June 2 to 12, 2014 at a port of call in Yeosu, Korea where the 2012 International Exposition Yeosu Korea was held. The Expo site serves as an attraction not only for the in-land visitors but also for cruise travelers who stop for a day excursion for shopping, food, and various cultural events. Seven trained Chinese graduate students from the major Korean university distributed the survey questionnaire by intercepting the Chinese cruise vacationers at multiple locations throughout the Expo site. The respondents were offered a small token of appreciation for participation. This process resulted in a total of 332 usable questionnaires.

There were slightly more female respondents (56.3%) than male (40.4%). Over 62% was between age of 30 and 49 and 87% of them were married. The respondents were well educated, over 77% had more than 2-year college degree. Almost half (46.6%) of them made monthly income between USD $1,600-$3,199 (converted from Chinese currency Yuan). The majority of the respondents (90%) indicated that it was their first visit to Korea.

FINDINGS

Data was analyzed first to test the measurement model by conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS 21. The 29-item and 6-construct (functional and emotional value counted separately) measurement model was examined for its reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and overall model fit from the. Test results presented good reliability and validity among all measures. Various model fit indexes indicated that data measurement model fits the data very well. The $\chi^2$ fit statistics was 743.69 with 353 degrees of freedom ($\chi^2$/d.f. = 2.11). The comparable fit index (CFI) was .95, normed fit index (NFI) was .90 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .058.

Next, the structure model is estimated to test the proposed relationships among the constructs using maximum likelihood estimation method. Model fit indices show that the data fits the model very well. The squared multiple correlations ($R^2$) for cruise quality, functional and emotional value, atti-
tude and intention were .20, .66, .69, .71, and .58, respectively for the structural equation model (SEM). The standardized coefficients and t-values were inspected which indicated whether each proposed hypothesis was supported or not supported. Table 1 shows the standardized parameter estimates and t-value for each path tested. Most of the proposed paths were statistically supported except for paths between country image and emotional value and between emotional and functional values and attitude toward cruise travel. Although country image has significant positive effect on functional value, the explanation power was relatively weak (β= .14).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paths</th>
<th>Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1  Country Image → Cruise Quality</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>7.92**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2a  Country Image → Functional Value</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>1.97*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2b  Country Image → Emotional Value</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3  Country Image → Attitude toward Cruise Travel</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>6.44**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4a  Cruise Quality → Functional Value</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>11.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4b  Cruise Quality → Emotional Value</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>11.47**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5  Cruise Quality → Attitude toward Cruise Travel</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>4.19**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6a  Functional Value → Attitude toward Cruise Travel</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6b  Emotional Value → Attitude toward Cruise Travel</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7  Attitude toward Cruise Travel → Behavioral Intention</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>13.12**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $\chi^2 = 738.32$, d.f.= 354, p= .000, NFI= .91, CFI= .95, RMSEA= .057. **p <.01, *p <.05

**DISCUSSION**

The image of Korea that Chinese cruise vacationers have strongly influenced how they evaluate the cruise travel product quality and functional value. This means that the more positive image they have about Korea the higher quality and the better monetary value they perceive. However, country image did not influence how they gauge the emotional value. The more positive image of Korea also helped create more positive attitude towards the Korean cruise vacation product. The higher the cruise travel quality perceived the higher the functional and emotional value were rated as well as the more positive attitude toward the cruise travel was created. Contrary to the current study proposal and existing literature on the major constructs included in this study, neither functional nor emotional value influenced the cruise vacationers’ attitude towards the cruise travel. Finally, as expected, the cruise vacationers’ attitude towards the cruise travel influenced their behavioral intention positively. This means that the more positive attitude the Korean cruise vacationers have about the Korean cruise products, the higher their intentions to either revisit the Korea in the future and recommend the cruise vacation products to their acquaintances.

One of the several implications of this study would be that sustaining the positive country image plays a critical role in Chinese cruise vacationers’ evaluation of the product. The current political conflicts in Northeast Asia might directly and indirectly influence the image of Korea. However, the industry level (tourism sector) can continue their efforts to sustain the positive image. The Korean Wave (The Hallyu), which is a neologism referring to the increase in the popularity of South Korean culture (www.wikipedia) has helped building the current positive image of South Korea from the Chinese travelers (especially the younger travelers). The continuing efforts from the private sectors such as the retail and entertainment industry will build even stronger positive image in the future.

Theoretically, the study has found that cruise quality acts as a mediator between the country image and the attitude towards the cruise product. Not only the country image has a direct impact on the attitude but more importantly the quality can change the relationship between two. This interprets that the Korean cruise industry should not totally depend on the country image, but constant product improvement is necessary to receive more positive reactions from the Chinese cruise travelers.
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PROMOTING SUSTAINABLE INNOVATION ABILITY THROUGH THE ACCUMULATION OF TECHNOLOGY APPLICATION AND ORGANIZATION ENVIRONMENT: A CASE STUDY IN TAIWAN

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Jeou-Shyan Horng  
JinWen University of Science and Technology  
Chih-Hsing Liu  
Yung-Chuan Huang  
Ming Chuan University

INTRODUCTION

Due to the depletion of natural resources, greenhouse gas emissions, and environmental pollution, sustainable development will be an important issue for restaurant firms (Hall & Gössling, 2012). In a fast-changing and competitive environment, the key to survival lies in innovation (Tajeddini & Trueman, 2012). Because environmental protection has come to be regarded a matter of social responsibility in the hospitality industry, educators should prepare a structured plan to deliver knowledge about both creativity and green innovation to help the industry better meet consumer expectations (Hu, Parsa, & Self, 2010; Namkung & Jang, 2013). Edquist (2005) suggests that new activities interact with and depend on the environment. Amabile et al., (1996) suggest that innovation is the product of individual interaction with the environment. Thus, situational factors play a key role in the process of creativity, and it is clear that creativity requires an environmental stimulant.

Technology is often used as an innovation tool in restaurant operations. Within restaurant operations management, innovation and the application of technology can significantly enhance the quality and quantity of services, thereby reducing production costs, and it can also provide instant information for decision-making reference operators (Premkumar & Ramamurthy, 1995). Law, Leung, and Buhalıs (2009) also suggest that the application of technology can help hospitality and tourism students learn more effectively. For example, web applications or virtual learning environments can provide a platform for students to become more reflective. In addition, they enhance the development of student creativity (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2007) in areas such as marketing, risk management, managerial implications and strategic management. The application of information technology is necessary for hospitality students to meet the future needs of the industry (Law et al., 2009). Therefore, it is important to identify the critical role that environmental and technology applications play in enhancing and sustaining innovation among hospitality students. This information is meaningful for hospitality management and will also have a great influence on future education, instructional delivery, and Tourism and hospitality course design.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Restaurant operations have a high rate of environmental pollution. Contrary to trends in the past, several studies now point to the need for the restaurant industry to consider more sustainable innovation practices such as purchasing more green material, meal supplies, paperless services, and designing more energy saving space to achieve sustainable development goals (Hu et al., 2010). Many environmental studies note that sustainable development requires more innovative ideas to solve environmental problems (Karakaya, Hidalgo, & Nuur, 2014). Creativity-related studies have found that innovation is the product of individual interaction with the environment. Thus, situational factors play a key role in the process of creativity; showing creativity...
requires an environmental stimulant (Amabile, 1996; Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005). Amabile (1996) examined environmental factors are related to the development of creativity. These factors include resources (including personnel, equipment and time, as well as the organizations’ willingness to innovate and the presence of conditions supporting innovation), autonomy (including the autonomy or freedom to decide what work to do or how) and pressure (including extreme time pressures, unrealistic expectations for productivity and distractions from creative work). Innovation is often achieved through the application of new technology in restaurant manufacturing areas and may include technological advances in food technology development, product development and risk management, etc. (Rodgers, 2011). In addition, in restaurant sales and service areas, technology can be combined with consumer psychology, cognitive psychology, sociology and economics to improve production and sales through innovative technology (Rodgers, 2007, 2011). Horng, Hu, Teng, and Lin (2012) suggest that with regard to sustainable development, the hospitality industry should use application technology to become more efficient and green. Hu, Horng, Teng, and Chou (2013) and Kasim (2012) also note that the restaurant industry should reduce pollution and environmental damage through innovative technology and management while simultaneously improving operational efficiency; these actions would achieve the goal of sustainable development. Therefore, the goal of this study was to explore and construct an organizational environment, technology application and sustainable innovation inference model. Based on above this study construct research framework- hypothesized model see figure 1.

![Figure 1. Research Framework- Hypothesized Model](image)

**METHODOLOGY**

To achieve these research goals, this study preparation collected data from March to May of 2016. During the data-collection period, the research teams will invite junior and senior students from the Hospitality department in Taiwan. We are preparation a total of 600 questionnaires. In this sample, the respondents were evenly distributed according to gender (male and female) and included all school locations (North, Central and South) and work or internship experience (did not any experience, below 1 year ; 1~3 years, 3~5 years and above 5 years). In addition, we will conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to identify organizational learning, sustainable innovation, and operation performance. We will load individual variables in the research model on different factors, and test all factor loadings, indicating the unidimensionality of the measures.

The research expects findings can clarify the relationship between teaching environment, technology application and sustainable innovation, for example organizational environment can help members create innovative ideas to solve environmental
problems (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Ehnert, 2014). The environment also enhances a member's ability to accept additional new technology applications. The organizational environment represents a key factor in innovation diffusion, especially when using new technology. For the organization's members to accept innovation, they must have opportunities to practice, which means that the organization must provide more resources and information (Rogers, Medina, Rivera, & Wiley, 2005). This study also want find evidence to supports the view presented by Amabile regarding the link between innovation and the environment. Cooperation between members of the organization results in the sharing of different viewpoints and exciting, useful ideas (Stobbeleir, Ashford, & Buyens, 2011). The above study supports that the environmental factor can deeply impact sustainable innovation among hospitality students in a number of ways. For example, the school can change the teaching environment and provide more learning resources, it can give students independent learning opportunities, and it encourage as well as apply appropriate pressure to help students develop in the areas of sustainable innovation and technology application.

RESULTS

We expected our findings can add to the research on sustainable innovation and technology application among hospitality students in several ways. First, if the results of this study directly support recent arguments regarding the role that organizational environments can play in helping students accept new technology and sustainable ideas for solving environmental problems caused by restaurant operations. Thus, this study contributes to improving the sustainable innovation literature by emphasizing how organizational environments can increase technology application among hospitality students.

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DO SERVICE BRAND ORIENTATION MATCH EMPLOYEES’ FIT AND IMPACT THEIR BRAND CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR?

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Chun-Fang Chiang
Chinese Culture University

INTRODUCTION

The tourism market is now a new opportunity for development those countries around the world are investing in and working very hard for as the global recreation and tourism are booming. Besides providing tangible and intangible services as well as the products which represent the corporate image perfectly, International hotels have made their endeavors to achieve developments for all these years. As for the development of corporate image, the employees play a vital part. As a result, with the need to exchange service between customers and employees, one issues that catch the attention of the management level is how to keep improving the service behaviors of employees. Most of the studies on the frontline employees in the past, however, were focused on the influence of employees’ personal traits or organizational perception on their service behaviors (Bittner, Booms, & Mohr, 1994; Brady & Cronin Jr, 2001; Schmit & Allscheid, 1995; Schneider & Bowen, 1993; Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998). Most of the tourism and dining related studies were focused on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Chiang & Hsieh, 2012; Cho & Johanson, 2008) and service orientation citizenship behavior (SOCB) (Bettencourt, Meuter, & Gwinner 2001; Raub, 2008) for the service behaviors of employees. There have been extensive studies on OCB (Jain, Malhotra, & Guan, 2012; Yi, Gong, & Lee, 2013), but rarely on brand citizenship behavior (BCB). It is necessary to focus on OCB for interpretation and expand it to brand citizenship behavior (BCB) (Burmann & Zeplin, 2005; Xie, Peng, & Huan, 2014), since the close relationship between hotel employees service attitude and behavioral performance with hotel brand.

Reviewing the history of brand marketing, the external environment usually is the major target. However, some researchers believe that before exercising the external branding, the internal branding which mainly focuses on the employees should be performed first. Such internal branding may include staff trainings on Customer Orientation (Zablah, Franke, Brown, & Bartholomew, 2012), Internal Services (Berry, 1981), and Internal Marketing (Gronroos, 1985). Although some researches have made achievements on the nature and structure of brand marketing from the aspect of service, most of the brand marketing strategies still focus on developing the employees’ service awareness and job satisfaction through organizational active marketing like activities. Here discuss a new idea that combines service orientation and brand orientation become service brand orientation (King, So, & Grace, 2013). It emphasizes that attention is required on employees’ service ideas and their perceptions of brand culture in the internal operations (Guillet, Zhang, & Gao, 2011) and to make employees feel the service and brand oriented way of hotel. In addition to expose the employees under the environment of a service-oriented brand, Chatman (1989) shows that when people chose their work groups, they will consider the harmony between the spirit of the group and their individual values, and whether or how much they will be influenced by related internal factors. The employees may keep thinking about Person-Job fit (PJ fit) (Edwards, 1991) and Person-Organization fit (PO fit) (Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991; Kristof, 1996), which may affect their work attitudes and performances in the end. Other studies have also confirmed that PJ fit and PO fit perform grate influences on employees’ work attitudes and organizational behaviors (Adkins & Caldwell, 2004; Behery, 2009; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). This study here, is to explore the relational schema of the SBO, PO fit, PJ fit and BCB via work-attitudes-related recognitions in different levels (such as, the individual lever - the recognition of one’s career; and the group
level - the recognition of one’s work group or organization (Christ et al., 2003) of self-categorization. Based on these ideas, hypotheses are developed as follow:

H1: Hotel employee’s SBO perception is positively related to PO fit.
H2: Hotel employee’s SBO perception is positively related to PJ fit.
H3: Hotel employee’s PO fit is positively related to BCB.
H4: Hotel employee’s PJ fit is positively related to BCB.

METHOD

In referencing literature review, the questionnaire item used the seven-point Likert scale, ranging from one (strongly disagree) to seven (strongly agree) for each scale. The service brand orientation consisted of leadership, HR practices, standards and empowerment and 25-item scale were developed based on King, So, and Grace (2013). P-J fit was assessed using a 5-item scale and 3-item scale of P-O fit based on Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001). For brand citizenship behavior, 7 questions were adapted from the organization citizenship measures in (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Sampled the employees of the hotels in Taiwan, this study researched the Internal Brand Management of Taiwanese international hotels, and how do the employees’ PO fit and PJ fit influence their BCB. In the past studies, Internal Brand Management can affect employees’ Brand Citizenship Behaviors and Customer-Oriented Behaviors on job satisfaction, organizational trust, organizational commitment, authorization, performance evaluation, staff training, corporate culture, etc. and distributed by convenient method. Data analyses included descriptive analysis, reliability coefficients, correlations and regressions.

FINDINGS

Table 1. Reliability Coefficients and Correlations amongst Study Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N=196</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. SBO</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>.706</td>
<td>.931</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. PO Fit</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td>.821</td>
<td>.414**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. PJ Fit</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>.916</td>
<td>.930</td>
<td>.229*</td>
<td>.611**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. BCB</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>.864</td>
<td>.885</td>
<td>.723**</td>
<td>.515**</td>
<td>.434**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Indicates significance at the 1% level.

Table 2. Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression</th>
<th>R value</th>
<th>R2 value (adjR2)</th>
<th>β coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SBO→PO Fit</td>
<td>.414</td>
<td>.171 (.154)</td>
<td>.414</td>
<td>3.116**</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SBO→PJ Fit</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>.052 (.032)</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>1.612</td>
<td>.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO Fit→BCB</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>.266 (.250)</td>
<td>.515</td>
<td>4.122***</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PJ Fit→BCB</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>.188 (.171)</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>3.303**</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Indicates significance at the 5% level, *** Indicates significance at the 1% level.

Data were collected from hotel employees in five-star foreign-branded hotels during 2015 in Taipei, the largest city in Taiwan. A total of 300 surveys were distributed, and the final response rate was 65.3% with 196 questionnaires effective. The most respondents were female, accounting for 65.3%, aged 21 to 30 years for the highest proportion of 42.9%. Unmarried marital status was most, accounting for 73.5%. Serving sector of the food and beverage department staff ratio was the highest, accounting for 63.3%. Years worked with executive for more than three years but less than five years ranked the majority 32.7%. Table 1 showed that the hotel employees’ ranked the SBO, PO fit, PJ fit and BCB were average (M=5.30 to 5.59). The Cronbach alpha values of research variables were in the range from 0.821 to 0.931, indicating good reliability (Nunnally, 1978). Furthermore, the results of Pearson correlations showed that positive correlations within each research variable. Regression analysis: As table 2, SBO significantly and positively influenced PO fit (β=.414, p<.03) ex-
cluded PJ fit ($\beta$=.229, $p$>.01), thereby proving Hypothesis 1 and rejecting Hypothesis 2. Meanwhile, PO fit had positive effects on BCB ($\beta$=.515, $p$<.01) and PJ fit had positive effects on BCB ($\beta$=.434, $p$<.05), thus proving Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 were supported.

**IMPLICATIONS & CONCLUSION**

In the past studies, Internal Brand Management can affect employees’ BCB and Customer-Oriented Behaviors on job satisfaction, organizational trust, organizational commitment, authorization, performance evaluation, staff training, corporate culture, etc. Domestic and international studies have rarely examined the relationship between internal brand management and BCB in the tourism and hotel industry. However, few have addressed PO fit, PJ fit and BCB. As shown above, PO fit is a critical factor influencing employees’ BCB, and highlights the importance of SBO and the relationship between related variables. As the social exchange theory believes, when the employees obtain the appreciations and recognitions from the hotel they work for, they may regard themselves important to the whole organization, and may provide the same appreciations and recognitions in return. In addition, the manager of the hotel must consider the interaction between market-oriented and brand-oriented management.

Besides academic contributions, this study provides valuable practical suggestions as well. For the hotels, PO fit embosses the employees’ reactions to the equal distribution of the treatment or reward (pays and promotions) they have received; while for the managers of the hotels, supported with limited resources, they not only have to enable the employees to provide excellent services via supervising, manpower scheduling, and authorizing, but they also have to provide resources to strengthen the capacity of the employees. For the new staffs, role playing activities on the Staff Day enables them to walk in others’ shoes, and the reflections on themselves can help them make progresses. For the senior staffs those are skilled in their work, multiple learning courses can enrich their knowledge and experience in work. The hotel managers shall regularly hold seminars and training courses to educate the employees about the brand philosophy and help them truly understand what the brand stands for.

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THE HOTEL INDUSTRY AND HUMAN RIGHTS: A PRELIMINARY STUDY IN JOGJAKARTA

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been for a long time related to human rights and this relation could be interpreted in two dimensions. The first dimension is the internal dimension embracing the basic rights of each individual to do the tourism activities. Furthermore, the basic rights within this dimension relates to the leisure time and the assurance of doing free travel. Not only giving such recognition, this dimension also has to be manifested in all the efforts needed to create tourism opportunities (World Leisure, 2000, Veal, 2003, Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006, Sandang, 2015a).

Whereas, in the second dimension or external dimension, human rights principles work as a guarantor for fulfilling basic rights and protecting against abuses that arise from tourism activities both for tourists and the host community. Therefore, in this dimension, human rights are inseparable part from how tourism itself executed by many stakeholders, especially government and tourism business (George & Varghese, 2007, Sandang, 2014, 2015a).

From this comprehension, this research is going to further investigate the second dimension, that is attempting to discover the extent of the understanding on business responsibilities to respect human rights in one of the tourism businesses, in this case hotel business in the setting of one of the most popular tourist destinations in Indonesia, namely Jogjakarta.

This research found its significance for several reasons. First, as one of vital part of the tourism industry, the hotel business has been identified to have possibility in the violation of human rights in some areas (ITP, 2014). Furthermore, some potentials of violations have been found in some tourist destinations in Indonesia, including Jogjakarta.

From the report of Tourism Concern, as an example, indicated the violation against the local people’s rights of land possession in Lombok (Eriksson et al, 2009). Differently in Bali, the case highlighted is related to the rights of water (Cole, 2014). While, in the past few years, the apprehension towards the same case in Bali has risen in Jogjakarta as well, followed by the counter movement from some groups of community (Watchdog, 2015). Subsequently, there were insinuations made using the hashtag #JogjaAsat (Dry Yogy) and later, the Yogy ora di dol (Yogy is not for sale) campaign began.

As the second reason is that the standard rules of business hotel as benchmarking in Indonesia have not completely accommodated the protection of human rights. Not only the provisions must be understood in the paradigm of the respect of human rights, but they also need to be completed with the references to other regulation as well. Therefore, what have been standard benchmarking in the hotel business in Indonesia has not fully reflected the respect of human rights issues (Sandang, 2015b). Consequently, it is becoming very relevant to propose a research question, to what extent the hotel business in Jogjakarta understand their responsibilities to respect human rights?

In this research, the right-based prespective will be adopted in the normative framework of Guiding Principles on Business and Human Rights (GPs) in order to investigate how many classified hotels in Jogjakarta have understood and applied the GPs in their hotel business. Besides, this research will explore the most common issues of human rights and which that have been address by classified hotels in Jogjakarta.
By performing this research, a preliminary description about hotel business and their responsibility in respecting human rights will be obtained. This description will be advantageous as an initial mapping which can be further investigated in terms of conceptual and applicable aspects. In another area, the findings of this research may open the insights not only for the hotel business entities, but also for all tourism stakeholders in Jogjakarta. Finally, this research could contribute in the study of business and human rights in general and specifically in the hotel business sector.

METHOD

The purpose of this research is to gain a preliminary description about how many hotels in Jogjakarta have understood and applied the principles of responsibility in respecting human rights. Thus, this research can be categorized as post-positivist point of view.

As what has been elaborated by Creswell (2009), knowledge acquired from the post-positivist point of view setting is based on the empirical data, which can be then systematized in the structured descriptive analysis equipped with numeric measurement. Further, the knowledge is going to acquired has been previously framed in the conceptual understanding. In the context of this research the framework is the business responsibility to respects human rights.

Hence, this research takes an approach which is generally compatible with the post-positivis point of view. In this case, it uses quantitative research approach with survey strategy and interview. The main instrument used in this research is questionnaire and structured interview. Thereof, to construct generalisation in aswering the proposed research questions, the collected data will be processed into the quantitative and descriptive data.

In defining the questionnaire samples, this research takes samples from the total population of classified hotels registered in the Jogjakarta Hotel and Restaurant Association. Whereas, for the structured interview, this research takes one sample from each class of classified hotel categories, and one representative from Jogjakarta Hotel and Restaurant Assosciation.

The justification of classified hotel selection in this research is based on two reasons. First, the standardization of the classified hotel has been regulated which covers three elements (service, product and management) in PERMENPAREKRAF No.53/2013 (The Regulation of Tourim and Creative Economics Ministry). In other words, classified hotels are the catagorized hotels which should paid more attention toward human rights issues since several human rights aspects have been already included in the regulation. While the second reason is practical reason. From the point of view of feasibility for short-term research, the number of classified hotel is the possible number to survey.

FINDINGS

This research is still on going process, and right know is in the data collection process about 50 percents. In the beginning of March, complete data can be obtained and further analysed.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The main implication of this research is to provide a preliminary description of human rights issues and hotel business. As one of the popular tourist destinations in Indonesia, Jogjakarta could become a reflection for other tourist destinations in Indonesia (or even in Asia) in terms of hotel business relation with human rights. This research could also becomes an initial step for further investigation in other human rights specific issues as reflected from the data collected. Finally, this research implies a further study on business and human rights issues, which could be usefull for policy makers and tourism industry in general.

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THE ROOT OF TOURISM IN JAPAN FROM A PERSPECTIVE OF THE SUICIDE RATE OF THE AGED PEOPLE IN AKITA PREFECTURE

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INTRODUCTION

As for Akita Prefecture, the suicide rate of the aged people is higher than any other generations. The suicide victims are mostly not living alone, they are living with their families. In those areas, Confucian classic value still remains. The family members respect aged people and they are supported by the younger generations as average income in Akita prefecture is one of the lowest in Japan. The most significant factor for suicides is expected to be absolving and freeing their family members from the burden to take care of aged people. On the other hand, the culture without being marked still exist in Akita Prefecture.

As Dr. Hiroshi Ishii called Kathmandu “Shosoin of Himarala”, it is the original role for the aged people in the community to succeed to the culture. This paper considers both the culture of shame and the elements and the transition of local community which KOU organization has. The modernization of the farming area made YUI; the type of union which specialize in mutual aid disappeared and slowly made most of the KOU; the type of organization which is the mild gathering also disappeared.

KOUM as a leisure culture, Ise-KOUM and Fuji-KOUM all disappeared as an aspect as guest. Although as an aspect as host, aged people are essential for practicing festivals or as an interpreter for unique buildings. This paper aims to clarify that the transition of roles for aged people from the person who enjoys tourism to the person who offers it is positive point to the community and one of the modern role of the tourism in Akita prefecture where the suicide rate for aged people is extremely high.

METHOD

The analysis of Ruth Benedict and Mike Featherstone

R. Benedict and M. Featherstone structured Japanese culture and the characteristic was suggested by them. Benedict recognized society as “economic behavior, family arrangements, religious rites and political object therefore become geared into one another”. Then, it made the root in Japan the culture of shame (haji).

Also, M. Featherstone showed in “Undoing Culture” that the modern Japanese culture is disturbing the other cogwheel with “Undoing Culture”.

The structure of the shame
In the explanation of Kohjien in Japan:
1. Loss of face
2. Dishonor
3. Esteem honor

The explanation is more convincing for both Japanese and oriental people.

Roland Barthes is describing a difference in the consciousness of the sin in the Western countries and the consciousness of the Oriental shame by the “Structure of the tale”. According to the analysis of Bartes, the westerner can look objectively at himself as the 3rd person, but the Japanese have the characteristic to put themselves into good and evil’s intermingling. It leads them to the collapse of the gentle community and the depression towards suicide.

The one which gives a clear account of it is ZEN; the spiritual enlightenment that the Great
Dharma completed in the 6th century. Zen has occupied one corner of Buddhism as RINZAI-Shu, SOUTOU-Shu and OUBAKU-Shu in the 12th century Japan and spread throughout the low class Bushi and the farmer society who were not expert groups, then became the basis of the sense as BUSHIDO. Then, KOU which was the gently open community deeply influenced by ZEN.

Figure 1 Structure of culture

KOU and the Community
KOU in Japan was originally a group of people whose primary purpose was to train mind and body with hard training. However in the end of 18th century; in Genroku period, element as amusement was added. There were some factors in the background such as the progress of the traffic, the service of Shukuba-machi which are the post towns, the steadiness of the social order, and the development of the economy in the background.

The center of the KOU was called “KOU-MOTO” and it was taking a role as an organizer. The KOU was organized by KOU-MOTO and KOU-NIN which meant members of the KOU. Today we can still find those records with KOU record. The most active KOU was particularly the ones with temples and shrines, ISE-KOU, FUJI-KOU were the typical ones.

The strong will for the pilgrimage to the Grand Shrine of Ise is shown (FIG. 2) as a fact of borrowing money, and for KOU-MOTO to have gathered a fund from KOU-NIN. The KOU disappeared gradually with the urbanization but the mutual financing association MUJIN-KOU which was left until recent years was organized by the mutual savings and loan bank with the Banking Law in 1951. As for OOYAMA-KOU of Nakano-ward of Tokyo which is a type of religion continued until 1916 and the KOU has become the nucleus of the local community.

YUI Union
The systematic existence of the YUI community is the system called YUI which cooperates mutually and intensively when the workforce is necessary with the agriculture works. However with the development of the agricultural machinery, YUI
system slowly disappeared as the farmers could cooperate with families or relatives and did not need as much workforce as it used to be. Especially the farm village house has changed from the thatch roof to the tile spouting and the iron shingle roofing, and it concentrated a community rapidly towards the financial mutual aid. Forming an alliance as a YUI union was extremely fair in the sense of numbers of collateral families one has, as you can see a composition members in the YUI union in the MEIJI period (FIG. 3). YUI was the custom system of the mutual aid of the civilians for the civilians and by the civilians which makes up the contradiction of the community has in their everyday life.

The souvenir culture and KOU
Since around the 15th century in rural Japan, there was a community system called “KOU”. It was the worship of Ise Shrine which hopes for the rich harvest. Some households from the village gather and form a group of “KOU” and a few members from those families visit and worship as representatives of their community. (FIG. 4) This KOU is continued until it makes a circuit of all members. This gentle worship community is the type of community with more of the culture of spiritual enlightenment which exceeds generation barriers. As for the representative worships, it was more of the study tour than a pilgrimage in the sense of Victor Turner. The habitue to have bought a souvenir to the other members of KOU who were not representatives to worship this time still remains today.
people’s suicide in Akita Prefectures shows hardships of life and the disease as considerable rate but still not the main cause. (Fig. 5) Suicide rate for Iwate and Akita prefecture comes in 1st and 2nd among prefectural governments over the last 10 years and aged people from the 3 generations living together family is extremely high as 36 % in Akita when it is 14% in average of other prefectures, shown in the survey. According to the research done by the Ministry of Health and Welfare, it also shows the suicide rate for aged people with 3 generations living together family are the highest compared to other forms of living. (Fig. 6)

Figure 5. The cause of the suicide
Sauce: Dynamic analysis of population

Figure 6. The living form

A case study of Masuda town
KURA in Masuda town still leaves traditional land allotment today and they are attracting many tourists as they open their “daily life” as a tourist material and let the people visiting Masuda feel their life style itself. Mr. Yasuhiro Harina who is in charge of public administration in Yokote city hall describes, “There were people who hesitates to open their house to the public and let them see inside if their actual living house at first. However, people in Masuda has slowly started changing towards the way to cooperate with the community and for the tourist to enjoy their time in Masuda”.
He also added “This is a result of each one of them has changed spontaneously and independently within themselves. It is a positive effect on their mental health as their guests enjoy their time in Masuda and the people in Masuda can be part of their joy as they introduce Masuda themselves, so it becomes their vocation and life itself.” FIG 7 is a table for the suicide rate by generations in Yokote city including Masuda. We still need the data with more evidence, but suicide of the aged male in early stage of their old age shows its decline. The suicide of the aged female in her sixties and seventies also shows its decline. FIG 8 is the suicide rate of Masuda town. It also shows its decline.

FINDINGS

The origins of Japanese community supported by the KOU which is rooted in the daily life and leisure activities. The modernization of the local community have made the KOU decline and weak and the KOU supported leisure declined with the Tourism industry. The individuation in Tourism made the degree of freedom in the leisure scene increased, though it made difference on their financial situation. This phenomenon was remarkable at the aged people. The cities where people changed their role as host from the guest can actually act as the KOU. It is important to be involved with
the tourism with diversity from the multi-angles. The activities as hosts can make positive effects on peoples mind and indicates it can be the solution for the negative phenomenon such as committing suicide.

CONCLUSION

The modernization made it possible for more people to enjoy Tourism activities. However, in the pre-modern Japan, people enjoyed it equally with a help of mutual aid. Today, we do not have such a system and still have a full agenda to worn on.

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A COMMUNICATION-BASED MARKETING MODEL FOR POST-DISASTER TOURISM DESTINATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

Japan’s tourism industry continued to grow in 2014, with international visitors increasing by 46.34% to 13,413,500 from 6,216,762 in 2011 (JNTO, 2014) even in post-disaster situations. This unexpected phenomenon may stem from the destination’s endeavors not only for developing an intelligent disaster communication recovery responses such as ethos, pathos, and logos (Carlsen & Liburd, 2008; Walters & Mair, 2012) but also for retaining loyal customers in emotional marketing (e.g., Tsao, 2014). However, few studies have examined why loyal tourists are willing to be persuaded by crisis communication messages and continue visiting post-disaster destinations. In this regard, it is essential for both researchers and practitioners to address the overarching question about what communication strategies theoretically contribute to the formation of tourists’ destination loyalty in post-disaster contexts.

It is posited that a recovery communication response plays a critical role in facilitating tourists’ attitudes towards a post-disaster tourism destination (Armstrong & Ritchie, 2008). This fact comes from the theoretical support of situational crisis communication theory (SCCT) that remind individuals positive experiences towards the organization (or destination) they have visited before in the use of effective crisis recovery communication messages (Coombs, 2007). In this regard, destination marketing organizations facing post-disaster situations are required to match recovery communication responses to the magnitude of disaster responsibility (Coombs, 2007; Walters & Mair, 2012). As a result of this, potential visitors who plan to travel to post-disaster tourism destinations can feel more confident about their safe experiences (Law, 2006).

Additionally, the number of scholars proposed empirical evidence that emotional factors (e.g., trust/confidence) act as significant drivers of tourists’ attitudinal loyalty for post-disaster tourism destinations (Biran, Liu & Eichhom, 2014; Zhang et al., 2016). They also addressed that those who feel confident in traveling to a post-disaster tourism destination would be more likely to patronize the destination as the primary choice in the presence of corresponding alternatives (i.e., switching resistance loyalty) (Lam et al., 2010; Tsai, 2014). In a vein, an emerging phenomenon is that the messages of crisis information make individuals feel confident recognizing the degree of perceived risks towards post-disaster tourism destinations when using either online communication channels (e.g., social media) (Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2015; Urista, Qingwen, & Day, 2009) or offline communication channels (e.g., travel brochures) (Austin, Fisher Liu, & Jin, 2012; Liu et al., 2012). Given the above-mentioned literature, the current study aims to examine the structural relationships between destination recovery messages (DRM), confidence to travel (COT), and switching resistance loyalty (SRL) and the moderating effect on communication channels in the relationship between DRM and COT in the context of post-disaster tourism destinations (i.e., Japan). Thus, the following proposed model is suggested.
METHOD

Study Setting. A self-report survey of representative loyal visitors to Japan as a destination country was conducted. Japan was selected as the evaluative destination because it met the following criteria. First, it is one of the most well-known tourism destinations in Asia because of its attractiveness and competitiveness with respect to tourism attractions and services. Second, Japan is considered one of the most successful destination countries in terms of the DMO’s tourism marketing promotion and campaign (e.g., “Yokoso! Japan”) (Uzama, 2009; Uzama, 2012), which has led to increasing numbers of international visitors seeking a variety of attractions and services in Japan. Finally, Japan has faced its worst nuclear accident caused by the natural disaster in March 2011.

Measurement instrument and data analysis.

The questionnaire was developed based on a review of related studies, including 16 items on destination recovery message including three dimensions of ethos, pathos, and logos (e.g., Walters & Mair, 2012), 4 items on confidence to travel (De Jonge et al., 2004; Law, 2006), and 3 items on switching resistance loyalty (Tsai, 2014). Respondents were asked to rate each item on a 7 point likert scale from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree.” The survey instrument also included questions on demographic information such as age, gender, the education level, the monthly income level, and trip type. The integrated data through the specific process was analyzed by reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modeling (SEM).

Data collection and the sample profile.

An on-site survey using a non-probability convenience sampling method was conducted for the period from September to December 2014. More specifically, data were collected in a metropolitan city from Korean tourists going to visit Japan at the Busan Yeonan Domestic Ferry Terminal, which could accommodate a large number of Korean tourists traveling to Japan. In order to select appropriate respondents who are loyal to Japan as a destination country, three screening questions were included in the beginning of the questionnaire. As a result, 464 responses were utilized for the final analysis, excluding extreme outliers due to the problems of missing data, z-score (±3.29, p < .05), and Mahalanobis distance value.

Data Analysis

To test the proposed hypotheses, the following two statistical steps were taken: First, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using AMOS 23 to examine the second-order factor model of destination recovery messages as well as the reliability, validity, and unidimensionality of study constructs. Second, H1 and H2 were tested by structural equation modeling (SEM) using the maximum likelihood estimation method. In addition, H3, which addressed whether the level of confidence to travel would vary according to the interaction effect of destination recovery message and communication channels (online vs. offline), was investigated through a multi-group approach.

FINDINGS

Measurement model validation.

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the maximum likelihood estimation method was conducted using 464 responses to assess the underlying structure of all measurement variables in the model, including their unidimensionality, construct
validity, and reliability. The results indicate a reasonably satisfactory fit to the data (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988): $\chi^2 = 609.739$, df=199, $\chi^2$/df= 3.064, the comparative fit index (CFI)= .934, the normed fit index (NFI)= .906, the incremental fit index (IFI)= .934, and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)= .06.

The results for the reliability and validity of constructs showed that the composite reliability (CR) of constructs for the internal consistency of multiple indicators for each construct ranged from .81 to .89, exceeding the recommended threshold of .70 (Hair et al., 2010). In addition to all average variance extracted (AVE) values from each construct ranged from .51 to .62 (>.50) (Hair et al., 2010). Third, the square root of the AVE for each construct ranged from .707 to .756 and exceeded the correlations between each construct and all other constructs. These results reveal sufficient convergent and discriminant validity for all constructs.

A test of the structural model

Overall, the results show a reasonable fit (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988): $\chi^2 = 139.352$, df=33, $\chi^2$/df= 4.223, CFI= .956, NFI= .944,IFI= .957, and RMSEA=.08. As expected, the results provide support for all hypotheses. Specifically, destination recovery messages had a significant positive effect on confidence to travel ($\beta = .725$, t = 11.162, p < .01) and confidence to travel significantly and positively influenced switching resistance loyalty ($\beta = .825$, t = 12.565, p < .01). These reveal empirical support for H1 and H2. In addition, structural invariance was tested. A baseline model for the online and offline communication groups was generated through a SEM analysis including all paths of the final model. According to the results, the estimated path coefficient from disaster recovery messages to switching resistance loyalty was higher for the online communication group compared to the offline communication group (accessing offline travel agencies or family/friends) ($\beta\text{disaster recovery messages} \rightarrow \text{switching resistance loyalty} = .774$, p < .01) than for the online communication group (accessing online travel agencies or social media) ($\beta\text{disaster recovery messages} \rightarrow \text{switching resistance loyalty} = .686$, p < .01) (see Figure 2). These results provide support for H3.

![Diagram](image)

Note: **P < .01; Second-order factor analysis: $\chi^2= 285.062$ df=87, $\chi^2$/df= 3.219, CFI= .956, NFI= .937, IFI= .956, RMSEA= .069; The moderating effect of communication channels was significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 7.820$, $\Delta$df=1, P=0.003).

Figure 2. Results for the Proposed Model

CONCLUSION

The study examined the structural relationships between destination recovery messages, identification confidence to travel, and switching resistance loyalty in the context of post-disaster tourism destinations. The results have important theoretical implications for future research on destination countries facing post-disaster situations. Additionally, by testing the moderating effect of communication channels (online vs. offline), the study offers new insights into how those with on-or off-line crisis communication strengthens the effect of destination recovery messages on confidence to travel in the context of post-disaster tourism destinations. This study also offers insights that can inform post-disaster communication management and situational crisis communication theory based on the case of
Korean outbound travelers to Japan. As an example of this study’s managerial implications, destination marketing organizers facing a disaster need to focus more on using offline communication channels (e.g., offline travel agencies, travel brochures, and family/friends) than online communication channels by highlighting (a) the persuasive appeals that focus on credibility and trustworthiness of the source of the message (i.e., ethos), (b) the emotional appeal of the message (i.e., pathos), and (c) the ability of the message to inform or the factual component of the message (i.e., logos). As a result, they can keep good rapport with existing visitors and encourage them to be loyal to destinations by maintaining visits even in post-disaster situations.

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APPLYING THE HYBRID FORECASTING MODEL FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN TAIWANE

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The tourism industry is an increasingly important service industry for Taiwan. The tourism industry requires an accurate method of forecasting tourism demand, to help decision makers plan precisely. This study proposes a hybrid model that combines the ARMA model and neural networks with genetic algorithms for forecasting the tourism demand. Analytical results obtained using the ARMA model are entered as the input data of a neural network. Subsequently, genetic algorithms are used to optimize globally the number of neurons in the hidden layer and the number of learning parameters of the neural network architecture. This model is adopted to forecast the tourism demand in Taiwan. The results provide a valuable reference for decision-makers in the tourism industry for Taiwan.

Keywords:
Tourism demand, Forecasting, ARMA, Neural network, Genetic algorithm
EXPLORING THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TOURISM EXPERIENCE, AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY, AND REVISIT INTENTION

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Beom Soo Han  
Kyunggi University

INTRODUCTION

‘Providing a memorable tourism experience’ is directly connected to the future destination selection and recommendation (Pine and Gilmore, 1998; Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon and Diener, 2003; Braun-La Tour, Grinley and Loftus, 2006; Marschall, 2014; Lalith and Fredy-Roberto, 2015). The recognition of that importance led to research on ‘tourism experience and memory’ in addition to ‘memorable tourism experience’(Nora, 1989; Oh, Fiore and Jeoung, 2007; Selstad, 2007; Baroletti, 2010; Freeman, 2010; Kanhman, 2011; Cutler and Carmichael, 2010; Marschall, 2013). Kim, Ritchie and McCormic(2012) have developed seven factors and scales which represent the ‘memorable tourism experience’. As it starting point, the ranges of related research such as the study on the causal relationship between tourism experience and the tourist behavior have been expanded (Kim and Ritchie, 2014).

However, subsequent research raised the need for revalidation of seven factors and scales of memorable tourism experience proposed in the prior researches. Additional factors were added and even totally new types of factors and scales of memorable tourism experience were developed (Sthapit, 2013; Kim, 2014; Lalith and Fredy-Roberto, 2015). These circumstances result in doubting and a need to revalidate the theoretical foundation of the causal relationship between memorable tourism experience and tourist behaviors justified by simple regression analysis in prior researches.

In this circumstance, the purpose of this study is to empirically verify the structural relationships among ‘tourism experience’, ‘autobiographical memory’ and ‘revisit intention’. The study particularly aims at justifying the role of ‘autobiographical memory’ as a mediator which affects the causal relationship between ‘tourism experience’ and ‘revisit intention’. Therefore, the hypothesis of this study was established as following: ‘autobiographical memory has a mediating effect on the causal relationship between ‘tourism experience’ and ‘revisit intention’.

METHOD

Data were gathered with a questionnaire targeting 1,540 participants who participated in ‘Bae-Yeum Journey’(Confucianism cultural tourism program). On-site survey took place between April and Jun, 2015. In total 1,600 questionnaires were distributed immediately after two-days each program was over. The questionnaire was composed of three main parts related to ‘tourism experience (Kim et al, 2012)’, ‘autobiographical memory (Sutin and Robin, 2007)’ and ‘revisit intention’. Finally the 785 valid data were collected.

In order to justify the research hypothesis, two research methods was applied for two research tracks. The first research track was to verify, in macro dimension, the mediating effect (indirect effect) of ‘autobiographical memory’ in causal relationships between ‘tourism experience’ and ‘revisit intention’. ‘Indirect effect (mediating effect) analysis of SEM (structural equation modeling)’ by AMOS 18.0 was carried out through ‘Bootstrap’. Then, ‘Sobel test’ was followed for the double verification.

The second research track was to verify, in micro dimension, the relationship of among variables of three factors (tourism experience,
autobiographical memory, revisit intention). ‘Three steps mediating regression analysis’ by SPSS 18.0 were applied to know the mediating effects of 4 variables of ‘autobiographical memory’ such as ‘vivid memory’, ‘concrete memory’, ‘sensory emotional memory’, ‘ex-post evaluation memory’ in causal relationships between 7 sub-factors of ‘tourism experience’ such as ‘hedonic, refreshment, novelty, knowledge, involvement, local culture, meaningfulness and 1 variable of ‘revisit intention’.

FINDINGS

The first research track by the SEM analysis confirm that it is statistically significant each path of causal relationship among three factors (tourism experience, autobiographical memory, revisit intention). The path from ‘tourism experience’ to ‘autobiographical memory’ (h1), the path from ‘tourism experience’ to ‘revisit intention’ (h2) and the path from ‘autobiographical memory’ to ‘revisit intention’ (h3), the p-value of all three paths coefficient shows statistically significant (p<.01). (see Figure 1, Table 1)

Following the indirect effects verification, the p-value of ‘Bootstrap (p=0.003)’ and ‘Sobel test (p=.000)’ indicated that it is statistically significant the indirect effects (mediating effects) of ‘autobiographical memory’ in causal relationships between tourism experience and revisit intention. Thus, as the first hypothesis, the independent variable ‘tourism experience’ including ‘autobiographical memory’ in the path leading to the dependent variable ‘revisit intention’ linked with indirect(mediating) effects of ‘autobiographical memory’. (see Figure 1, Table 1)

![Figure 1. SME for ‘tourism experience’, autobiographical memory’ and ‘revisit intention’](image)

**Table 1. Indirect (mediating) effects of autobiographical memory (SME)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression weight</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Bootstrap</th>
<th>Sobel Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>BC</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autobiographical memory ← tourism experience(h1)</td>
<td>0.891</td>
<td>23.817</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>revisit intention ← tourism experience(h2)</td>
<td>0.564</td>
<td>7.678</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>revisit Intention ← autobiographical memory(h3)</td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>7.275</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>0.540</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model fit : CMIN= 630.748, CMIN/DF=7.24(DF=87, P=0.00), RMR=0.02, GFI=0.902, AGFI=0.865, NFI=0.938, IFI=0.946, CFI=0.946, RMSEA=0.089

***: p<.01

The second research track by the ‘three steps mediating regression analysis’ indicates that the ‘vivid memory’, ‘concrete memory’ as variables of ‘autobiographical memory’ has partial mediating effects(step 2, β=.219, .110 > Step 3, β=.192, .093) in causal relationships between ‘hedonic’, ‘knowledge’ experiences as variables of ‘tourism experience’ and ‘revisit intention’. In addition,
‘sensory emotional memory’ and ‘ex-post evaluation memory’ has partial mediating effects (step 2, β=. 2/9, .110 > step 3, β=. 188,. 086) in causal relationships between ‘hedonic’, ‘refreshment’ experiences as variables of ‘tourism experience’ and ‘revisit intention’. The Step 1 is about the causality between 7 variables of ‘tourism experience’ and 4 variables of ‘autobiographical memory’, The Step 2 is about the causality between 7 variables of ‘tourism experience’ and ‘revisit intention’. The Step 3 is about the causality between double independent factors as 7 variables of ‘tourism experience’, 4 variables of ‘autobiographical memory’ and ‘revisit intention’ as dependent factor. (see Table 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tourism experience</th>
<th>autobiographical memory</th>
<th>revisit -intention</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Step 1 t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Step 2</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Step 3 t</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Mediating Effects</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hedonic Knowledge</td>
<td>vivid memory</td>
<td>revisit -intention</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>3.917</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>4.741</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>4.161</td>
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<td></td>
<td>vivd memory(step 3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>2.784</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>2.569</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.093</td>
<td>2.167</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hedonic Knowledge</td>
<td>concrete memory</td>
<td>revisit -intention</td>
<td>.182</td>
<td>3.757</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>4.741</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>4.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>concrete memory(step 3)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>3.301</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>2.569</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>2.006</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hedonic Refreshment</td>
<td>sensory-emotional memory</td>
<td>revisit -intention</td>
<td>.102</td>
<td>2.370</td>
<td>.018</td>
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<td>4.741</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.193</td>
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<td></td>
<td>sensory-emotional memory(step 3)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hedonic Refreshment</td>
<td>post-evaluation memory</td>
<td>revisit -intention</td>
<td>.213</td>
<td>5.166</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.219</td>
<td>4.741</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>3.274</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>post-evaluation memory(step 3)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Sig<0.05

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to explore empirically the structural causal relationships among ‘tourism experience’, ‘autobiographical memory’ and ‘revisit intention’. The empirical structural relationship was justified by the role of indirect (mediating) effects of ‘autobiographical memory’ in casual relationships between ‘tourism experience’ and ‘revisit intention’. This signifies that the modification of the simple causal relationship between tourism experience and revisit intention proposed in previous research (Kim and Ritchie, 2012).

This result allows going one step further to verify the structural relationship among variables of three factors. In particular, ‘vivid memory’ and ‘concrete memory’ has mediating effects in causal relationships between ‘hedonic’, ‘knowledge experience’ and ‘revisit intention’. ‘Sensory emotional memory’ and ‘ex-post evaluation memory’ plays a ‘mediator in casual relationships between ‘hedonic’, ‘refreshment experiences’ and ‘revisit intention’. These two findings will be helpful to tourist destination marketers in establishing the tourism strategies and program adjust to their destinations. Providing ‘hedonic’, ‘knowledge’ and ‘refreshment’ experience to visitors and stimulating the autobiographical memories will eventually affect visitors’ revisit intention.

In future study data should be gathered in different tourism domain to generate the structural relationships models among ‘tourism experience’, ‘autobiographical memories’ and ‘revisit intention’ which are applicable to any types of tourist destinations.

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SERVICE CHARGES AND TIPPING; A CASE STUDY OF THE SHANGHAINESE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

With this influx of foreign travelers, tipping and service charges in the Chinese hospitality industry have changed. According to tourism information websites, tipping is acceptable in China, though it is not mandatory in tradition. But with the foreign visitors influence in China came the practice of tipping.

Shanghai is one of the most important hotel markets in China. Foreign travelers and expatriates have contributed immensely to the development of Shanghai’s hospitality industry. This extends from serviced apartments to five-star hotels and restaurants serving great food and beverages. Although there is a 10-15 percent service charge added to most luxury hotel and restaurant bills, some people still leave an additional tip.

Service standards in Asia are often considered superior since a higher staff/customer ratio makes this possible. However, service-oriented jobs are not highly regarded in the Chinese society. Having to serve someone is to be reduced to servitude, which ultimately leads to a person feeling lose ‘face’ – pride or respect from society (Tse, 1996). Service in Chinese is ‘fu wu’, the character, ‘fu’ means submission. In addition, the persons paying the bill may ‘lose face’ from their fellow guests, if no tip is left.

In many parts of the world, especially the United States of America, gratuities have become an expected part of a service employee’s income (Star, 1988). Tipping is an important global trend, involving about $47 billion a year in the USA food service industry alone (Azar, 2011). Customers in United States restaurants in general do tip.

Consumers’ decisions about whom and how to tip are largely determined by custom. However, service industry executives and managers need not passively accept the dictates of custom. They can encourage tipping by allowing employees to accept tips, placing tip jars in visible locations, and posting messages like “Gratuitous appreciated” on menus, table tents, checks and/or public signs. Conversely, they can discourage tipping by prohibiting employees from accepting tips, adding automatic service charges to bills, and posting messages like “Tipping not necessary” on menus, table tents, checks and/or public signs. In fact, many cruise lines (Engle, 2004), resorts (Evans and Dinesh, 1999), and private clubs (Club Managers Association of America, 1996), as well as some hotels (Richards and Rosato, 1995) and restaurants (Ortega, 1998) have used these or similar practices to actively manage the tipping behavior at their establishments. In 2004, for example, chef/owner Thomas Keller replaced tipping with an automatic 20 percent service charge at Per Se – a highly regarded French restaurant in New York City (Shaw, 2005). The year before that, Holland America Line abandoned its decades old tipping policy in favor of daily service charges (Engle, 2004). Danny Meyer, the man whose name is synonymous with the Union Square Hospitality Group, is eliminating all tipping at his restaurants and significantly raising prices to make up the difference, a move that will raise wages, save the hospitality industry, and forever change how diners dine (NY Eater, 2015).

METHOD

For this case study we interviewed hotel and restaurant managers, supervisors and staff in
Shanghai regarding the tipping behavior of both local and foreign guests. A total of four hotel chains Managerial staff were interviewed. Supervisors and serving staff from free standing restaurants were also part of this study; including eight full-service, six casual dining, and three fast food restaurants. The research assistant talked to his former industry contacts and interviewed restaurant supervisors and staff while dining around Shanghai.

FINDINGS

Nowadays, hotels in China charge an additional 10-15 percent service charge to the whole hotel bill. Five star hotels add 15 percent, and non-5 star hotels add a 10 percent service charge in China. These service charges “belong” to the hotel; hence they are not shared with the hotel staff. We heard of only one five star hotel chain that gave back one (1) percent of the 15 percent service charge to its staff.

On the other hand, some hotel guests leave extra tips in addition to the service charge. Hotel staff do not “expect” nor “solicit” tips, yet it does happen. These tipping guests are mainly tourists, as most locals tend not to leave additional gratuities. These additional food and beverage tips are split according to position and ranking (following a point system), but hotel management does not get involved in this.

According to a former event coordinator from a five star American hotel chain, 2005-06 were the good old tipping days. The positions that most likely would have tips were the concierge, bellman and the room-service servers; one of her friends who served as a bellman would be able to make more than RMB 10,000 ($1,500) tips per month at that time (sometimes guests tipped him RMB 100 for carrying luggage) while their salary was a little bit more than RMB 2,000 ($300). Making the take home tips five times their base salary.

Concierge staff pooled their tips, but would often hide their tips in order not to share them with their colleagues. Most uniforms had no pockets, so hiding places were used, but money sometimes vanished. According to our findings most of the tippers were foreign guests; even though there was a 15 percent service charge added to the hotel bill, these foreign guests still tipped as they might assume the 15 percent was some sort of tax. These foreign hotel guests were used to tipping servers in hotels and restaurants and continued while traveling.

As the event coordinator in a hotel, our interviewee received tips as well from event organizers and other clients using their meeting rooms and other venues; what she usually received were gifts souvenirs rather than cash tips, though there were cash tips here and there. Average amount of tip or value of the gift or souvenirs was about RMB 500 ($75) each time.

Hotel staff got used to the additional income and started to expect tips. Hotel staff focused their efforts on certain types of guests in order to maximize their tipping opportunity and amounts. They started to judge by appearance as they preferred guests, from Europe, America, and particularly from the Middles East, countries like Saudi Arabia.

During 2007-2009, especially in 2009, there were fewer tip opportunities for servers the RMB 10,000 ($1,500) tips per month had gone forever.

The former hotel supervisors believe more guests, particularly the foreigners, realized that the 15% service charge was instead of tipping; and they saw that other guests were not tipping. Furthermore the hotel service level was dropping year by year due to the continuous increase of labor costs of hotel staff, and guests do not tip employees who do not know how to provide good service. Nowadays, most servers are from less developed areas in China, with little or even no hospitality education or training, this is either because they are paid less, or because some experienced local staff members were laid off due to their higher salaries.

One of the supervisors from a full service dining restaurant chain told us that one or two out of every ten local restaurant patrons would tip servers RMB 50 – 200 ($8-30) in cash. Salary for an average server at this restaurant is RMB 2,500-2,800 ($380-430) per month and servers would be able to get approximately RMB 500-1,000 additional tips per month. At a Japanese restaurant in an expensive neighborhood, a senior server shared that best tip-
pers were American and European diners, followed by Hong Kong and Taiwanese diners; mainland Chinese were the least likely to tip. Servers did not expect tips and their monthly salary is about RMB 3,000-4,000 ($460-610).

One out of ten tables would tip RMB 50 ($8) in cash in Casual dining restaurants according to the servers and supervisors we talked to.

Fast food had not tips and only the American coffee chain had an empty tipping jar. The infamous sticker “Tipping is not a city in China” was not seen in person.

**IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION**

This study looked at how automatic service charges changed the voluntary tipping and service levels of hotels and restaurants in Shanghai, China.

Even though the service charges in China’s hotels are going directly to the bottom line and are not shared with the hotel staff, service levels have decreased over the years according to many of the hotel and restaurant managers, supervisors and staff.

Furthermore, China pays its hospitality staff monthly salaries compared to hourly rates in America, where hospitality staff do not know the number of hours they might work each week. Resulting in many hourly employees in America having to work several jobs to make end meets.

The ability to actively manage customers’ tipping behavior raises questions about how tipping policy decisions should be made. What are the business functions of tipping? When should tipping be allowed and when not? If tipping is abandoned, should it be replaced with service charges or with all-inclusive prices? Unfortunately, executives and managers in the service industry have few places to go for the answers to these questions.

Some renowned fine dining restaurants in the United States of America are moving towards service charges, called “hospitality charges” by Danny Meyers, owner of several high-end restaurants in New York City, instead of voluntary tipping. Danny Meyers will be gradually introducing “hospitality charges”, included within the menu prices in his high end restaurants. Thomas Keller replaced tipping with an automatic twenty percent service charge and discourages additional tipping at Per Se – a highly regarded French restaurant in New York City. The collected service charges in American restaurants; are to be divided amongst its entire staff.

Will the non-incentive of tips lower the hospitality service levels as some critics predict?

**REFERENCES**


FAMILY DOMESTIC TRAVEL MOTIVATION, PREFERENCE, AND IMPORTANT-PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS.

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National Chung Hsing University  
Ming-Yu Kan  
National Chi Nan University  
Sha Zhu  
Jiangsu Food and Pharmaceutical Science College

INTRODUCTION

Family travel has become one of the most popular types of national travel in China and Taiwan. There are many things to be considered such as the safe, public hygiene and traffic convenience while travel with children especially under 6 years. Travel has a lot of benefits for adult and children. Travel provides children with knowledge and experiences that enrich their education, helps build their self-confidence, promotes family cohesiveness, and creates memories for future days. But family travel is never all fun and games. Parents should read a lot of travel books, browse the internet, consult to parents who have been there, and then ask themselves, “Is this trip appropriate for my children?” and “Will my children benefit from it?” Some locations are best avoided because of safety considerations, poor sanitation, and the need to take care of theaccidence.

Although there are lots of benefits for children traveling, the decision making still under the control of parents. What are the travel motivations, preferences, and emphasis concerned by parents? This study is to investigate the domestic family travel motivations, preference, and the importance-performance analysis of parents traveling with children under six years old cross-strait.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Owing to requirement of life quality of our nations, there are more and more people focus on the benefits of leisure activities. Camping is one of the favorite outdoor activities for families to spend the lovely time together. Family is the first school for children, it also is the spiritual and material depending place. Family plays an important role on the learning and growth for person. Kindly using the family time can make the parent and children harmony, happiness, and well-being.

Motivation of family travel

Motivation is the key subjective condition for a person’s travel, it includes the physical, culture social interaction, position and reputation of one person. Motivation drives from the psychological factors, it can divide into objective and subjective opinions.

On the objective opinion, one should have the motivation for traveling. On the subjective opinion, one should have enough leisure time, and welfare, as well as the healthy condition. If there are much of objective opinion without subjective one, one could not make travel happen. For this subjective condition is the motivation of travel.

According to George (2004) as well as March and Woodside (2005) travel motivations can be considered as one of the most important psychological influences of tourists behavior. Motivations are the inner state of a person, which forces them to act or behave in a specific way and thus sustaining human behavior and energy levels of the human body (Decrop, 2006; George, 2004). Maslow’s theory is one of the most frequent used to explain the premise of motivation. Maslow uses five sets of goals which are also referred to as basic needs: physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem and self-actualization (Tikkamen, 2007). Tourists may need to escape, relax, to gain relief of physical- and mental tension and for typical
sun lust reasons. Crompton (as sited by Saayman, 2006) identified seven socio-psychological factors which motivate a tourist to travel; escape from an everyday environment, discovery and evaluation of oneself, relaxing or participation in recreational activities, gaining a certain level of prestige, for the purpose of regression, strengthening family ties and facilitating their level of social interaction.

Researchers have examined recreation and leisure patterns in families for over 80 years and have consistently reported positive relationships between family leisure involvement and positive family outcomes (Hawkes, 1991; Holman & Epperson, 1989; Orthner & Mancini, 1991). Furthermore, it appeared that understanding of the family leisure and family functioning relationship can be enhanced through the use of a family systems perceptive. However, although family leisure has been examined for some time, there are consistent criticisms that are common to the majority of past studies.

Studies of recreation and leisure benefits for families have been categorized in terms of family outcomes including family satisfaction, family interaction, and family stability (Orthner & Mancini, 1991). Most of this research addresses family satisfaction, usually material satisfaction. Findings consistently report that husbands and wives who share leisure time together, participating in joint recreational activities, are more satisfied with their marriages than those who do not (Holman, 1981; Holman & Jacquat, 1988; Miller 1976; Orthner, 1975; Smith, Snyder & Monsma, 1988). This relationship also has proved consistent in studies from Australia, England, and Korea (Ahn, 1982; Bell, 1975; Palisi, 1984). In fact, this relationship is so pervasive “that there does not appear to be any recent study that fails to find an association between joint activities and marital satisfaction” (Orthner & Macini, 1991)

Preference of Family Travel

Because this study focuses on the family travel, it is important to identify what is meant by a family travel. Early studies defined a family travel as a husband and wife traveling with or without children (Collins & Tisdell, 2002; Fodness, 1992; Jenkins, 1978; Nichols & Stephenger, 1988). Now the configuration of a family is changing, especially when it comes to travel. Grandparents are beginning to travel more with their grandchildren, husbands and wives are traveling with their children and their parents, uncles and aunts are taking trips with their nieces and nephews, and single aunts are traveling with their children (Gardyn, 2001; TIA, 2005). Grandparents are traveling more with their grandchildren because parents are working more, especially women who have young children. It is estimated that 70% of women with young children are working full time. Three-generation travel occur also because grandparents and parents are healthier and wealthier (TIA, 2005). The leisure travel industry is also beginning to focus on travel packages that cater to other forms of family groups, such as mother/daughter, siblings, father/son or grandparents/grandchildren (Gardyn, 2001).

Tourism services characteristics make for a complex travel decision-making process full of transparency and high financial and personal risk and uncertainty. For parents travel with children meet the same challenges as well as tourism agency. Family, defined as a body of individuals living in one household and the core unit of civilized society (Bierce, 1911), has been an important research topic in consumer behavior. In the 2009 National Household Travel Survey (NHTS, US Department of Transportation, Bureau of Transportation Statistics, 2009), indicated that the household-generated travel were decreases. Most estimates are statistically the same as in 2001, important exceptions include the significant decrease in person miles, person trips, and average person trip length for family and personal business, and the decrease in person trips per household and average person trip length for shopping. These evidences show the important message that travel agency has to recognized this fact and do some changes.

Vacation is not just for a fun time but an occasion to reunite family members in today’s society (Shillinglaw, 2001). In their survey revealed that family travelers prefer to purchase a package program which combines hotel, airline, and activity at the destination. This preference is different from other types travel such as business, conferences, and other personal purposes.
Service failures and complains have been topics of keen interest to service researchers (Grönroos, 1988; McCollough et al., 2000; Tax et al., 1998) and practitioners (Brady, 2000; Metz, 2000; Quick, 2000). We used the importance-performance analysis to survey the travelers with children emphasize but the agency performs not so well.

According to the literatures review, our aim in this study is to explore the motivation, preference, and the importance-performance of the family travel.

METHOD

Our study is to investigate the relationship among motivation, preference and the importance-performance analysis for the parents travel with children in their own nations. The travel motivation questionnaire was designed based on the study of Chen (2003). The travel preference questionnaire was designed based on the study of Liu (2005). And the analysis of importance-performance questionnaire was designed based on the study of Chien & Chang(2002). For the purposes of collecting the clearly and internal consistency, we used the Likert five-point as the measure scale. The samples were recruited from three pre-education institutions in Beijin, Huaian in China, and Taichung in Taiwan. Parents who have been traveled with their children these three years were invited to fill these questionnaires.

In our study, we address the issues of travel motivation, preference, and the importance-performance for the parents traveling overseas with children. We proposed two questions: Are there any significant differences on travel motivation and preference for the parents at different age level at different locations cross-strait? And which factors of importance-performance analysis should be emphasized for the travel agency?

Our questionnaire designed based on four parts: the personal profiles, the family travel motivation, the preference of family travel, and the satisfaction. Here are the items of these four parts.

A. Personal profiles: including gender, occupation, education level, and the numbers of children.

B. Motivation of family travel: including pressure relaxing, improve family feeling, satisfy the curiosity, slow the life path, improve the interaction of families, self-satisfaction achievement, getting new ideal, sight-seeing, enrich experience of travel, realize each other, contact and make new friends, expanding knowledge, learning local life, improve social skill, rest and recover, improve attribution, keep healthy, share with each other, and recommended by others.

C. Preference of family travel: including indoor activities, natural seeing, historical sites, multi-various activities, better environment, great stadium, nearby sites, ecological green riverside, educational sites, travel convenience, average-cost sites, and crowded sites.

D. Satisfaction of family travel: relaxing, improve parent-child relationship, more realize family, experience local culture, try new things, improve self-confidence, improve physical health, seeing beautiful scenery, enjoy natural and pure environment, making new friend, enrich knowledge, and realize myself.

Principle components factoring(PCF) was introducing to analyze the motivation and preference of family travel. To realize the significant differences, we used ANOVA to find the relationship among the education, ages, vocation, family income, and the number of children.

FINDINGS

Parents were recruited at three branches of the e-BABY international education group, Beijin, Huaian (China), and Taichung (Taiwan). There were 35 in Beijing, 40 in Huaian, and 55 recruited parents in Taichung. Data collections were Mar. 19 and 20 in Beijing; Apr.2 and 3 in Huaian, and Feb. 27 and 28 in Taichung.
Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the interviewee.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>numbers</th>
<th>percentage(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>60.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>48.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public officer</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House Keeping</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate school</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>66.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the demographic characteristics of the samples. We found that age between 30-39 years old, service occupation, university education and with one child in family were the most ones.

For the part of family travel motivations, we drew five themes from the questionnaire by using the method of PCF. There are body-minded health, knowledgeable, spiritual growth, attitude adjusting, and others connection. There are significant difference on sex, education level, and number of child. The age between 30 to 39 years old emphasized more than other age level on the body and mind health, intellectuality, spiritual growth, and contacting others.

Table 2. Family travel motivation significant difference test by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>number</th>
<th>average</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Body-Mind health</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.4228</td>
<td>.5444</td>
<td>2.626*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.1843</td>
<td>.4379</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledgeable</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.2437</td>
<td>.6150</td>
<td>2.839*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.9118</td>
<td>.7033</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual growth</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.2880</td>
<td>.5898</td>
<td>3.669***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.9216</td>
<td>.4987</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude adjusting</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.1962</td>
<td>.5699</td>
<td>7.338***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.5245</td>
<td>.3977</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others connections</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.0886</td>
<td>.6443</td>
<td>2.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.8301</td>
<td>.3909</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, *** p<.001

Table 2 shows that female interviewee more emphasis on the travel motivation of body-mind health, knowledgeable, spiritual and attitude adjusting than male.
Table 3. Family travel motivation ANOVA test by age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Body-Mind health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>3.944</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.315</td>
<td>5.426*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>30.525</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.242</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>34.469</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledgeable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>4.927</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.642</td>
<td>3.926*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>52.712</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.418</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>57.639</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spiritual growth</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>7.227</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.409</td>
<td>8.315***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>36.506</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>43.733</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude adjusting</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>11.957</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.986</td>
<td>14.241***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>35.266</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>47.224</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others connections</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>5.077</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.692</td>
<td>5.761*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>37.013</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>42.09</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, *** p<.001

Table 3 shows that there were significant difference among the age level. It means that the travel motivation might be influenced by the age. According to the questionnaire of travel preference, factor analysis was introduced to analyze the factors. We conclude three themes as convenience, ecology, and indoor.

Table 5. Family travel preference significant difference test by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>number</th>
<th>average</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Convenience</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.3590</td>
<td>.5724</td>
<td>1.736</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.1963</td>
<td>.4315</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecology</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.2995</td>
<td>.7948</td>
<td>3.275**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>3.8898</td>
<td>.5058</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4.1690</td>
<td>.5568</td>
<td>3.665**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.5109</td>
<td>.4547</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p<.01

Table 5 shows that mother prefer the ecology and indoor activities for traveling with children than father.

Table 6. Family travel preference ANOVA test by age.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Convenience</td>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>4.286</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>31.401</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>total</td>
<td>35.687</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecology</td>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>4.691</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>62.576</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>total</td>
<td>67.266</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor</td>
<td>between subject</td>
<td>5.123</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>within subject</td>
<td>33.021</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>0.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>total</td>
<td>38.144</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05, ***p<.001
The table above meant that parents with different age pay different preferences for traveling with children.

![Importance-Performance analysis for the traveling with children](image)

**Fig 1. Importance-Performance analysis for the traveling with children**

**IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION**

In this study, we tried to answer the questions of family travel motivation, and preference while traveling with children in their country. We summarize our results as followings

1. Family travel motivation: The top three motivations are seeing beautiful scenery, enrich the travel experience, and knowing each other.
2. Family travel preference: The top three preferences are natural sight-seeing, full of education, multi-variable activities. Most of the interviewee do not like the crowded sites.
3. The importance-performance analysis: The travel agency should pay more attention on the relaxing feeling of the tourists.

We also take these summation into discussion:
1. How could the travel agency improve the motivation of parents travelling with children? We consider that the agency has to emphasize the spiritual growth for mother, and the knowledgeable for the younger parents.
2. How could the travel agency induce the preference for the parents travelling ith children? Our results show that take the ecological education and convenience into consideration may match the preference of family travel.
3. Travel should pay more attention to the arrangement of family travel, because the parents travelling with children would want to have a relaxation during this trip.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

Special thanks to the e-BABY international education group for their parents recruiting at their branches in China and Taiwan.
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STUDY ON CHINA HOTELS' ENTRY MODE OF INTERNATIONAL MARKET UNDER RESOURCE BASED VIEW : BASED ON COMPARISON OF HOTEL COMPANIES IN JAPAN AND CHINA

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RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Under the background of industrial structure adjustment and transformation in China, much factors, such as domestic and international economic environment, national policies and development of the hotel industry, are driving the Chinese hotel companies to embark on "going abroad" strategy, look for access to overseas markets for more development space and opportunities. For China's hotel companies, the overseas market is relatively new and uncertain, and compared to international hotel brands in many aspects, especially international knowledge, experience, scale, there are still large gaps. Their international strategy still faces many problems. On some similar development background, Japanese multinational hotel companies went through global expansion in the bubble economy era. Their experience has a certain reference value of research and practice for our hotel companies, because it did not like some industries of Japan achieving global distribution, sustaining huge competitiveness in the international market. So we can sum up experiences and lessons from their history and provide some inspiration for Chinese hotel companies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Entry mode is one of the more important issues of academic research in enterprise internationalization. Transnational Business entry mode is the institutional arrangements to transfer the company's enterprise products, technology, technical skills, management skills or other resources to foreign markets (Anderson, Gatignon, 1986; Root, 1998). The strategic motivation of entering the international market can be divided into three points: strategic needs of the market, access to needed resources, the need to obtain external conditions (Shrivastava, 1986; Brush, 1990). According to different theoretical perspective on the type of entry mode, scholars made different division. One classification has two types: complete control mode and control sharing mode (Erramilli, 1991); another classification has three: Trade entry model, contract entry model and investment entry mode. Based on study of the entry mode, scholars summed up the three characteristics of entry modes: control, resource commitments and the risk of transmission (Hill, Hwang, Kim, 1990). Factors influencing enterprises to enter the mode selection is more complex, scholars made much study and discussion from both internal and external aspects. On the hotel's multinational enterprises entry mode research, foreign scholars focused on the hotel industry practice and use existing theories to explain the behavior of transnational business hotel and provide guidance. Chinese scholars is subject to specific practices, so the research is needed to develop more bread and deeply.

Compared to traditional theory, resource-based theory has its eyes on the allocation of resources and endowments for the entry mode selection. Resource in valueablitly, hard mimicry, irreplaceableness can determine the potential of enterprises to achieve sustainable competitiveness, but the allocation of resources is the key to give full play to resource (Barney, 1998). Resource-based theory could provide a new explanation for the entry mode research extending existing knowledge (Madhok, 1997).
RESEARCH METHOD

This study builds a theoretical framework as a guidance to comparative case studies based on the Resource-based theory. Through interviews, internal data, secondary data, etc. from HNA Hotel Group and Nikko Hotels Group, the comparative case study is implemented. Through comparative case study, the paper induce analysis of the HNA Hotel Group and Nikko Hotel Group from external factors (domestic, international environment, policy etc.) and internal factors (capital, international experience, brand management, human resources, etc.) to study features of the entry mode to international markets.

FINDINGS

1. The entry mode features of HNA Hotel Group are: investment based model, that is, mainly through mergers and acquisitions or the acquisition of equities. Brand-building is the supplement, in order to transfer to the contract mode or the non-equity-controlling based asset light operating mode;

2. The entry mode features of Nikko Hotel Group are: Cooperation with Japanese companies forming business partnerships to acquire overseas assets; mainly customer-oriented; tend to combination of asset-heavy and manage output.

Similarities of HNA Hotel Group and Nikko Hotels Group

Through the external environment and each resource factors comparative analysis, we can find common mode or similar point of HNA Hotel Group and JAL Hotels Group on Transnational Operations: (1) driven and support by capital strength; both have a certain ability of transnational acquisitions or operation; (2) subject to the influence of the brand, management capability and international talents and other internal resources unexpectedly, investment and acquisition become major entry mode; (3) at the same time of the acquisition of hotel assets, committed to the development of their own brand, enhance brand value and professional hotel management in the international market.

Differences between China & Japan hotel groups

Different point of entry modes of the Japanese multinational hotel companies is mainly in the acquisition of the subject matter. China hotel companies currently tend to combination of the acquisition of the hotel group and hotel properties at the same time. The Japanese hotel industry expansion in 1980s-1990s and earlier periods is mainly the acquisition of hotel properties. Meanwhile, Japan hotels had closer cooperation with other Japanese transnational enterprises during entry to overseas markets, while this phenomenon currently is not observed for domestic hotel companies.

DISCUSSION & IMPLICATION

The paper analyzes the reasons of Japanese hotel companies retreating from overseas: (1) capital-driven mode bring vacancy of strategic considerations and blind expansion; (2) brand influence, operational quality, operational habits limits expansion rate; (3). the judgment of domestic and international economic environment and policy was not considered; (4). Investment mode brings into high exit barriers.

Combined with the foregoing analysis, this paper presents Chinese hotel companies during access to foreign markets should be noted: (1) consider risk of capital raising and debt capacity; (2) the risk of resources integration and retreat brought by the acquisition; (3) corporate culture integration and localization policy; (4) foster international talents.

Based on the case study, this paper presents three suggestions to the present stage of China’s hotel multinational enterprises. They are: note to avoid risk brought by investment based entry mode; to learn and understand the integration of resources rapidly; respect local laws and social habits.

Keywords:
Chinese Hotel Company, Japanese Hotel Company, Transnational entry mode, Resource-based theory

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AN EMPIRICAL TEST OF A MODEL OF INFORMATION ACQUISITION AND SHOPPING FOR FOOD SOUVENIRS

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Chaoyang University of Technology
Yu-Lan Yuan
JinWen University of Science and Technology
Ming-Chih Chen
Fu Jen Catholic University

INTRODUCTION

Tourist shopping is considered an essential activity that helps shape a person’s travel experience at a destination. Mobile phones have also become inseparable from tourists searching for information or purchasing goods (e.g., Wang, Park & Fesenmaier, 2012; Cristian, 2014). Indeed, tourists browse the Web and evaluate their alternatives when they see/feel fit even without access to the stores.

Information search is an important part of the decision process for consumers considering the buying merchandise (Engel, Kollat & Blackwell, 1968). With the rapid development of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), the process of purchasing goods can be completed in a Social-Local-Mobile way (Turek, 2012). Mobile searches include more location-based services, real-time information search, and social network search and recommendations (Gómez-Barroso, Bacigalupo, Nikolov, Compañó & Feijóo, 2012). These new and innovative resources facilitate the search and enable consumers to receive rapid feedback from their friends. Tourists can also easily identify an object’s location to discover the nearest shopping store.

Some studies indicate that tourists make mobile searches with a combination of other information sources (Okazaki & Hirose, 2009; Ho et al., 2016) and achieve purchasing decision-making (Bjork & Kouppinen-Raisanen, 2015). Under the impact of ICT, from the perspective of the marketers, understanding how tourists search and browse information during the souvenir purchasing process is vital to the optimal allocation of entrepreneurial resources. Some researchers have recognized information search as a construct in models of the consumer decision process and test its effect (e.g., Punj & Staelin, 1983; Srinivasan & Ratchford, 1991). In the travel and tourism domain, a few studies have explored the information sources and their use patterns for travel decisions (Gómez-Barroso, 2004; Choi, Lehto, Morrison & Jang, 2012). However, there are no comprehensive models incorporating a variety of information channels to investigate their effects on tourist shopping behavior. In addition, it seems necessary to identify the inter-relationships between the information sources.

In this study, we respond to this need by building and testing a structural equation model of tourist information searching and shopping for food souvenirs. Grounded on the rationale of the EKB model, our work elaborates some critical constructs associated with those identified in relation to mobile and traditional information environments. The primary contribution of this research is to investigate the effects of multiple information sources on tourist in-store shopping, which have not been previously well explored. From both theoretical and managerial perspectives, the study provides insights into the interrelationships between different tourist information channels, which are essential in developing marketing strategies.

METHOD

The research model includes 6 constructs: memory storage, internal search, mobile search, social search, searching by other information channels and in-store visiting (see Figure 1). The hypothesized relationships between the constructs are pro-
posed mainly based on the literature relevant to this study. To collect the data used in testing the theoretical model, the multi-item scales to measure the constructs were developed by drawing on the literature (e.g., Aula & Nordhausen, 2006; Gursoy & McCleary, 2004; Ho, Lin & Chen, 2012; Ho et al., 2016). Each item was represented by a 7-point Likert-type scale to indicate the extent to which the survey participants agree or disagree with the description of the statement. The responses were anchored on opposite ends with “Strongly disagree” (“1”) and “Strongly agree” (“7”).

Figure 1. Research model & hypotheses

The respondents were selected using the convenience sampling method at the food souvenir stores in three destinations across the north and central Taiwan. Since we did not obtain permission to collect the data inside the stores themselves, we approached tourists (shoppers) near or around the patio, at the tourist information center and near the parking lots to invite them to participate in the survey. The following parameters guided our sample selection. First, we wanted our respondents to be over 18 years old so that we could make sure the sample responsible for their answers related to food souvenir purchasing. Secondly, respondents were restricted to those who had searched for souvenir information by using smartphones. We provided incentives (NT$100 cash) to encourage the respondents to fill out the questionnaire both completely and sincerely. The survey took approximately 15-20 minutes, and the interviewers asked the respondents to return the questionnaire after completing it. In total, 240 usable responses were obtained for model verification.

To ensure that the designed scale items effectively collected the respondents’ opinions, some preliminary analysis was carried out to test the reliability and validity of the scales. The methods used were those recommended by Churchill (1979). First, a series of EFA was conducted to delineate the underlying factors for each construct. Then, each scale was subjected to a Cronbach alpha reliability test, where the values of the alphas were required to be more than the generally accepted required level of 0.7 (Foreman et al., 1998). As a result, most constructs were uni-dimensional and two multi-dimensional constructs including mobile search and in-store shopping were identified, where three factors were extracted. The means of the delineated factors of these constructs were calculated for subsequent analyses of the structural equation modeling.

The data were analyzed in two separate but sequentially related stages of analysis by structural equation modeling (SEM), using partial least squares (PLS). The software SmartPLS3 (http://www.smartpls.com) was employed as an analytical tool. First, the measurement model was tested by performing validity and reliability analysis on each of the measures of the research model. Second, the structural equation model was examined to test the structural equations among the latent constructs, determining their significance as well as the predictive ability of the model.
FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The assessment of a measurement model examined composite reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Table 1 shows that the factor loading of all items exceeded the suggested value of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978). Composite reliability which represents the internal consistency of the measurement model, ranged from 0.788 to 0.96, with all values exceeding 0.7 (Baggozi & Yi, 1988). The convergent validity was assessed by checking the AVE (average variance extracted) of each construct (Chin et al., 1996). The AVEs ranged from 0.554 to 0.89, i.e., with all exceeding 0.5, and demonstrated their satisfactory convergent validity. As to the discriminant validity, this was tested to determine the correlations between the latent variables and other constructs and is demonstrated when diagonal elements (AVE) are shown to be larger than off-diagonal elements in the latent variable correlation matrix (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results indicate that the discriminant validity was achieved.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Dimension/Items</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Memory storage</td>
<td>Purchasing information</td>
<td>0.970</td>
<td>6.693</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Websites of URL</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>6.700</td>
<td>0.960</td>
<td>0.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Web pages of souvenirs</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>6.709</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal search</td>
<td>The impact of recalled purchasing experiences on the on-going search</td>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>35.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The past purchasing experiences</td>
<td>0.865</td>
<td>47.80</td>
<td>-0.919</td>
<td>0.739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The already known</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td>19.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The past searching experiences for souvenirs</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td>25.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobile search</td>
<td>Seeking &amp; browsing</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>88.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>0.836</td>
<td>25.72</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td>0.730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Keywords</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>26.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social search</td>
<td>Exchanging opinions with companions</td>
<td>0.911</td>
<td>52.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommendations from the reference group</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>31.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Concurrent seeking for information</td>
<td>0.842</td>
<td>33.47</td>
<td>0.925</td>
<td>0.713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seeking suggestions from SNS</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td>27.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asking for information from stores</td>
<td>0.791</td>
<td>14.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other information</td>
<td>TV program, Ad of magazines/newspapers</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>29.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>channels</td>
<td>Referrals from travel leaders/guides or residents of destinations</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>23.53</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>0.665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guidebooks/brochures</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>14.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-store visiting</td>
<td>Atmosphere</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attractive store’s appearance</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>0.554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Good product quality</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The predictive ability of the independent variables was tested by means of path coefficients and the R2 value. The bootstrap method (5,000 re-samples) was applied to determine the significance of the structural model paths. The results (as indicated in Table 2 and Figure 2) reveal that most of the links in the model were significant at the 1% level. However, two hypotheses (H6 and H7) were not supported. The R2 value of the constructs ranged from 0.222 to 0.576, which were considered to provide adequate evidence of the predictive ability of the model.

Table 2. Results of structural equation modeling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>Memory storage $\rightarrow$ Internal search</td>
<td>0.629</td>
<td>6.230*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>Internal search $\rightarrow$ Mobile search</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>25.36*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Mobile search $\rightarrow$ Social search</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td>22.50*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>Mobile search $\rightarrow$ Other channels</td>
<td>0.717</td>
<td>18.36*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>Mobile search $\rightarrow$ In-store visiting</td>
<td>0.657</td>
<td>2.667*</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>Other channels $\rightarrow$ In-store visiting</td>
<td>-0.129</td>
<td>0.820</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7</td>
<td>Social search $\rightarrow$ In-store visiting</td>
<td>-0.228</td>
<td>1.128</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* denotes $p<0.01$
Our model indicates that tourists search for information prior to their in-store visiting. The first half of the model illustrates how tourists use smartphones as a search device for food souvenir information, from internal search (including memory storage) to mobile search. The second half presents the effects of different information sources on in-store visiting. Interestingly, it has been found that only mobile search is positively associated with tourists’ shopping experiences; social search and other information channels have no significant impacts on their visiting food souvenir stores. The possible reason to explain the phenomena may be that tourists inquire about the information from social search and other sources, then re-evaluate the content further from the mobile Internet and finally make a decision to visit the store. However, PLS is not able to estimate the reverse direction of the cause-effect for these two hypotheses. Further verification with different subjects would contribute to the validity of the model. It remains to be determined whether our findings reflect tourist shopping behavior in general. In addition, our research results demonstrate the impact of information cross-channel effects on tourists’ in-store visiting. In spite of mobile search being a dominant means of seeking information, other information channels operate as complements rather than substitutes in regard to information sources, revealing a certain combination of channel usage toward tourist shopping for food souvenirs.

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EVALUATING SERVICE QUALITY OF AGRITOURISM: THE TAIWAN CASE

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Chien-Lin Lin
Hsing Wu University

In recent decades, the traditional agricultural industry in Taiwan has been transformed into leisure farms in an effort to achieve greater economic efficiency and increased supplementary profits in the face of environmental changes. However, while the government has devoted considerable efforts to promoting agritourism service quality, there has been relatively little discussion or awareness of the need to evaluate the service quality. Therefore, this study aims to assess service quality performance by agritourism visitors using IPGA (Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) and Gap model) in an effort to determine how tourists perceived the service quality of farms while touring and identifying service quality areas that need further improvements. The results indicated that, overall, the farms were not adequately meeting the visitors’ expectations. The top five attributes that needed to be improved upon were “clean and comfortable dining area”, “convenient access for physically-challenged tourists”, “safety arrangements providing peace of mind”, “employees helping each other to maintain speed and quality of service”, and “well-trained and experienced personnel”.

Keywords:
leisure farms; agritourism; agritourists; service quality

INTRODUCTION

Agritourism, one of the fastest growing sectors in the eco-tourism industry, has increased significantly since it first emerged worldwide in the early twentieth century (Busby & Rendle, 2000; Perales, 2002; Su, 2011; Gil Arroyo et al., 2013). The development of agritourism enterprises is an opportunity for small to medium scale farms to pursue the goal of agricultural diversification, revitalizing the rural agrarian economies, seeking economic efficiency, and increasing supplementary profits (Das & Rainey, 2010; Ohe & Ciani, 2012). The growth of agritourism has also been recognized in Taiwan in recent decades. As Taiwan has sought membership in the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2002, the government has encountered numerous challenges. Seeing as the agricultural industry is often the first to face challenges of market and price competition, Taiwan’s government has made efforts to promote agricultural diversification in order to reduce long-term adverse effects of new competition in this industry. Moreover, seeing as Taiwan has developed in the relatively wealthy and economically strong Asia-Pacific region, there has been a surge in travel in the area for the purposes of relaxation and enjoying nature. The government implemented two-day weekends on a bi-weekly basis in 1998, and then on a weekly basis since 2001, for the purpose of providing Taiwanese people with more leisure time for recreational pursuits, thereby encouraging domestic tourism. Faced with these changes in the external and internal environments, one of the key steps on the path to agricultural diversification is the development of agritourism enterprises (Miller & Hsu, 2003). According to the Council of Agriculture (COA) (2016a), which is in charge of creating and enforcing Taiwan’s agricultural policies, there were four registered agritourism farms in 2002, the year Taiwan became a member of the WTO. This number rose dramatically to 351 registered agritourist farms in 2014, an increase of almost 88 fold over a ten-year period.

The significant role of service quality in business success has been well acknowledged. Delivery of high service quality can help organizations gain
a competitive advantage and differentiate themselves more effectively in the marketplace (Min, 2016). However, although extensive literature has been devoted to the service quality in the tourism field, there has been relatively little discussion of the service quality of agritourism. This is a worthwhile area of research, as Taiwan’s government has made many efforts to develop domestic travel products with unique characteristics and green travel, and developing agritourism is one of the more important strategies in these efforts (Tourism Bureau, 2015). Furthermore, Kosmaczewska (2008) argued that the agritourist market should focus on quality as in important competition factor, especially given that customers are increasingly demanding and environmentally-conscious. Service quality is a crucial factor in differentiating businesses, and it is thus a powerful weapon for gaining a competitive advantage (Min, 2016). In acknowledgment of the significance of service quality for agritourism, the leisure farm service quality trademark has been registered by the government and the Taiwan Leisure Farming Development Association (TLFDA) since 2010. This trademark is used to identify a leisure farm’s service quality so that tourists can recognize these certified leisure farms. According to the TLFDA’s report (2016), the numbers of accumulated leisure farms certified for leisure farm service quality were 21 in 2011, 33 in 2012, 36 in 2013, 46 in 2014 and 48 in 2015.

Although efforts to promote agritourism service quality have attracted the attention of authorities and practitioners in recent years, these efforts have focused primarily on supply-side aspects, and there remains a scarcity of awareness from the perspectives of agritourists to evaluate the service quality they receive during touring. Flanigan et al. (2014) argue that in the agritourism literature, most of the research tends to “focus on aspects of agritourism supply” and “demand-side perspectives are more limited” (p. 395). Consideration of both supply- and demand-side perspectives is an important feature for the everyday practice of agritourism. In order to render high quality of services to agritourists, it is imperative that Taiwan’s government introduce monitoring and evaluation measures, from the demand perspective, as these will serve to emphasize the importance of service quality management and operations. Consequently, offering outstanding service quality will not only help farm businesses to satisfy the agritourists but will also help increase the market competitiveness, which is crucial in this highly competitive market.

Therefore, after receiving permission from the authors of SERVQUAL to adapt and modify the SERVQUAL items, the framework of PZB is applied and the service quality criteria are derived from existing literature and expert opinions to reflect particular agritourism characteristics. Accordingly, efforts are made to assess service quality performance by agritourism visitors using IPA, importance-performance analysis (IPA) and Gap model, to determine how tourists perceived the service quality of farms while touring and identifying service quality areas that need further improvements. This information will help make the service providers aware of their service quality performance, especially in terms of important service elements with respect to the locations of the satisfaction index and the expectations index on the matrix. After completing such an assessment, adequate service quality improvement plans and strategies can be proposed. In practice, the information can serve as a reference for tourism authorities to identify the priority needs of service and allocate resources to advance the service of farm providers to meet farm visitors’ expectations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review section describes the development of agritourism in Taiwan and tourism research using SERVQUAL.

Development of Agritourism in Taiwan

Taiwan was historically known as “Formosa”, which means “beautiful island”. This name speaks to its beautiful natural scenery and vast agricultural resources, along with its diversity and attractiveness. After gaining independence from Japan in 1945, the government implemented a long-term strategy of “developing industry through agriculture, and developing agriculture through industry”. Agriculture has thus served as a strong foundation for Taiwan's economic miracle while promoting growth in industry and commerce (Council of Agricultural, 2016a). However, global trade patterns have changed dramatically in recent decades, and the
challenges facing agriculture – such as poor commodity prices, rising input costs, environmental pressures, climate change and globalization – have substantially eroded farm incomes across the USA, Europe and throughout the world (Yang, 2012; McGehee, 2007). The agricultural industry in Taiwan has also been affected by these factors, and this can be seen in its Gross Domestic Product (GDP). For example, agricultural production accounted for 35.8% of Taiwan’s GDP in 1951, while agriculture currently only comprises about 1.81% of Taiwan’s GDP, or about US$17.16 billion in 2015 (Directorate-General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics (DGBAS), 2016). In recent years, the biggest impact on the nation’s agriculture industry was its accession into the WTO in 2002, which led to subsequent trade liberalization. Taiwan’s government has been forced to implement new policies to develop the sector into a more competitive and modernized green industry. Agritourism has thus been considered as a potential means of increasing income and diversity in the local economy (Council of Agricultural, 2016a).

With the goal of building regional leisure agricultural areas that can represent the features of village spirit, promote environmental protection and green tourism, and develop agricultural tourism products with local characteristics, Taiwan’s government systematically formulated elaborate programs aimed at incentivizing farm operators to diversify their management strategies, bringing modern agricultural lifestyles to rural farms and helping traditional farmers get started in the agritourism business (Zheng, 2004; Executive Yuan, 2016). In order to enhance the quality and operational efficiency of farmers, Taiwan’s government fosters agricultural staffs’ capability through promoting farmers’ colleges and establishing a comprehensive system of agricultural education and training for farmers, and by providing incentives for young farmers to enhance their management, planning and innovation abilities. Meanwhile, Taiwanese academics promoted the notion that leisure farms are ideal settings for spreading awareness of environmental issues, as they would give tourists hands-on experience with farming practices and improve people’s understanding of agriculture, farming, and the importance of environment stewardship (Tang, 1998; Council of Agriculture, 2016b). In addition, many efforts have been made to encourage schools to incorporate rural teaching experiences in order to teach the younger generation about agriculture and the value of caring for the country (Council of Agriculture, 2016b). As a result of these efforts, the number of registered leisure farm businesses has greatly increased from 4 in 2002 to 351 in 2014. Table 1 shows the increasing number of leisure farms, and Figure 1 illustrates the accumulated volume of the farms over a period of 10 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Leisure Farms</th>
<th>Accumulated Leisure Farms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>351</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After years of collective management by the government, the TLFDA and farm owners, the local industries of tourism and leisure farming were successfully combined. The result is an ideal environment for eco-education and the promotion of organic food and health food industries, as well as a catalyst for Taiwan's unique culture to once again flourish in farming villages. The achievement can be recognized by the number of leisure farm tourists and receipts. There has been an upward trend in both the domestic farm visitors and receipts in Taiwan, as shown in Figure 2. The number of foreign visitors in the years 2008 to 2015 was 9.59, 10.07, 12.1, 14.0, 18.5, 20.0, 23.0 and 24.5 million, respectively, with 5%, 20.2%, 15.7%, 32.1%, 8%, 15% and 6.5% growth compared with the previous years. In terms of the agritourism receipts in 2015, it hits a new record of 10.5 billion. Both agri-tourism tourists and receipts show a steady increase and continuous broken records.

**Figure 2. Agritourist Volume and Agritourism Receipts of Taiwan, 2008-2015.**

Note: the official data published by the COA since 2008

**Application of Studies of SERVQUAL in the Tourism Industry**

Kandampully (1998) argues service quality is a crucial factor in differentiating businesses, and it is thus a powerful weapon for gaining a competitive advantage. As an industry, the tourism industry is considered a typical service industry, one in which the involvement of service components is relatively high, and serving and satisfying customers are fundamental goals of the tourism business (Min, Tang, & Yin, 2011). In acknowledgment of its significance, service quality as a topic has been
researched by tourism scholars most extensively since the early 1960s (Baker & Cromton, 2000). In the tourism literature, there have been various attempts to understand how tourists evaluate many different factors, including the quality of services they receive while on vacation (Frochot, 2004; Hudson, Hudson, & Miller, 2004), hotels (Tsang & Qu, 2000), travel agents (Ruiqi & Adrian, 2009), restaurants (Oyewole, 2013; Qin & Prybutok, 2009), airlines (Wittman, 2014), leisure and sports (Theodorakis et al., 2014), and so forth. The increasing research interest has also been extended to online activities and e-service quality (Aslanzadeh & Keating, 2014). Focusing more on measurement of service quality, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) developed a set of multiattribute dimensions of service quality named “SERVQUAL” which is one of the most well-known and commonly-used instruments for service quality assessment (Oyewole, 2013).

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) initially generated 10 dimensions to drive consumers’ perceptions of service quality using exploratory research. Based upon these findings, the same authors (1988) combined seven of the original dimensions into the two dimensions because they failed to remain distinct during the scale purification process, resulting in the five dimensions with the 22-item scale of SERVQUAL. They include tangibles (appearance of physical facilities, equipments, material, and personnel), reliability (promised dependable and accurate performance), assurance (knowledge and courtesy of employees), responsiveness (willingness to help customers and the promptness of service), and empathy (caring and individualized attention to customers). The SERVQUAL researchers conducted subsequent empirical testing and found the instrument to be comprehensive and appropriate for application over a broad range of service (Parasuraman et al., 1988, 1991). Furthermore, measuring expectations and perceptions separately helps managers better understand customers’ assessments of service quality over time and provides more accurate diagnostics for improving shortfalls in companies’ services (Parasuraman et al., 1993).

In the tourism industry, a variety of studies can be found directly adopting this well-known SERVQUAL model. The fruitful application and effectiveness of the model in studying service quality within tourism-related services has been well established by several researchers. SERVQUAL was applied in the lodging industry, for instance. Armstrong et al (1997) assessed the impact of expectations on service quality perceptions in hotels in Hong Kong using cross-cultural samples. The findings showed that there are significant variations between cultural groups. Ingram & Daskalakis (1999) investigated hotels in Crete that had adopted the ISO 9000 quality standard. The results found a divergence between the perceptions of service quality of guests and managers. The greatest gaps were found in hotels of the highest quality classification. Akbaba (2006) investigated the expectations of service quality among customers at business hotels in an effort to assess whether the SERVQUAL model’s quality dimensions are applicable in an international environment and measure each dimension’s level of importance. The study’s findings confirmed the five-dimensional structure of the SERVQUAL instrument. Another study conducted by Hsieh et al. (2008) used PZB service quality with the concept of AHP hierarchy to establish an evaluation framework of hot spring hotels in Taiwan.

In the foodservice industry, the relationship between service as perceived by restaurant patrons and its service determinants was examined by Bojanic and Rosen (1994). Similarly, Lee and Hing (1995) evaluated the restaurant industry in terms of customers’ expectations of service quality. Nam and Lee (2011) investigated the factors influencing foreign travelers’ satisfaction with traditional Korean restaurants using a modified SERVQUAL scale. They found that foreign travelers’ degree of satisfaction with traditional Korean restaurants was positively influenced by three dimensions of service quality (‘intangibles’, ‘tangibles’, and ‘food’) along with expectations and value for money. In turn, foreign travelers’ satisfaction positively influenced their intentions to revisit and recommend the restaurants to others. Within the travel industry, SERVQUAL was used by O’Neill et al. (2000) to study five tour operators’ diving experiences in Western Australia. The results found that ‘assurance’ was ranked as the most prominent indicator of overall service performance during the dive tourism experience while using an examining
descriptive method. Bigné et al. (2003) agreed that the model constitutes a valid and reliable instrument for measuring service quality after testing the quality of service received from travel agencies. In Min (2016), six dimensions (tangibles, reliability, assurance, responsiveness, empathy, and culture) were adopted to develop and prioritize service quality indicators for Taiwanese tour guides using a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches.

SERVQUAL has also found application in the airline industry. For example, Gilbert and Wong (2003) identified the service dimensions that were most important to airline passengers by measuring and comparing the differences in passengers’ expectations of the desired airline service quality based on the SERVQUAL in terms of the dimensions of reliability, assurance, facilities, employees, flight patterns, customization and responsiveness. One study conducted by Chen (2008) was based upon the SERVQUAL battery to investigate the relationships among service quality, perceived value, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions for air passengers. In Kuo and Jou (2014), SERVQUAL was adopted to examine passengers’ behavioral intentions in direct cross-strait flights (Taiwan–Shanghai) using an asymmetric response model.

Although many researchers have criticized certain issues of the SERVQUAL framework, including its usefulness in terms of explanatory power (Cronin & Taylor, 1992), conceptualization (Brown et al., 1993; Ladhari, 2009a,b), psychometric properties and methodological problems (Carman, 1990), insufficient comprehensiveness (Sureshchandar et al., 2001), and a dimensionality problem (Babakus & Boller, 1992), it has nonetheless been found to be practically appealing and operationally simple (Lam, 2002). In addition, Gilbert and Wong (2003) argue that SERVQUAL is particularly useful due to its personalization and customization aspects. Oyewole (2013, p. 4) further argues that SERVQUAL is the most recognized and widely researched scale of service quality. Nevertheless, it should be noted that Parasuraman et al. (1993) and Oyewole (2013) asserted that there is a need for context-specific tailoring of the SERVQUAL instrument based on the industry-specific context and dimensional structure of service quality in which it is to be employed.

**METHODOLOGY**

The present study involves the collection and analysis of quantitative data in order to determine how agritourists perceived the service quality of leisure farms while touring and identifying service quality. Before conducting the current study, it was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The study now meets the requirements of the IRB, one of which requires that all participants of the study should be aged 20 and above.

Under the permission of the authors of the SERVQUAL instrument, the current study adapted the scale to reflect particular agritourism-specific characteristics. A combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches was conducted to reach the objectives. The qualitative methods used included a review of the literature and in-depth interviews. The literature review consists of reviewing, comparing and contrasting relevant research literature related to the topic of this study. Then, one-on-one interviews of leisure farmers/managers and agritourists (supply and demand perspectives) were conducted to obtain information from the interviewees’ different points of view using open-ended questions. Before interviewing, the concept, construct and definition of agritourism service quality were introduced, and the unstructured questions were then queried. With regard to the service providers (agritourism farmers/managers), the service quality issues were examined in the interviews: (1) What they perceived to be service quality from the agritourists’ perspective; (2) what steps they will take to control or improve service quality; (3) what problem they faced in delivering high quality service. On the other hand, agritourism visitors were asked to talk about their opinions regarding agritourism providers’ service, based on their knowledge and experiences from prior visits to leisure farms, to help identify and elicit more specific information about agritourism service.

With regard to the applicability of each item to the current study, interviews were conducted to collect seven expert opinions: one governmental officer, one practitioner, and five university professors in the field of tourism management. Two specific questions were asked of the tourism professionals: (1) Are there any modifications in terms of wording that should be made to fit the service quality of
leisure farms? (2) Are there any details that should be eliminated or added to items to make them more applicable to evaluate service quality of the agritourism? Expert opinions were collected, common agreements were reached, and revisions were made in order to make items applicable to agritourism characteristics. The 31-item instrument includes six dimensions, namely Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, Empathy and Accessibility. The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part is designed to measure the respondents’ expectations and perceptions regarding the quality of services offered by the leisure farms. Visitors were asked to rate the service attributes using a 5-point Likert scale. Prior to the survey, a pilot test had been conducted to assess the reliability of the attributes and to ensure that the wording of the questionnaire was clear. Fifty questionnaires were completed. Reliability analysis was also applied to test the internal consistency of each expectation and perception attribute. The results showed that the Cronbach’s $\alpha$ coefficients of the expectation and satisfaction for each service quality dimension were 0.934 and 0.836 respectively, which means they were internally consistent and reliable.

A convenience sampling strategy was used to recruit 530 agritourism visitors from 10 leisure farms island-wide. In order to increase the response rate of the survey, upon completion of the questionnaires every respondent was given a gift. Agritourists filled out and returned the questionnaires in the farms. Of the returned surveys, 38 questionnaires were incomplete and eliminated from the final sample, resulting in a total valid sample of 493, for a 93.01% response rate. In the present study, Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients (expectation: 0.782 and satisfaction: 0.728) for all 31 items were deemed acceptable.

**EMPIRICAL RESULTS**

**Demographic Analysis**

Table 2 reflects the demographic profile of the respondents by gender, marital status, education, occupation, frequency of visiting, the most important choosing reason, region where respondents lived, purpose of visiting, transportation, and whether to visit again.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>% of total respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>48.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married with no kid</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Married with kid</td>
<td>54.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Junior high school and below</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High school</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>College</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate school and above</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>37.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Military and public employees</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fishery and husbandry</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freelance</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Housekeeper</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of visiting leisure</td>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>26.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Twice a year</td>
<td>45.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Three times a year</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Four times a year</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Five times a year and more</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The most important choosing reason</td>
<td>Price</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past experience</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advertisement</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>41.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Characteristics</td>
<td>% of total respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School or company tour</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arrangement by travel agent</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern region</td>
<td>40.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central region</td>
<td>53.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern region</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern region</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dating</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends get together</td>
<td>34.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family reunion</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure activities</td>
<td>23.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and Learning</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>62.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couple</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour group</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motorcycle</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car</td>
<td>89.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour bus</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transportation</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Importance and satisfaction ratings of service attributes**

As Table 3 shows, the respondents perceived all leisure farm service attributes as important, and the mean was 4.023. The most important attributes were “clean and comfortable dining area”, “convenient access for physically-challenged tourists”, and “well-trained and experienced personnel”. The mean of satisfaction rating was 3.803. The attribute of “convenient access to, for example, official website for up-to-date information” received the highest satisfaction rating which represents only one of these attributes had satisfaction ratings greater than 4. Overall, the respondents were not satisfied with the leisure farm service.

**Table 3. Gaps Analysis For Agritourists’ Service Quality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure Farms Service Attributes</th>
<th>Agritourists’ Expectation (E)</th>
<th>Agritourists’ Perception (P)</th>
<th>Agritourists’ Gap (P-E)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IR6</td>
<td>4.069</td>
<td>3.819</td>
<td>-0.249 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.899</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.718</td>
<td>-0.181 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.905</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.757</td>
<td>-0.148 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.053</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.740</td>
<td>-0.312 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.156</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.755</td>
<td>-0.402 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR7</td>
<td>4.077</td>
<td>3.791</td>
<td>-0.286 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.110</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.846</td>
<td>-0.264 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR8</td>
<td>4.065</td>
<td>3.799</td>
<td>-0.266 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR9</td>
<td>4.083</td>
<td>3.850</td>
<td>-0.233 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR10</td>
<td>4.010</td>
<td>3.771</td>
<td>-0.239 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR11</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>3.848</td>
<td>-0.152 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR12</td>
<td>4.085</td>
<td>3.854</td>
<td>-0.231 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR13</td>
<td>4.103</td>
<td>3.850</td>
<td>-0.254 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP14</td>
<td>4.077</td>
<td>3.807</td>
<td>-0.270 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP15</td>
<td>4.002</td>
<td>3.824</td>
<td>-0.178 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.110</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.862</td>
<td>-0.247 ***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Gaps Analysis

In the present study, tourist gap is the difference between tourist perceptions and expectations. Paired sample t-tests were used to test if a tourist gap existed. The average means of service performance perceived by the tourists were all lower than those of their expectations (Table 3). Twenty-six out of thirty-one of these differences were statistically significant at the 0.01 level. The results revealed that, overall, these forty-six leisure farms were not doing a good job in meeting customers’ expectations. The largest gaps existed in the attributes such as “clean and comfortable dining area.”, “customer-first service that makes them feels at home”, and “safety arrangements providing peace of mind”.

### IPGA Analysis

The IPGA model was employed to simultaneously respond to the results of traditional IPA and gap analysis. As shown in Figure 2, this integrated model, similar to the traditional IPA model, can divide the matrix into four resources distribution quadrants: Keep Up the Good Work, Concentrate Here, Low Priority and Possible Overkill.

![Figure 2. The IPGA Matrix](image-url)
According to Figure 2, the dividing point (0,1) sets the IPGA matrix into four quadrants. In accordance with the results of Table 4, the service attributes were respectively plotted into the matrix in terms of their relative performance and relative importance. As shown in Table 3, 26 out of 31 attributes shift to the left of the matrix due to their negative gaps. The only five attributes without significant difference between the average relative importance and performance falling right on the vertical axis were “anticipation of tourists’ needs and wants”, “employees able to greet and show care towards tourists”, “convenient access to, for example, official website for up-to-date information”, “immediate availability of employees and timely answers to questions” and “multiple payment choices such as cash, credit cards, and gift certificates”. The measurement of relative performance is based on the transformation of its gap direction by means of the function $\frac{P_f - \overline{P}}{\overline{P}}$ or $-(\frac{P_f - \overline{P}}{\overline{P}})^{-1}$. From the results in Table 4, there were five service attributes without significant difference between the average relative importance and performance. Hence, their scores of RPs were 0. Most of the leisure farms’ attributes had negative gaps, and the scores of their relative performance were between -1.023 and -0.985, with the exception of two attributes. As Table 5 shows, the relative importance scores for the leisure farm service attributes ranged from 0.950 to 1.033.

Table 4. The IPGA Analysis for Leisure Farms Attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leisure farms service Attributes</th>
<th>Customer expectation</th>
<th>Customer perception</th>
<th>Visitor relative Importance(RI)</th>
<th>Visitor relative Perception(RP)</th>
<th>IPGA Quadrant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IT1</td>
<td>4.069</td>
<td>3.819</td>
<td>1.011</td>
<td>-0.966**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT2</td>
<td>3.899</td>
<td>3.718</td>
<td>0.969</td>
<td>-1.023**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT3</td>
<td>3.905</td>
<td>3.757</td>
<td>0.971</td>
<td>-1.012**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT4</td>
<td>4.053</td>
<td>3.740</td>
<td>1.007</td>
<td>-1.017**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT5</td>
<td>4.156</td>
<td>3.755</td>
<td>1.033</td>
<td>-1.013**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR6</td>
<td>4.077</td>
<td>3.791</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>-1.003**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR7</td>
<td>4.110</td>
<td>3.846</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>-0.989**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR8</td>
<td>4.065</td>
<td>3.799</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>-1.001**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR9</td>
<td>4.083</td>
<td>3.850</td>
<td>1.015</td>
<td>-0.988**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR10</td>
<td>4.010</td>
<td>3.771</td>
<td>0.997</td>
<td>-1.009**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR11</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>3.848</td>
<td>0.994</td>
<td>-0.988**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR12</td>
<td>4.085</td>
<td>3.854</td>
<td>1.015</td>
<td>-0.987**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR13</td>
<td>4.103</td>
<td>3.850</td>
<td>1.020</td>
<td>-0.988**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP14</td>
<td>4.077</td>
<td>3.807</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>-0.999**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP15</td>
<td>4.002</td>
<td>3.824</td>
<td>0.995</td>
<td>-0.995**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP16</td>
<td>4.110</td>
<td>3.862</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>-0.985**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP17</td>
<td>4.020</td>
<td>3.840</td>
<td>0.999</td>
<td>-0.991**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP18</td>
<td>4.108</td>
<td>3.793</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>-1.003**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE19</td>
<td>3.986</td>
<td>3.852</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Y Axis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE20</td>
<td>3.974</td>
<td>3.809</td>
<td>0.988</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Y Axis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE21</td>
<td>4.089</td>
<td>3.803</td>
<td>1.016</td>
<td>-1.000**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE22</td>
<td>3.824</td>
<td>3.734</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>-1.018**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE23</td>
<td>3.941</td>
<td>3.736</td>
<td>0.980</td>
<td>-1.018**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE24</td>
<td>4.150</td>
<td>3.740</td>
<td>1.032</td>
<td>-1.017**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE25</td>
<td>4.091</td>
<td>3.738</td>
<td>1.017</td>
<td>-1.017**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC26</td>
<td>4.069</td>
<td>3.832</td>
<td>1.011</td>
<td>-0.993**</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC27</td>
<td>4.018</td>
<td>4.053</td>
<td>0.999</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Y Axis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC28</td>
<td>4.063</td>
<td>3.807</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>-0.999*</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC29</td>
<td>3.840</td>
<td>3.688</td>
<td>0.954</td>
<td>-1.031**</td>
<td>III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC30</td>
<td>3.935</td>
<td>3.801</td>
<td>0.978</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Y Axis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC31</td>
<td>3.807</td>
<td>3.785</td>
<td>0.946</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>Y Axis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.001
Table 5. The Priority Order of Service Improvement of Attributes Situated in the Concentrate Here Quadrant with Factors Causing the Customers Gap

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>RP(P)</th>
<th>RI(I)</th>
<th>($\bar{x}$ / $\max$ $(\bar{x})$)</th>
<th>($\bar{I} - 1) / \max(\bar{I} - 1)$</th>
<th>Distance</th>
<th>Order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IT5</td>
<td>-1.013</td>
<td>1.033</td>
<td>0.992</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>1.411</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE24</td>
<td>-1.017</td>
<td>1.032</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td>1.393</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP18</td>
<td>-1.003</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>0.973</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>1.174</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR7</td>
<td>-0.989</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>0.946</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>1.162</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP16</td>
<td>-0.985</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>1.159</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR13</td>
<td>-0.988</td>
<td>1.020</td>
<td>0.944</td>
<td>0.367</td>
<td>1.145</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE25</td>
<td>-1.017</td>
<td>1.017</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.265</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IE21</td>
<td>-1.000</td>
<td>1.016</td>
<td>0.967</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>1.096</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR9</td>
<td>-0.988</td>
<td>1.015</td>
<td>0.944</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>1.073</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRR12</td>
<td>-0.987</td>
<td>1.015</td>
<td>0.942</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR6</td>
<td>-1.003</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>0.973</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>1.062</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP14</td>
<td>-0.999</td>
<td>1.013</td>
<td>0.965</td>
<td>0.155</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT1</td>
<td>-0.996</td>
<td>1.011</td>
<td>0.959</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>1.035</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC26</td>
<td>-0.993</td>
<td>1.011</td>
<td>0.953</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>1.032</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR8</td>
<td>-1.001</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>0.969</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IC28</td>
<td>-0.999</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>0.965</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>1.028</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT4</td>
<td>-1.017</td>
<td>1.007</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>1.022</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the IPGA matrix for farms service attributes displayed in Table 5, 17 attributes were identified in the Concentrate Here quadrant as being of high relative importance as perceived by the agritourists but with low relative performance. This conveys a message that extra work is needed here. Nine attributes were situated in the Low Priority quadrant, which had low relative importance and performance perceived by the agritourists. Though the attributes need to be improved, their efforts of priorities are not to be placed overly. The other five attributes with low relative importance and without significant difference between the average relative importance and performance falling right on the vertical axis were situated in the Possible Overkilled quadrant. These five were “anticipation of tourists’ needs and wants”, “employees able to greet and show care towards tourists”, “convenient access to, for example, official website for up-to-date information”, “immediate availability of employees and timely answers to questions” and “multiple payment choices such as cash, credit cards, and gift certificates”. This implies that agritourism owners/managers should not overly invest into the tangible attributes. However, this does not mean that the tangible dimension associated with leisure farm service is unimportant. Rather, a ‘threshold effect’ exists where management must ensure that the tangible dimension meets the tourists’ minimum expectations. As long as the minimum standard is met or exceeded, the tourists will focus on other dimensions in their evaluation of service quality. Agritourism farmers/managers should carefully maintain at least this expected minimum in their physical facilities and staff appearance.

Moreover, with the consideration of the company’s limited resources, the management was able to prioritize the order of improvement according to the standardized distance between each attribute and the intersection coordinate (0,1) in the Concentrate Here quadrant. As Table 5 shows, “clean and comfortable dining area”, “convenient access for physically-challenged customers”, “safety arrangements providing peace of mind”, “employees helping each other to maintain speed and quality of service”, and “well-trained and experienced personnel” are the five attributes with the largest distances from the intersection coordinates respectively.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to explore the gaps in relation to the agritourists’ service expectations and actual service received from the leisure farms in Taiwan. The results revealed that there were significant differences between the leisure farms visitors’ service expectations and actual service received. The results indicated that, overall, the farms were not doing a good job in
meeting the visitors’ expectations. With a service product, quality is measured by how well visitors' expectations are met. Thus, management needs to make efforts to close the gaps between what customers expect and what they perceive in terms of quality service delivery.

This study applies IPGA, a tool which integrates traditional IPA and gap analysis to assist leisure farm managers in improving their service quality. The IPGA model used by the present study is an effective technique in evaluating the performance of the service organization and in resource reallocation planning and marketing strategies. Further, with the consideration of a farm’s limited resources, the management was able to prioritize the order of improvement according to the standardized distance between each attribute and the intersection coordinate (0,1) in the Concentrate Here quadrant. In our case, the top five attributes that needed to be improved upon (Table 5) were “clean and comfortable dining area”, “convenient access for physically-challenged tourists”, “safety arrangements providing peace of mind”, “employees helping each other to maintain speed and quality of service”, and “well-trained and experienced personnel”.

Given the rapid growth of leisure farms island-wide, the quality of agritourism is somewhat inconsistent. In acknowledgment of the significance of service quality in the agritourism industry, “the leisure farm service quality trademark” has been certified by the government and the TLFDA since 2010. However, while the government has devoted considerable efforts on supply-side aspects to promote agritourism service quality, there has been relatively little discussion and awareness from the perspectives of the demand side to evaluate the service quality, nor priority of service indicators and evaluation of relationships between current service importance and satisfaction in order to improve the leisure farms’ service quality. The present study thus contributes to fill the gaps improving the service quality in the leisure farms from the agritourism visitors’ perspectives in the tourism literature.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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TOURIST PREFERENCES ON A SHOPPING TOURISM DESTINATION IN METRO MANILA, THE PHILIPPINES

Marck Bryan David
John Jeri Dinozo
Our Lady of Fatima University

INTRODUCTION

People travel for a variety of reasons: to escape, to explore, to understand, to discover, and to participate. But at the core of the tourist experience lies the place where the destination is — the place that hands something to the traveler to keep forever and share the happy thoughts with family and other people. One of the most important attractions for tourist is shopping. Shopping malls provide places where tourists can both stop and experience the local culture. Tourist often look for leisure, quality, brand, and merchandise. This component is known as the shopping tourism that is one of the biggest contributors in choosing a tourist destination.

The researchers wanted to know the behavior, motivation and the perception of the respondents with regard shopping tourism in Fairview, an area located in the northern part of Quezon City. This research was aimed to know the preferences of tourists on Fairview, Quezon City as a shopping destination. The study looked into the shopping tourism preferences in terms of (a) leisure; (b) sales; (c) quality; (d) merchandise selection; and, (e) cultural products. Further, the study used the attributes proposed by the UN World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2014) in measuring a shopping tourism destination in terms of (a) accessibility; (b) safety and security; (c) enclosed malls; (d) unique architecture; (e) night market; and (f) popularity of center.

In the Philippines, Filipinos tend to shop around and are loyal to brands (Lazo, 2013). In a survey conducted by Nielsen (Lazo, 2013), 77% of Filipino respondents said that they usually have preferred brands and types before buying. Further, Filipino shoppers then to shop around to buy the most value-for-money product.

Ho: There is no significant difference in the preferences of the respondents in choosing shopping destination when they are grouped according to their demographic profile.

In a related study on Japanese tourist preferences, Agrusa and Kim (2010) proposed that the preferences of the tourist for a shopping destination are: (1) the desire for brand-name; (2) high-quality products; (3) prestige and social status; (4) outward appearances; (5) gift-giving traditions (cultural products); and, (6) expectations of high-quality service. Just like Filipinos, it was proven in the study that Japanese also look around before choosing to buy (Agrusa & Kim, 2010).

In another study on the same topic in Dubai (Zulfagar, 2011), it was shown that the composition of shopping experience for mall shoppers include a blend of five factors: ambience, physical infrastructure, marketing focus, convenience, and safety and security. Findings of this research may be used as guidelines for development and management of shopping malls in Dubai.

In summary, the main attributes that tourists look forward to in different shopping tourism destinations include a mix of cultural, physical, and emotional factors that imbibe a general touristic value.

METHOD

The study was conducted from November 2014 – March 2015 within Fairview, Quezon City. The city, located in Metro Manila, is the biggest city in the Philippines in terms of population and is divided into six districts. Fairview is located on the northwestern part of the city in the Novaliches District of the city. Using a mix of descriptive and evaluative research design, the researches employed a self-administered questionnaire based on the pro-
posed attributes of a shopping tourism destination (UNWTO, 2014), divided into three parts: (1) Part I for the demographic profile of the respondents; (2) Part II for the shopping tourism preferences; and, (3) Part III on the attributes of Fairview, Quezon City as a proposed shopping tourism destination. Before the actual conduct of the study, the researchers conducted a pre-test that yielded a 91% reliability measure.

To gather data in the actual survey, the researchers employed purposive sampling wherein there were one hundred fifty (150) respondents. Most of the respondents were asked within the vicinity of shopping malls in the Fairview-area which included the SM Fairview, Fairview Terraces, and Robinsons Novaliches.

After data gathering, the data were then analyzed using frequency distribution for the demographic profile, weighted means for the preferences, and Z-test for hypothesis testing.

**FINDINGS**

Majority of the respondents were between eighteen (18) to twenty – three (23) years old (59.33%); were female (59%); were students (39.33%) of the respondents; were from Quezon City (52%); had a yearly income of approximately PHP40, 001 to PHP70, 000 (25.33%); and had an average of once and twice a week in visiting shopping malls (34.67%)

Quality/brand was the top preference. The study yielded that most respondents preferred quality or brand to the other factors (as shown in Table 1). This proved the study of Nielsen (2013) that majority of Filipino shoppers have high regard for brands.

**Table 1. Preferences on a shopping destination**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preferences</th>
<th>Weighted Mean</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leisure</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>Preferred</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>Preferred</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality/Brand</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>Preferred</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of Merchandise</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>Preferred</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Products/ Shops</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>Moderately Preferred</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Mean</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>Preferred</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Legend: Not Preferred = 1-1.49; Slightly Preferred=1.50-2.49; Moderately Preferred = 2.50-3.49; Preferred = 3.50-4.49; Highly Preferred = 4.50-5.00

_Safety and security was a highly important requirement in shopping destination selection_. In terms of the factors required in selecting a shopping destination, safety and security had the highest mean. All the other factors were also deemed ‘important.’ This reflected the study of the UNWTO (2014) where it was proposed that the safety and security of the destination was highly essential.

**Table 2. Factors required in selecting shopping destination**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Weighted Mean</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popularity of the center</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and Security</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>Highly Important</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night Market</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique Architecture</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enclosed Malls</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Mean</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>Important</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Legend: Least Important = 1-1.49; Slightly Important=1.50-2.49; Moderately Important = 2.50-3.49; Important = 3.50-4.49; Highly Important = 4.50-5.00

_Age as a non-factor in terms of preferences_. Based on the Z-test employed, there was no significant difference on preferences when the respondents were grouped according to their age. Therefore, age levels did not affect shopping tourism preferences. In the same study by Mohsen (2010), age was not also a factor in terms of shopping tourism preferences. But in terms of gender, place of residence, yearly income, and number of times of visit, there were significant differences in preferences. The same result was yielded in the study of Agrusa and Kim (2010).
Table 3. Summary Results of the Z-Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Profile</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Conclusion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age / Preference</td>
<td>Accept Ho</td>
<td>There is no significant difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Factors / Preference</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>There is a significant difference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION**

Quality or brand was a preferred factor in a shopping destination. This was a manifestation that Filipinos still preferred traditional buying (Lazo, 2013). A majority of the respondents pointed out that safety and security was a highly important factor in their selection of a shopping tourism destination. This implied that shopping destinations should feature a section of quality, as well as to ensure that these shopping enclaves be highly secured (UNWTO, 2014).

It was also found out that age did not affect the preferences of the tourists while gender, place of residence, yearly income, and number of visit had an effect on preferences. This meant that shopping tourism destinations should offer a variety of options that are suitable for people of various gender, income levels, and environment (Agrusa & Kim, 2010).

**REFERENCES**


MODELLING TOURISM IN AGRICULTURAL REGIONS: A NEW APPROACH TO CONCEPTUALISING AND UNDERSTANDING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Michelle Thompson  
Bruce Prideaux  
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INTRODUCTION

Tourism has often been regarded as a panacea to regional development because of its potential to regenerate regional economic decline, revive dying industries and diversify a region’s economic base (Butler, Hall & Jenkins, 1998; Gioutzi & Nijkamp, 2006; Hall & Page, 2006; Sharpley & Telfer, 2002; Szajder, Przezborska & Scrimgeour, 2009; Torres & Momsen, 2011). This is evident in some agricultural regions, where the traditional industry of agriculture may be struggling or in decline. In such cases, tourist experiences may be developed from the existing agriculture industry, referred to as agri-tourism, as well as from complementary resources, such as the natural environment, history and cultural heritage. Although the potential of tourism to regenerate regional economies is well acknowledged, less research is available to guide regions through the transition required to redevelop as a tourist destination. This paper aims to fill this gap by developing a conceptual model that explains how drivers and barriers influence the ability of agricultural regions to develop tourism experiences by transforming agricultural resources into tourism experiences.

METHODOLOGY

Margaret River is located on Australia’s western coastline, approximately a three hour drive south of Perth. The region is renowned nationally and internationally for its wine and food tourism experiences, surfing, and a rich diverse natural landscape comprised of coastal, cave and rainforest areas. Originally, Margaret River was a poor agricultural area, with struggling dairy and beef industries. However, the introduction of viticulture in the 1960s was a catalyst for change, and as the region’s wine reputation grew in the 1980s, it was paralleled by growth in its tourism industry. These experiences have largely been developed from the agricultural resources. However, the region has also developed a bundle of tourism attributes based on its broader resource base, with popular activities such as surfing, coastal walking trails, lighthouse tours, rainforest walks, guided cave tours, interpretive centres, and heritage.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 25 representatives from the agriculture, food and wine, and tourism sectors, as well as regional support agencies and government representatives. Yin (2009) regards interviews to be one of the most important sources for case studies, allowing for probing and clarification of issues to explore underlying themes (Veal, 2005). The interviews were audio-taped to enable accurate transcription of the qualitative findings, which were thematically coded using N-Vivo software. Triangulation of the interview themes with content and historical analysis of secondary sources established converging lines of enquiry, with an emphases on the corroboration of findings (Yin, 2009). Secondary data was sourced from grey (industry reports and statistics, oral histories and books) and academic literature, where available.

Results identified a two-tier hierarchy of drivers and barriers central to the development of tourism in the Margaret River region. These factors were incorporated into a conceptual model that explains the process of transforming agricultural resources into tourism experiences over time.
FINDINGS

Analysis of the interview transcripts and secondary data sources revealed six key drivers that participants considered central to the development of tourism in the region and were these classified as Tier One drivers (see Figure 1). Of the Tier One drivers, two – innovation and networks – support existing literature, while the remainder – geography, people, branding and internal culture – are not as widely recognised. Interviewees also discussed a number of additional drivers that interacted with and provided a more thorough understanding of the Tier One drivers. These were classified as Tier Two drivers and included diversity of the tourism product, successful industries, financial capacity, distribution channels, a sense of place and vision.

A similar analysis was undertaken to identify barriers creating impediments to development, with participants identifying a diverse range. Barriers included overlaying boundaries, maintaining brand integrity, balanced development approach, a lack of natural resources, financial constraints, regulations and legislation and market changes, and were classified as Tier Two barriers (see Figure 1). To gain a better understanding of the diversity and complexity of these barriers, six main Tier One barrier types were identified: administrative; economic; environmental; socio-cultural; regulatory; and product-based.

Taking a holistic approach, the influence of both drivers and barriers to development need to be considered within a regional context. The conceptual model in Figure 1 shows how a region’s agricultural resources are the foundation on which tourism experiences may be developed. Over time these resources are subject to external change (from within and outside of the region), events (such as natural disasters or crop disease), as well as the competing interactions of complex drivers and barriers. Collectively, these factors have a cumulative influence over the transformation process, affecting a region’s ability to harness its potential (comparative advantages) to create tourism experiences (competitive advantages).

The model also enhances understanding of the complexity of tourism development. Although the process of transformation is the same, the chaotic nature and complexity of the factors involved will result in a different outcome in different regions at different periods of time. Consequently, the model demonstrates why it is sometimes difficult for regions to convert apparent comparative advantages into competitive advantages, with barriers outweighing the drivers. For example, the introduction of viticulture into Margaret River, and the subsequent success of this industry in combination with a number of drivers, became a significant event that enabled the region to transform its many comparative advantages into competitive advantages and emerging as major regional tourism destination.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper has challenged existing knowledge of agri-tourism and adopted a more holistic research approach with the concept of tourism in agricultural regions. Having identified two tiers of drivers and barriers responsible for influencing tourism development in Margaret River, a conceptual model was developed that explains how and why tourism may be developed in agricultural regions, by transforming a region’s agricultural resources (comparative advantages) into tourism experiences (competitive advantages). Through this process, current knowledge has been extended by illustrating the interaction between drivers, barriers and the external environment in a regional context. Consequently, developing tourism in agricultural regions can build regional capacity and allow for a more sustainable transformation of resources from agriculture to tourism.

It is highly recommended that the conceptual understanding proposed in this paper informs the development of a process model that agricultural regions can use as a planning tool. The authors anticipate this as the next step in the research process for this project. As the concept of tourism in agricultural regions is relatively new, future research is needed to test the proposed conceptual model in other agricultural regions, both in Australia and overseas, and with resources bases other than agriculture, such as nature, wildlife or cultural heritage.
Figure 1. Conceptual Model of TAR Development

REFERENCES